KNOWLEDGE, SERVICE, TOURISM & HOSPITALITY
Editors:
Ford Lumban Gaol
Fonny Hutagalung
Abd Razak Zakaria
Zuwati Hasim
CRC Press
Taylor & Francis Group
A BALKEMA BOOK

This page intentionally left blank

PROCEEDINGS OF THE ANNUAL INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON MANAGEMENT AND TECHNOLOGY IN KNOWLEDGE, SERVICE, TOURISM & HOSPITALITY 2015 (SERVE 2015), BANDUNG, INDONESIA, 1–2 AUGUST 2015

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality

Editors

Ford Lumban Gaol
Bina Nusantara University, Jakarta, Indonesia

Fonny Hutagalung
University Malaya, Malaysia

Abd Razak Zakaria
University Malaya, Malaysia

Zuwati Hasim
University Malaya, Malaysia

CRC Press
Taylor & Francis Group
Boca Raton London New York Leiden

CRC Press is an imprint of the
Taylor & Francis Group, an **informa** business

A BALKEMA BOOK

CRC Press/Balkema is an imprint of the Taylor & Francis Group, an informa business

© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, UK

Typeset by V Publishing Solutions Pvt Ltd., Chennai, India
Printed and bound in Great Britain and the USA

All rights reserved. No part of this publication or the information contained herein may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, by photocopying, recording or otherwise, without written prior permission from the publisher.

Although all care is taken to ensure integrity and the quality of this publication and the information herein, no responsibility is assumed by the publishers nor the author for any damage to the property or persons as a result of operation or use of this publication and/or the information contained herein.

Published by: CRC Press/Balkema
P.O. Box 11320, 2301 EH Leiden, The Netherlands
e-mail: Pub.NL@taylorandfrancis.com
www.crcpress.com – www.taylorandfrancis.com

ISBN: 978-1-138-02920-0 (Hbk)
ISBN: 978-1-315-61731-2 (eBook PDF)

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

Table of contents

Preface ix

Keynote lectures xi

Education & social behaviour

ESL Teachers' knowledge on learner autonomy 3
Z. Hasim & A.R. Zakaria

Mother tongue education and ethnic identity of Malaysian Chinese secondary school students 7
P.Y. Ho, F.P. Chew & K.P. Thock

The acquisitions of knowledge in Chinese classical literature and academic achievement among the secondary schools' students 13
C.F. Peng & P.S. Fong

Implementation of the LINUS program in Malaysian primary schools 21
C.F. Peng, C.H. Leng & F. Hutagalung

Librarians' knowledge sharing behaviour 27
M.Z.H.M. Sawal, N. Noordin, R.A.R. Omar, A.L.A. Rahman & Z. Zakaria

Cross-racial supervision: Case conceptualization of supervisee-supervisor relationship 35
N.A. Rosli

Self-reflection: Self-assessment of supervision related to knowledge and skills 39
N.A. Rosli

Asian supervisor-western supervisee: Personal approach to supervision 43
N.A. Rosli

Parental involvement in students' academic achievement: A preliminary study 49
J. Kandasamy, F. Hutagalung, M.R.A. Razak & Z.Md. Isa

Approaches and models of behaviour management in classroom 55
C. Yusof, M.N. Mariani & S. Hafiza

The emphasis of Higher Order Thinking (HOT) in the curriculum and the implementation in reality 61
C.C.S. Fern & U.K.M. Salleh

Homeschooling: An alternative to mainstream 65
L.C. Yin, A.R. Zakaria & H. Baharun

Perception and expectation of parents and students regarding choice of secondary school type 73
M.S.A. Patah, A.R. Zakaria & M. Mohsin

Religious practices in delinquents 81
M.A. Malik, A.R. Zakaria & A.M. Sulaiman

Mental health literacy among undergraduate students in selected universities in Malaysia 87
R.A.M. Jaladin, N.K. Yun & I.H.A. Tharbe

Anti bias education practice in pre-school education in rural Malaysia 97
A. Kadir, M.Md. Nor, F. Hutagalung & J. Chee

Do we have salt & pepper on the table? (teaching style & learning style importance) 101
R. Nadarajan, Z. Naimie & R.A. Abuzaid

Identifying motivation factors of the participation of local community in tourism industry in National Park, Pahang, Malaysia 107
M.R. Noorhayati, I.M. Hasmadi, H.Z. Pakhriazad & A.K. Wahidin

Best practices with revenue sharing authentic assessment of preschool students' learning problems 113
R.M. Rasul & M. Zagan

Business & economics

The role of the branding strategies in the promotion of Vladimir region (Russia) 121
M.V. Roberts & A.V. Baikov

Formation of methodological approach to evaluation of the national innovative environment 127
R. Fedosova, B. Kheyfits & M. Ilyina

A practical approach to modeling of regional state support system for small business development 133
Y.V. Kuznetsov, N.M. Filimonova & R.N. Fedosova

The evaluation of physical and environmental factors in low-cost housing 139
W.R.A. Jiram, A.A. Bujang, I.A. Zairuslan & H.A. Zarin

An investigation into Thai tourists' preferences of tourism domains: A case study of Chiang Mai province, Thailand 145
T. Kamnardsiri, N. Choosri, P. Sureephong & A. Lbath

Empirical evaluation of Gen Y housing affordability 155
W.R.A. Jiram, A.A. Bujang, H.A. Zarin & F.H.M. Anuar

Local revitalization through the local food system focused on Wanju, Korea 161
J.-Y. Kim

Effect of environmental knowledge and concern toward attitude of green home buyers' intention in Surabaya 167
M. Wijayaningtyas, I. Sipan & C.W. Wai

Investigating the required competencies of valuation surveying graduates 173
W.R.A. Jiram, A.A. Bujang & H.A. Zarin

The music licensing supply chain: The new demands of a new market 179
M.P. Oliveira, A.J.R.R. Carmo, M.A. Duarte & L. Baumworcel

The experience of teaching the nurses: Insights for developing an educational nursing management software 183
L.H. Loureiro, A. Scavarda, M.M.V.N. Cardoso, I.C. da Silva, T. Tonini & L. Baumworcel

Patient-centered lean process: A strategic implementation 189
L. Baumworcel, A.L. Matheus Junior, L.B. Sartore & A. Scavarda

The economic crises and the Brazilian healthcare system 197
L. Baumworcel & A. Scavarda

The fundamental of housing affordability and affordable houses: A review 203
N. Azmi, A.A. Bujang, W.R.A. Jiram & H.A. Zarin

Design of Knowledge Management System to support research activities at university 209
M. Dachyar, M.B.N. Alam & N.R. Pratama

Improvement of procurement business process (procure-to-pay) in Indonesian shipping company 215
M. Dachyar & B. Praharani

Impact of service quality on customer satisfaction in low cost airline service in Indonesia 223
M. Dachyar & M.R. Siva

A study to improve Enterprise Resources Planning post-implementation
in Indonesian industries 227
M. Dachyar & Y. Prawira

An implementation model for the healthcare sustainability 233
C.M.L. Machado, A. Scavarda & L. Baumworcel

Monitoring news articles using multi-agent system 239
D. Derakhshan, S. Christensen, M. Larsen & N. Memon

Developer's perspective on communication issues in prototype model
(case study: Warehouse management system of local agency for disaster management) 245
N.W. Rahayu

Author index 251

This page intentionally left blank

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

Preface

The 3rd International Conference on Management and Technology in Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality 2015 (SERVE 2015) was held 1–2 August 2015 at The Sheraton Hotel Bandung, Bandung, West Java, Indonesia.

The 3rd International Conference on Management and Technology in Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality 2015 (SERVE 2015) provided a platform for all researchers, entrepreneurs and students to exchange new ideas and application experiences face to face, to establish business or research relations and to find global partners for future collaboration. SERVE 2015 featured invited speakers who further explored this topic that is so significant for management. Concurrent sessions and a poster session covered a wide range of topics and issues, including both contributed papers and special sessions devoted to specific themes.

We would like to express our sincere gratitude to all in the Technical Program Committee who have reviewed the papers and developed a very interesting conference program as well as to the invited and plenary speakers. This year, we received 199 papers and after rigorous review, 40 papers were accepted. The participants came from ten countries. There were five Parallel Sessions and three Keynote Speakers.

It is an honour to present the publication of SERVE 2015 by CRC Press/Balkema, Taylor & Francis Group, and we deeply thank the authors for their enthusiastic and high-grade contributions.

Finally, we would like to thank the conference chairmen, the members of the steering committee, the organizing committee, the organizing secretariat and the financial support from the conference sponsors that allowed the success of SERVE 2015.

The SERVE 2015 Proceedings Editors

Dr. Ford Lumban Gaol
Bina Nusantara University

Dr. Fonny Hutagalung
University of Malaya, Malaysia

Abd Razak Zakaria
University Malaya, Malaysia

Zuwati Hasim
University Malaya, Malaysia

This page intentionally left blank

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

Keynote lectures

1. EMERITUS PROF. TONY TAYLOR

School of Psychology – Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand

Title:

Declaring justice to be a basic human need

Short Bio:

Qualifications: Cert.Soc Sci. & Admin (London), MA, CRS, PhD Victoria University of Wellington, DHC (Reims) Emeritus Prof. Tony Taylor joined the University long ago with a background in the probation and prison psychology service, and he went on to develop interests in student counselling, clinical psychology and psychiatry. The combination led him to undertake applied research in Antarctic isolation, developments for Volunteer Service Abroad, and psychological stress in response to crises of various kinds. It even involved research into Beatlemania when the 'fab-four' came to New Zealand in 1964.

2. NATALIA FILIMONOVA

Vladimir State University (Russia)

Title:

A Practical Approach to Modeling of Regional State Support System for Small Business Development

Short Bio:

Natalia Filimonova is professor of Economics and the head of the Management and Marketing Department at the Vladimir State University (Russia). She received her Ph.D. from the Saint-Petersburg State University (Russia). She is a member of the Dissertation Council at the Financial University under the

Government of the Russian Federation. She has worked for numerous scientific conferences and journals as a consultant and reviewer. Her research focuses on small and medium businesses development and their influence on regional economy. She has been awarded grants from the Russian Humanitarian Scientific Foundation for her research (2010–2011, 2011–2012, 2015–2016).

3. MARIA ILYINA

Russian Academy of Sciences

Short Bio:

Research scientist of the Institute of Economics of the Russian Academy of Sciences (Moscow, Russia), Ph.D. in Economics, Master in Political Science. She graduated from the Russian-Armenian (Slavic) University (Yerevan, 2009), magistracy of the Russian Academy of National Economy and Public Administration under the President of the Russian Federation (Moscow, 2014). Her research focuses on the development of the Eurasian integration through innovative factors and analysis of the problems of member-states of the Eurasian Economic Union industrial complexes integration.

4. HARDYANA SYINTAWATI

Vice–President, Marketing and Communications – Ericsson Indonesia

Title:

On The Brink of a Networked Society

Short Bio:

Vice-President, Marketing & Communications, PT. Ericsson Indonesia, Networked Society Evangelist. Having the education background of Telecommunication Engineering and Marketing Management, both from the University of Indonesia, Hardyana Syintawati has always been interested in the benefits of technology to various industries and how it affects our lives. In her current position as VP, Marketing & Communications, Ericsson Indonesia, Hardyana is also a Networked Society Evangelist where she holds the responsibilities to engage in discussions with various stakeholders in various industries to address the challenges and opportunities created by the combined forces of broadband, mobility and cloud. Read more about Ericsson's vision of Networked Society at http://www.ericsson.com/thinkingahead/networked_society

5. FORD LUMBAN GAOL

Title:

Challenge and Opportunity of Psycho-informatics: From Data Science to Psychometrics

Short Bio:

Dr. Ford Lumban Gaol is currently Associate Professor of Informatics Engineering and Information Systems at Bina Nusantara University (www.binus.ac.id). He is the Vice Chair of the Bina Nusantara University Doctorate Program in Computer Science (http://www.tensymp2015.org/) and Research Interest Group Leader "Advance System in Computational Intelligence & Knowledge Engineering" (IntelSys) (http://research.binus.ac.id/intelligent-and-advance-system/). Dr. Ford is the Vice Chair of the IEEE Indonesia section for International and Professional Activities (http://ieee.web.id/indonesia/officers/). Dr. Ford is the ACM Indonesia past Chapter Chair. Dr. Ford is the IIAI Indonesia Chapter Chair. Dr. Ford is already involved with some projects related to Technology Alignment in some multinational companies as well as some government projects. In terms of international profile, Dr. Ford is the recipient of Visiting Professor in Kazan Federal University, Russia 2014 and 2015, Visiting Professor in Vladimir State University, Russia 2016, Invited Scholar in Aligarh Muslim University, keynote speaker in ICCNT 2014 and Invited Scholar in ICTP Trieste Italy. He has written 50 papers that are indexed in SCOPUS and 8 books that have been published by Springer. He was General Chairs for a number of international conferences and IEEE conferences. Dr. Ford is a member of the Indonesian Mathematical Society (IndoMS), The Association for Computing Machinery (ACM) Professional, The International Association of Engineers (IAENG), and the Indonesia Society for Bioinformatics. He holds a B.Sc. in Mathematics, a Master in Computer Science and a Doctorate in Computer Science from the University of Indonesia, Indonesia, obtained in 1997, 2001 and 2009, respectively.

SERVE 2015
SERVE 2015

Education & social behaviour

This page intentionally left blank

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

ESL Teachers' knowledge on learner autonomy

Zuwati Hasim
Department of Language and Literacy Education, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Abd Razak Zakaria
Department of Educational Foundation, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: This chapter presents the findings of a study replicated from Borg's (2012) to find out how autonomy in learning is conceptualized, perceived and practised by the Malaysian ESL secondary school teachers. Data for the study were collected through a survey where a questionnaire from Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) was adopted. Interviews with the ESL secondary school teachers from the district of Selangor, Malaysia were also conducted. The results of the study are somewhat similar to the Borg and Al-Busaidi's (2012) where the findings revealed that the ESL teachers were aware of the learner autonomy concepts, although quite a number was not sure of certain attributes of autonomy among Malaysian ESL learners. The majority of the ESL teachers displayed their awareness of learner autonomy concept. Also, positive responses were gathered from the Malaysian ESL teachers in relation to the desirability over the feasibility of promoting and developing learners' abilities for learner autonomy. The results of this study give some insights on how ESL teachers' beliefs about their learners in relation to the ability and development of learner autonomy in learning English as a second language.

1 INTRODUCTION

Education in Malaysia has gone through various changes and development. Started off with the Razak Report in 1956 and the Rahman Talib Report in 1960, and later the Malaysia National Education Act was formulated in 1967. In fact, the review on the education plans and reports are consistently made. Table 1 presents the chronology of educational plans and reviews that took place in Malaysia (Ministry of Education, 2015).

The recent education plan, the Malaysia Education Blueprint was first made known to the public in 2012. This education plan took considerations of assessments and evaluations of the Malaysia education system by many experts and agencies, locally and internationally that include the World Bank, UNESCO, and the OECD (Ministry of Education, 2015). The plan demands learners to be independent, critical, and responsible for their own learning, which indicate an emphasis on learner autonomy. However, to what extent the idea of learner autonomy in the classrooms is understood particularly by the teachers?

Table 1. The chronological development of Malaysia educational plan.

Malaysia education plan & review	Year
The Razak Report	1956
The Rahman Talib Report	1960
The National Education Act	1967
The Cabinet Committee Report	1979
The National Education Philosophy	1988
The Education Act	1996
The Education Development Plan	2001
The Education Development Blueprint	2006
The Malaysia Education Blueprint	2013–2025

2 DEFINING LEARNER AUTONOMY

Learner autonomy has long been discussed worldwide and came into the attention of ESL researchers in 1980s. Holec (1979) referred "learner autonomy" as one's "ability to take charge of his own learning" (p. 3) in the language classroom in which the ability to take charge "must be acquired by 'natural' means or formal learning" (p. 3). Dam, Eriksson, Little, Miliander, and Trebbi (1990), however, define autonomy as "…a capacity and willingness to act independently and in cooperation with others, as a social, responsible person" (p. 102). Little (1991), on the other hand, extends the meaning further by looking into the ability to decide, evaluate and reflect whereby he precisely

refers autonomy as an ability "…for detachment, critical reflection, decision making and independent action" (p. 4). According to McGarry (1995), learner autonomy involves getting students to be responsible for their work, giving some control over their learning process as to what, how, and when to learn based on their set goals within which they are able to reflect and evaluate their own work. Of all the definitions given, what could be the common underlying construct of learner autonomy?

The following are some of the key concepts for 'learner autonomy':

- Students are given the responsibility and ownership of their learning process
- Students are able to make decisions concerning their learning (self-directed)
- The ability to decide and be responsible of one's learning are acquired (acquired skills)
- Autonomy exists in both individual (with or without help from teachers) and groups of learners (socially-constructed)
- Emphasis given on independence and interdependence (collaboration)

3 THE PRESENT STUDY

The present study aims at identifying the teachers' beliefs and reporting their practices with regard to the potential for learner autonomy among the students they teach. Hence, the study tried to find out how autonomy in learning is conceptualized and practised by the Malaysian ESL secondary school teachers with the following Research Questions (RQ) to be addressed:

1. What does 'learner autonomy' means to Malaysian ESL secondary school teachers?
2. To what extent, according to the Malaysian ESL teachers, does learner autonomy assist L2 learning?

A case study was adopted and data were collected using a close-ended survey questionnaire which was adopted and adapted from Borg & Al-Busaidi's (2012). The questionnaires were distributed to 100 secondary school teachers of English as a Second language in the state of Selangor, Malaysia. However, only 88 questionnaires were returned. A descriptive statistical analysis was carried out using SPSS to report on the results of the survey.

4 SURVEY RESULTS

The results of the study are presented based on the research questions that the study is addressing. All respondents are teachers of English as a Second Language (ESL) from the state of Selangor. These teachers are teaching at the secondary schools. Seventy seven percent of the respondents have over 5 years of teaching experience with 15 to 19 years being the largest group (23.9 percent). In terms of academic qualifications, 89.8 percent of teachers have at least a bachelor's degree and another, 10.2 percent with diploma qualification.

4.1 *Defining 'learner autonomy'*

The first research question reflects ESL teachers' understanding of the meaning of 'learner autonomy'. It was informed from the study that teachers have quite similar and different conceptions of learner autonomy, at the same time. Table 1 shows the results for RQ1, that is: What does 'learner autonomy' means to Malaysian ESL secondary school teachers?

Item	statement	SD	D	U	A	SA
1	Language learners of all ages can develop learner autonomy.	2.3	6.8	6.8	78.4	5.7
4	Autonomy means that learners can make choices about how they learn.	1.1	1.1	6.8	70.5	20.5
8	Learner autonomy means learning without a teacher.	2.3	36.4	17.0	42.0	2.3
13	Learner autonomy can be achieved by learners of all cultural backgrounds.	0.0	12.5	8.0	69.3	10.2
17	Learner autonomy implies a rejection of traditional teacher-led ways of teaching.	2.3	31.8	25.0	36.4	4.5
20	Learner autonomy is only possible with adult learners.	5.7	63.6	18.2	12.5	0.0
23	Learner autonomy requires the learner to be totally independent of the teacher.	4.5	48.9	15.9	28.4	2.3
24	Learner autonomy is a concept which is not suited to non-Western learners.	8.0	43.2	35.2	13.6	0.0
32	The ability to monitor one's learning is central to learner autonomy.	0.0	2.3	15.9	77.3	4.5
37	To become autonomous, learners need to develop the ability to evaluate their own learning.	0.0	1.1	10.2	81.8	6.8

The results indicated a total of 91 percent of the teachers agree (70.5 percent) and strongly agree (20.5 percent) that autonomy refers to the learner's ability in making choices about how they learn. In addition, teachers who believe that learner autonomy means learning without a teacher (44.3 percent) outnumbered those who indicated the opposite (38.7 percent). However, 53.4 percent of the respondents disagree that learner autonomy requires the students to be totally independent of the teacher. This indicated that in asserting learner autonomy, teachers still have a role to play in the teaching of English.

In terms of the classroom approach, there are two groups of teachers who are either agreeing (40.9 percent) or disagreeing (34.1 percent) to the idea that learner autonomy ignores a traditional teacher-centred classroom. Interestingly, 25 percent of teachers indicated their uncertainty of whether or not students have to be totally independent of their teachers. Similarly, quite a number of respondents have doubts (35.2 percent) as to whether or not learner autonomy is suitable for the local learners, but more than half of the respondents (51.2 percent) disagree with a notion that learner autonomy is not suitable for local learners of ESL. Results also indicated 79.5 percent agree that learner autonomy could be achieved by learners of all cultural backgrounds.

A vast group of teachers believes that students ability to monitor their learning is important in developing learner autonomy in which 81.8 percent of respondents agree to this notion with 88.6 percent suggested that students have to develop their ability to evaluate their own learning in order to be autonomous. Generally, from the survey results, it could be concluded that teachers have their own interpretations of what learner autonomy means in which majority proposed that learner autonomy occurs at all ages and cultural background that see learners as being able to decide, monitor and evaluate their own learning with or without the help from their teachers.

4.2 *Learner autonomy and L2 learning*

This section will address Research Question 2 that is: to what extent, according to the Malaysian ESL teachers, does learner autonomy assist L2 learning? In answering this question, several items from Section 1 of the questionnaire are grouped and presented in Table 2.

From the survey, it was identified that a majority (81.8 percent) of the ESL primary school teachers agrees that learner autonomy is possible to instill among both young language learners and adult learners and more than half or these teachers (55.6 percent) do not believe that it is harder to promote learner autonomy with proficient language learners as opposed to the beginners.

Table 2. Results for RQ2.

Item	Statement	SD	D	U	A	SA
5	Individuals who lack autonomy are not likely to be effective language learners.	0.0	25.0	23.8	43.2	8.0
9	It is harder to promote learner autonomy with proficient language learners than it is with beginners.	4.5	51.1	15.9	27.3	1.1
10	It is possible to promote learner autonomy with both young language learners and with adults.	0.0	9.1	9.1	77.3	4.5
11	Confident language learners are more likely to develop autonomy than those who lack confidence.	0.0	6.8	3.4	62.5	27.3
12	Learner autonomy allows language learners to learn more effectively than they otherwise would.	2.3	4.5	21.6	61.4	10.2
36	Learner autonomy has a positive effect on success as a language learner.	0.0	0.0	12.5	72.7	14.8

However, a total of 51.2 percent agrees that lack of autonomy is likely to contribute to students becoming ineffective language learners in which 87.5 percent agrees that learner autonomy has a positive effect on success as a language learner where the teachers (71.6 percent) indicated that through learner autonomy, language learners tend to learn the target language more effectively. It is also indicated (89.8 percent) that confident language learners are more likely to develop autonomy in the learning of the English language. From the results, it could be concluded that ESL teachers feel autonomy do assist ESL students in becoming effective English language learners and autonomy is possible to be promoted to young and adult language learners. However, in any case, confident language learners would develop more autonomy in their learning.

5 CONCLUSION

The study provided insights into Malaysian ESL teachers' perspectives and practices of learner autonomy among their English language learners.

Such a study gives values, particularly in Malaysian context where with the new education policy (i.e. Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013–2025) there is a need for teachers to focus on getting students to be independent and autonomous learners. It is indeed limited studies on ESL learner autonomy at the school level, hence this study provides a platform for more studies to be carried out on learner autonomy for ESL learners in Malaysian schools. The results of the study indicated that ESL teachers are positive and develop their own understanding of learner autonomy through readings and classroom teaching experiences, when limited training or exposures are given to them. Perhaps more similar studies should be carried out on a larger scale to have a nationwide view on learner autonomy. As for teacher professional development, it is timely to plan for training programmes that focus on the pedagogical knowledge to promote learner autonomy in the language classroom as the results indicated that teachers view learner autonomy affects language learner positively in their learning development.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We would like to acknowledge the University of Malaya, Malaysia for providing us with a research grant and facilities to carry out this research. A gratitude also goes to Associate Professor Dr Roger Barnard through whom we have access to and be given the permission to use Simon Borg and Saleh Al-Busaidi's questionnaire on learner autonomy. Also, a thank you note to all ESL secondary school teachers who participated in the survey and interviews for this research.

REFERENCES

Ahmad, N., Yaakub, R. & Megat Abdul Rahim, P. R. (2004). Towards learner autonomy in teaching English in Malaysia. A conference paper presented at the 4th International Symposium on ELT in China, Beijing (21–25 May 2004).

Al-Asmari, A. R. (2013). Practices and prospects of learner autonomy: teachers' perceptions. *English Language Teaching*, 6(3), Online journal.

Benson, P. (2001). Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning. London: Longman.

Benson, P. (2011). Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning (2nd ed., first published, 2001). London: Pearson Education.

Benson, P. (2011a). What's new in autonomy?. *The Language Teacher,* 35(4), 15–18.

Borg, S. & Al-Busaidi, S. (2012). Learner autonomy: English language teachers' beliefs and practices. *ELT Research Paper. 12–07.* London: British Council.

Castle, K. (2004). The meaning of autonomy in early childhood teacher education. Journal of Early Childhood Teacher Education, 25(1), 3–10.

Dam, L., Eriksson, R., Little, D., Miliander, J., & Trebbi, T. (1990). Towards a definition of autonomy. In T. Trebbi (Ed.), Third Nordic workshop on developing autonomous learning in the FL classroom (pp. 102–103). Bergen: University of Bergen.

Holec, H. (1979). Autonomy and foreign language learning. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Kaur, N. (2013). The need for autonomous vocabulary learners in the Malaysian ESL classroom. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies,* 13(3). http://ejournal.ukm.my/gema/article/view/4216

Little, D. (1991). Learner autonomy: Definitions, issues and problems. Dublin: Authentik.

Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013–2025. (2013). Putrajaya, Malaysia: Ministry of Education.

Ministry of Education. (2015). Brief history on education policy. http://www.moe.gov.my/v/imbasan-sejarah. Accessed on: 2 February 2015.

McGarry, D. (1995). Learner autonomy 4: The role of authentic texts. Dublin: Authentik.

Oguz, A. (2013). Developing a scale for learner autonomy support. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*, 13(4), 2187–2194. doi:10.12738/estp.2013.4.1870.

Ozturk, I. H. (2011). Curriculum reform and teacher autonomy in Turkey: The case of the history teaching. International Journal of Instruction, 4(2), 113–128.

Wang, P. (2011). Constructivism and learner autonomy in foreign language teaching and learning: to what extent does theory inform practice?. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies,* 1(3), pp.237–277.

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

Mother tongue education and ethnic identity of Malaysian Chinese secondary school students

Pei Yao Ho
Department of Chinese Studies, Faculty of Art and Social Science, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Fong Peng Chew
Department of Language and Literacy Education, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Ker Pong Thock
Department of Chinese Studies, Faculty of Art and Social Science, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: Education and ethnic identity are two contentious issues in multi-ethnic society that need more subtle researches. In Malaysia, the mother tongue education for Chinese is intertwined historically with their identity maintenance but short of current empirical findings. This study aims to find out the relationship between mother tongue education and ethnic identity of Malaysian Chinese students from Independent Chinese Secondary Schools (ICSS). The study focuses first on students' ethnic identity, then demographic factors and factors pertaining education. The educational factors are language proficiency, language usage, school environment and school activities. Data will be collected through survey questionnaire with items rated on 5-point Likert scale. Data analysis will make use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Further development of mother tongue education can be revised with regard to the understanding of its relation to Malaysian Chinese ethnic identity.

Keywords: mother tongue education; ethnic identity; Malaysian Chinese; secondary school students

1 INTRODUCTION

Malaysian Chinese as Chinese overseas migrated from China in substantial number especially during the 19th century British colonialism. During the post-colonialism period, a great number of Chinese in Malaysia chose to stay and more Chinese are born locally to become Malaysia citizens. Malaysian Chinese today is an ethnic group with total population of 24.6% in year 2010 (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2011). They are significant minority in numbers as compared to 67.4% Malays, 7.3% Indians and 0.7% other ethnics. Malaysian Chinese together with other ethnic groups framed the multi-ethnic society.

Malaysian Chinese are well-known of the most comprehensive mother tongue education up until tertiary level. Mother tongue language, Chinese Mandarin is used as the language of instruction concurrently with the learning of the language. Mother tongue language is vital for the reproduction and maintenance of culture—that is, the system of beliefs, values, norms, practice, symbols and ideas, also, "the quintessential symbol of a culture" (Tan & Santhiram, 2010). In other words, mother tongue language and cultures are important substances where the life and soul of an ethnic group rooted.

Mother tongue education is seen as the heart of life for ethnic Chinese, as declared by Lim Lian Geok, the soul of Malaysian Chinese: "Mother tongue education and human life are equally important." Mother tongue language is regarded as a symbol of heritage and ethnicity and education is the platform for the transmission of the language, culture and values. Malaysia Chinese make every effort to maintain education in their mother tongue. The usage and recognition of the mother tongue language in the national education system is a prerequisite for ethnic minority to preserve culture and ethnic identity (Tan, 2007; Watson, 2007). Thus, the maintenance of Chinese language is thought to be associated with the maintenance of Chinese values and the continuity of Chinese ethnic identity.

A complete mother tongue education system is regarded the most accessible and effective weapon to disseminate and preserve Chinese language, as well as establish Chinese culture and worldview (Hou, 2006). Chinese primary school has emerged to be the first

Table 1. Total enrolment of ICSS students from 2010 to 2013.

Year	2010	2011	2012	2013
Enrolment	63,765	66,968	70,266	75,923

(Adapted and re-arranged from UCSCA, 2014).

enrolment choice for Chinese parents. It is a trend in Chinese community to undergo Chinese education nowadays with more than 90% Chinese parents who sent their children to Chinese primary schools (Vernacular Schools Report, 2012). The majority of the young generation of Chinese undergo at least 6 years of Chinese primary education with trilingual ability. Chinese language is the medium of instruction at primary schools but Malay and English language are taught as language subjects.

At secondary level education, a small minority of 10% students opt for independent Chinese secondary schools (ICSS) (Sin Chew, 2013). ICSS is a product consequently from the enactment of the 1957 Education Ordinance and 1961 Education Act (Lee, 2011). ICSS are not assisted financially by the government and employed Chinese as the language of instruction. The existence of ICSS is meaningful for protecting mother tongue language and disseminating Chinese culture among Chinese students. Although minority, there is a constant increase of the total enrolment for ICSS students in the recent years.

2 RESEARCH FOCUS

The construct of ethnic identity originated from social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Ethnic identity is an aspect of a person's social identity as part of an individual's self-concept that derives from his or her knowledge of membership in a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership (Tajfel, 1981). It is determined by the individual's subjective identification with regard to the understanding and feelings as an ethnic group member within a social context. A number of studies showed that education is a contributing contextual factor affecting ethnic identity (Feliciano, 2009; French, Seidman, Allen & Aber, 2006; Maramba & Ve-lasquez, 2012). Mother tongue education is able to transmit and cultivate the ethnic values of the stu-dents. The learning of the mother tongue language and being educated in the mother tongue language environment is a pathway to foster ethnic identity.

In a longitudinal research, Trudell (2005) found the effectiveness of the teaching and learning through mother tongue language and its relevance to culture and identity. Before the implementation of mother tongue program (PROPELCA), the language and culture of the Bafut, Kom and Nso' ethnic groups of Northwest Province of Cameroon are excluded in the formal education. School experiences due to the ignorance of mother tongue language fail to build up their identity but prompt academic failures. Findings in this research suggest the inclusion of the mother tongue language and culture within the formal educational contexts brings about a maintenance of identity and academic success.

Schools are important contexts in which the process of values and cultural transmission takes place. Hoon (2011) summarized in a study through a thorough profiling of Christian schools that schools serve as a site for the maintenance of boundaries and for the construction of religious, ethnic, and class identities. In this study, Chinese Christian schools in Jakarta, Indonesia play an active role in students' character building through the inculcation of Christian values and by engaging them in religious activities. Students' religious identity is constructed in the process of participation as a member in the school environment.

Education provides the well-planned strategies for the learning of language in its written and spoken form. The perpetuation of a language depends on the continuous learning and practicing by at least a group of people. Language proficiency has a close relationship with ethnic identity. Language proficiency is indicated by how well adolescents under-stand, speak, read, and write. A survey was carried out to investigate the role of language on ethnic identity among adolescents from 81 Armenians, 47 Vietnamese and 88 Mexicans (Phinney, Romero, Nava & Huang, 2001). Research findings demonstrated that the adolescents' ethnic language proficiency is significantly positively related to their ethnic identity across all 3 different ethnic groups.

In another case study conducted on 387 Vietnamese high school students in New Orleans, United States showed that ethnic identification and ethnic language skills are two interlinked aspects of ethnic group membership (Bankston & Zhou, 1995). The ability of the Vietnamese high schools students to read and write in mother tongue language is strongly related to their Vietnamese identity.

Michel, Titzmann & Silbereisen (2012) demonstrated a predictive relationship between language usage and identity in examining language shift among ethnic German immigrants from Russian. Language usage is measured by asking how often the adolescents spoke German with their parents, spoke German with their friends and how often they read books or other written materials in German. Ethnic German adolescents have an increasing orientation as a German and decreasing self-identification as Russian in the process of increasing intensity of time spent speaking and interacting with their German peers in German language.

On the other hand, most of the study on ethnic identity focuses on the adolescence stage, secondary school level in other words (Kim & Chao, 2009; Umana-Taylor & Fine, 2004). Adolescence is a crucial stage of life that individuals explore and construct their sense of self, the identity. The searching of a sense of self-conscious becomes a predominant subject at this period of life particularly when conflicts appear. Adolescents experience identity crisis to a different extent, trying to figure out the meaning of being a member to an ethnic group and when they did, they have an identity achieved (Phinney, 1993).

These empirical findings showed the dependent relationship between education and ethnic identity, from a variety of educational aspects such as mother tongue language, the structure of education being implemented and social environment of the schools. Chinese students, at their adolescence stage, who undergo mother tongue education in ICSS have a custom-made environment for the cultivation process of everything being, feeling and acting as "Chinese" (Chen, 2011). Therefore, the search of the construct of ethnic identity is considerable in Malaysian Chinese mother tongue education.

Apart from that, demographic information is found to be important factors to influence ethnic identity. Straszer (2012) conducted a survey study among 50 Swedish-Hungarian and 38 Finnish-Hungarian immigrants to compare some socio-cultural and demographic factors on the issues of language choice, culture and identity. Findings from this research demonstrated an association between demographic factors such as family historical back-ground and the maintenance of Hungarian identity and language in both countries. Moreover, family socioeconomic status which comprises of household income, parents' level of education and occupation is often found to be related to the maintenance of mother tongue language and ethnic identity (Ong, Phinney & Dennis, 2006).

In line with these findings, the diversified demographic backgrounds that exist among the Chinese students ought to be given attention in the research. Religious learning (Chiang, 2014), programs and activities of curriculum in different streams (Chan, 2007), family's teaching resulted from different level of socioeconomic status (Contini, & Maturo, 2011; Ong, Phinney, & Dennis, 2006) such as family income, parents' highest level of education and parents' occupation are among the possible factors which are related to the differences of what students pick up as education receivers. These segments of differences form their way of life together with the formal school education in mother tongue, which in turn influence their ethnic identity.

The study on the Malaysian Chinese ethnic identity as a social psychological construct has not been found in the scholarly writings. Previous researches have focused on general Chinese identity from the historical, socio-historical or anthropological perspectives (Ku, 2003; Tang, 2007; Tong, 2010). The concept of Chinese ethnic identity was first proposed by Wang (1988) to refer to the identity of race and culture. Tan (2004) on the other hand emphasized that ethnic identity refers to ethnic identification with a particular ethnic category. Thence, ethnic identity is subjectively perceived as belonging to an ethnic group and with common culture.

Shigeo Arai (2007) attempted to analyze the Chinese identity by drawing on the quantitative data about the language life of ethnic Chinese in Malaysia. The survey contained questions on the language competency and preferred education, language usage in daily communication and working language usage. Respondents from a group of adults with diverse age and occupation and a group of college students were asked to choose from Malaysia, China or Singapore by means to identify their cultural, historical and political identity. He concluded that most Malaysian Chinese identified themselves in Chinese cultural and economic sphere, but concurrently as Malaysians who contribute to the country's development. This research provide the statistical data of the Chinese' choice of language and education, but the concept of Chinese identity is rigidly based on the analysis of Chinese multiple identities by Wang (1988). Furthermore, the relationship between education and Chinese identity is unclear.

In survey study, Chen (2011) examined students' perspectives about the relationship between Chinese awareness and the role of ICSS. A total of 1115 ICSS students participated in the research with aver-age 18 years. From the research findings, students from ICSS agreed in general that ICSS are able to inculcate sense of "Chineseness", maintain Chinese characteristics and passionate on culture dissemination. The research emphasized on the impact of school in conserving and passing down Chinese identity rather than student's sense of being Chinese. Again, there is no empirical findings focus specifically on Malaysian Chinese ethnic identity and its relationship with mother tongue education.

Studies above have showed the complexity of the linkage between education and ethnic identity. Malaysian Chinese secondary school students are at their crucial age to seek for their identity within an educational context. This process of learning and establishing self-identification is especially significant to ethnic Chinese who live in a multi-ethnic country. Mother tongue education and the society's diversification, to a certain extent, are offering two different systems of thoughts on the basis of identity. Thence, the current research which is looking into ethnic identity of Malaysian Chinese secondary school students and its relation specifically to mother tongue education is meaningful to educational reformation and success.

3 PURPOSES OF THE STUDY

This study aims to examine the construct of ethnic identity from a socio-psychological perspective which is able to contribute to scholarly findings. The research purposes are set to draw out a clear understanding of the relationship between ethnic identity and mother tongue education in a broad sense, and factors pertaining education in particular among Malaysian Chinese secondary school students who are studying in a mother tongue environment. In addition, demographic factors such as gender, religion, stream of study and family socioeconomic status are highlighted to unravel the complexity of the research problems.

The research objectives are as the following:

1. To identify the level of ethnic identity among Malaysian Chinese secondary school students.
2. To examine whether there is any relationship between Malaysian Chinese secondary school students' ethnic identity and mother tongue education.
3. To examine whether there is any relationship between Malaysian Chinese secondary school students' ethnic identity and educational factors.
4. To examine whether there is any relationship between Malaysian Chinese secondary school students' ethnic identity and demographic factors.

4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Ethnic identity is often conceptualized as an abstract, situational, and context-bounded construct. It is an important self-identification in relation to the social environment where a person experiences on daily basis. It is the cornerstone of the person in constructing a meaningful identity and way of life in a multi-ethnic society. The construct of ethnic identity is examined in a socio-psychological perspective by looking into social identity theory and theory of identity development.

4.1 *Social identity theory*

Social identity theory initiates the foundation of a social context in the search of an identity. Social identity is a type of group identity that is central to the self-concept of members of the group (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). It is determined by the individual's categorization with regard to the understanding and affective bonds to the social group within a social context. The search for identity is only meaningful with reference to the social context because people live in a sociable community. Social groups in which people categorize themselves are parts of a structured society and exist only in relation to other contrasting categories (Hogg, & Abrams, 1988). The individual self is influenced by the cultures, values and ethics which exist in the society. People learn about themselves through social contact and environment. They eventually identify with certain cultures and values and attach to people who have the same worldviews with them. Social groups are formed in the constant process of meaning making of who they are within the social context.

Ethnic identity is a self-concept depending on people's knowledge and comprehension about their ethnic group. People identify their ethnic group with reference to the shared ethnic traits among the ethnic group members. An ethnic group is formed in the process of comparison with others who live in the same society. For instance, Malaysian Chinese identify themselves according to characteristics that mark their "Chineseness". They are aware of the group commonness and the differences by comparing to others. They distinguish themselves to form an ethnic group in comparison to Malays mainstream. They are mentally and emotionally self-identified as belonging to Malaysian Chinese, an ethnic group.

4.2 *Theory of identity development*

Identity is a self-concept that varies at different period in our life. Erikson (1968) categorized eight stages of identity development from infancy throughout the lifespan. Ego identity, a sense of self-conscious, is actually shaped by the growing life experiences and daily encounters within the individual's social context. Based on the works of identity development, Phinney (1993) proposed a three-stage model of ethnic identity development in adolescence. Stage one is unexamined ethnic identity where individuals lack of exploration of ethnicity. The next stage is ethnic identity search or moratorium. This is a critical turning point for adolescents to encounter identity crisis and try to figure out the meaning of being a member to an ethnic group. Stage three is the ideal outcome of identity achieved in which they have a clear understanding and belonging to their own ethnic membership. As secondary school students are at the adolescence stage of actively understanding about themselves, they are unavoidable constructing their ethnic identity at the same time.

According to social identity theory and theory of identity development, ethnic identity is formed within a social context. Thus, the immediate social environment pertaining language and school is framed as the social context, ICSS specifically in this research. The construct of Malaysian Chinese students' ethnic identity is examined by means of a phenomenon that is formed through the process of in mother tongue education.

5 METHODOLOGY

This research makes use of quantitative survey method by collecting numerical data via structured questionnaires. Survey questionnaires are used to obtain direct information and responses about ethnic identity and their educational experiences. Simple random sampling will be employed according to the convenience of the administration of the school. However, only students who are studying in upper secondary will be recruited because they have experienced more school years at secondary schools. This implies that they are the group of students who have more experiences within the mother tongue education context.

In social science, an instrument is a mechanism for measuring phenomena, which is used to gather and record information for assessment, decision making, and ultimately understanding (Colton, & Covert, 2007). Items in the survey questionnaire are adapted and constructed based on the previous studies and past literatures.

The survey questionnaire is constructed in English. Careful translation is followed and it will be administered to the respondents in Chinese language. Items in each section are constructed on the variables in this research. The independent variables are students' demography, educational factors, and mother tongue education while the dependent variable is Malaysian Chinese secondary school students' ethnic identity. Ethnic identity is measured by the ethnic identity score adapted from Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM). The MEIM instrument was developed by Jean Phinney (1992). The original scale consists of 14 items to assess three factors of ethnic identity: affirmation and belonging (5 items); achievement (7 items), including exploration and commitment; and ethnic behaviors (2 items). All items are rated on a 5-point Likert scale.

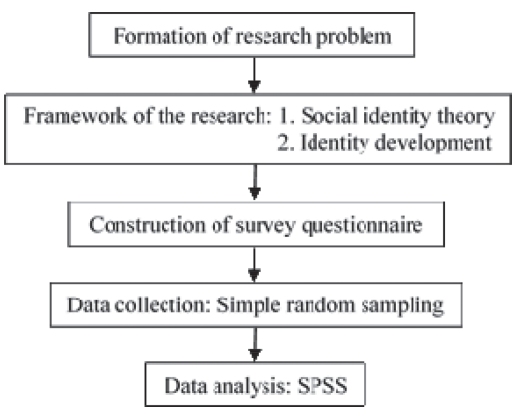

Figure 1. Flow chart of research methodology.

Data gathering is targeted to ICSS in Malaysia. First, permission to conduct the survey is obtained from schools' administrators. Next, with the help from school teachers, the survey questionnaires are administered to students through random sampling method to avoid bias. Students are required to complete the self-report questionnaire based on their subjective knowledge and experiences. After that, data are then quantified and analyzed through SPSS for statistical results. Figure 1 presented the flow chart of research methodology.

6 CONCLUSION

The formation of Malaysian Chinese as an ethnic group is unique from the historical perspective and the uniqueness perpetuates until the present days. Students who have the chance to study in ICSS are having extra opportunities to learn and involve in ethnic practices. In particular, they have a conducive environment to learn their mother tongue and use it at high frequency. Studying in such an ethnic bounded environment is expected but still unknown to us if there is any link between mother tongue education and ethnic identity among Malaysian Chinese students from ICSS. Therefore, this study is able to unravel the complexity of such connection.

As education is an important platform of transmitting ethnic culture and value as well as shaping national identity, thus by understanding the variables pertaining education which influence ethnic identity is no doubt a primary step to revise and set up effective education. The national harmony and inter-ethnic relations can be fostered through education institutions. This research is a one of the opening step in such effort to learn better about Malaysian Chinese students' ethnic identity in relation to further development of mother tongue education in the national education system, in a society of diversification.

CORRESPONDING AUTHOR

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Pei Yao Ho, Department of Chinese Studies, Faculty of Art and Social Science, University of Malaya, 50603, Kuala Lumpur. E-mail: liv_ho@yahoo.com.

REFERENCES

Bankston, C.L. & Zhou, M. 1995. Effects on minority language literacy on the academic achievement of Vietnamese youths in New Orleans. *Sociology of Education,* 68, 1–17.

Chan, E. 2007. Student experiences of a culturally-sensitive curriculum: ethnic identity development amid conflicting stories to live by. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, Vol. 39, No. 2, 177–194.

Chiang, W.F. 2014. Speaking in (whose) tongue: Heritage language maintenance and ritual practices in Singapore. *Pragmatics and Society*, 5:1, 22–49.

Chen, M.F. 2011. The attitudes of Malaysian Chinese new generations towards Chinese education. In Z.P. Liu (ed). *Interaction and Creation: Chinese people under multidimensional view.* (Chinese language) Guilin: Guangxi Normal University Press.

Colton, D. & Covert, R.W. 2007. *Designing and Constructing Instruments for Social Research and Evaluation*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Contini, R.M. & Maturo, A. 2011 A statistical survey on the multi-ethnic school in Abruzzo, a region in central Italy: perspectives on intercultural approach to integration. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences* 30, 1452–1456.

Department of Statistics Malaysia. 2011. *Population Distribution and Basic Demographic Characteristics* 2010.

Erikson, E.H. 1968. *Identity, Youth, and Crisis.* 1st Ed. New York: Norton.

Feliciano, C. 2009. Education and ethnic identity formation among children of Latin American and Caribbean immigrants. *Sociological Perspectives,* 52(2), 135–158.

French, S.E., Seidman, E., Allen, L.-R. & Aber, J.L. 2006. The development of ethnic identity during adolescence. *Developmental Psychology,* 42(1), 1–10.

Hogg, M.A. & Abrams, D. 1988. *Social Identifications: A Social Psychology of Intergroup Relations and Group Processes*. Routledge.

Hoon, C.Y. 2011. Mapping 'Chinese' Christian schools in Indonesia: ethnicity, class and religion. *Asia Pacific Education Review,* 12, 403–411.

Hou, K.C. 2006. *Malaysian Chinese: Identity, Culture and Ethnic Conflict*. Centre for Malaysian Chinese Studies.

Kim, S.Y. & Chao, R.K. 2009. Heritage language fluency, ethnic identity and school effort of immigrant Chinese and Mexican adolescents. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology,* 15(1), 27–37.

Ku, H.T. 2003. *Education and Identity: A Study on Chinese Secondary Education in Malaysia (1945–2000)*. (Chinese language) Xiamen University Press.

Lee, T.H. 2011. *Chinese Schools in Peninsular Malaysia: The Struggle for Survival*. ISEAS. Singapore.

Maramba, D.C. & Velasquez, P. 2012. Influences of the campus experience on the ethnic identity development of students of color. *Education and Urban Society,* 44(3), 294–317.

Michel, A., Titzmann, P.F. & Silbereisen, R.K. 2012. Language shift among adolescent ethnic German immigrants: predictors of increasing use of German over time. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations,* 36, 248–259.

Ong, A.D., Phinney, J.S. & Dennis, J. 2006. Competence under challenge: exploring the protective influence of parental support and ethnic identity in Latino college students. *Journal of Adolescence,* 29, 961–979.

Phinney, J.S. 1992. The multigroup ethnic identity measure, a new scale for use with diverse group. *Journal of Adolescent Research,* 7(2), 156–176.

Phinney, J.S. 1993. Three-stage model of ethnic identity development in adolescence. In M.E. Bernal & G.P. Knight (eds). *Ethnic Identity: Formation and Transmission among Hispanics and Other Minorities.* State University of New York Press, Albany.

Phinney, J.S., Romero, I, Nava, M. & Huang, D. 2001. The Role of language, parents, and peers in ethnic identity among adolescents in immigrant families. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence,* 30(2), 135–153.

Shigeo, A. 2007. On the language life and identity of ethnic Chinese in Malaysia: An analysis based on questionnaire. *Overseas Chinese History Studies*, 6(2).

Straszer, B. 2012. Hungarians in Finland and Sweden: Comparison of some sociocultural and demographic factors on language choice, culture and identity. *Finnish Yearbook of Population Research XLVII,* 5–30.

Tajfel, H. 1981. *Human Groups and Social Categories: Studies in Social Psychology*. Cambridge University Press.

Tajfel, H. & Turner, J.C. 1979. An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W.G. Austin & S. Worchel (eds), *The Social Psychology of Intergroup Relations,* 22–47. Monterey, CA: Books/Cole.

Tajfel, H. & Turner, J.C. 1986. The social identity theory of intergroup behaviour. In W.G. Austin & S. Worchel (eds), *The Social Psychology of Intergroup Relations,* pp. 7–24. Chicago: Nelson-Hall.

Tan, C.B. 2004. *Chinese Overseas Comparative Cultural Issues*. Hong Kong University Press.

Tan, Y.S. 2007. *Transition of Bilingual Education of Ethnic Chinese in Peninsular Malaysia*. (Malay language) University Science Malaysia Publisher.

Tan, Y.S. & Santhiram, R. 2010. *The Education of Ethnic Minorities: The Case of the Malaysian Chinese*. SIRD.

Tang, N.F. 2007. Rethinking of the concept: Chinese overseas and Malaysian Chinese. In K.C. Hou (ed). *China and Malaysia in the Discourse of Globalization.* (Chinese language) Centre for Malaysian Chinese Studies.

The massive increase of National-type Secondary School Students: The Stress of Lacking Teachers and Over Budget (Chinese language). 2013. *Sin Chew Jit Poh*, downloaded on Dec, 5, 2014 from http://news.sinchew.com.my/node/273739.

Tong, C.K. 2010. *Identity and Ethnic Relations in Southeast Asia*. Springer.

Trudell, B. 2005. Language choice, education and community identity. *International Journal of Educational Development* 25 (2005), 237–251.

UCSCA. 2014. *2013 Statistic.* (Chinese language) United Chinese School Committees' Association.

Umana-Taylor, A.J. & Fine, M.A. 2004. Examining ethnic identity among Mexican-origin adolescents living in United States. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences,* 26(1), 36–59.

Vernacular Schools Report. 2012. *Vernacular Schools in Malaysia: "A Heritage to be celebrated or a hindrance to nation building?"* Centre for Public Policy Studies, Kuala Lumpur.

Wang, G.W. 1988. The study of Chinese identities in Southeast Asia. In J.W. Cushman & G.W. Wang (eds). *Changing Identities of the Southeast Asian Chinese since World War II.* Hong Kong University Press.

Watson, K. 2007. Language, education and ethnicity: Whose rights will prevail in an age of globalisation? International *Journal of Education Development,* 27, 252–265.

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

The acquisitions of knowledge in Chinese classical literature and academic achievement among the secondary schools' students

Chew Fong Peng & Pang Swee Fong
Department of Language and Literacy Education, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: This study was designed to determine the acquisition of Chinese classical literature knowledge, and the relationship between the acquisition of Chinese classical literature knowledge and academic achievement. This study was done in two National-Type Schools (NTSS) in the city of Klang, Selangor, and Malaysia. The instrument consists of a set of acquisition test with demographic variables. The respondents were 104 form four students, consisting of 52 students randomly chosen from two schools. The findings showed that the mean value of form four students' level of acquisition of Chinese classical literature knowledge was only 39.56. There was a significant positive correlation between acquisition test scores of classical Chinese literary knowledge (M = 39.56, SD = 11.66) and the grades obtained by the students in the Chinese subject in the Lower Secondary Assessment Examination (M = 3.77, SD = 1.27), r = 0.686, p <0.01). The results show that actions should be taken to raise students' interest in classical literature and to improve students' acquisition of Chinese classical literature knowledge as well as to ensure that the Chinese syllabus is implemented effectively.

Keywords: acquisition; chinese classical literature; national-type secondary school; Malaysia; Chinese language

1 INTRODUCTION

In Malaysia, the learning of Chinese language in the Integrated Curriculum for Secondary Schools (ICSS) was implemented in 1988. The Chinese language syllabus was reviewed in 2000, and continued to be used until today. Chiah (2005) concluded that Chinese literature education is an important element in the ICSS as Chinese literature also incorporates the teaching of the famous core elements (mingju jinghua) besides the teaching of classical Chinese prose and poetry. Zhang (2009) also believes that Chinese famous core element is an important element in Chinese language education and functions as a medium to develop Chinese culture.

In Malaysian secondary schools, Chinese classical literature textbooks include classic prose and poetry. This showed the importance of classical literature in the Chinese language curriculum. In addition, 98% of Chinese famous core element content taught in each level is taken from the works of classical literature.

2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEMS

According to the categorization of secondary school subjects in the website of the Ministry of Education, Malaysia, Chinese language is an elective subject that is offered to secondary school students. Many students did not choose to study Chinese language at secondary school level even though they have studied six years of Chinese primary education. This phenomenon is clearly shown in Table 2 where the number of students who take the Chinese language paper at the Lower Secondary Assessment (LSA) examination and Malaysia Certificate of Education (MCE) examinations have decreased.

As shown in Table 1 above, on average, there was a reduction of about 15,000 candidates registering for the Chinese language subject at the LSA and the number of candidates registering Chinese MCE two years thereafter.

This could explain the findings of Chia (2005) on 30 respondents in a national secondary school in Selangor, where there was a drop of 73.3% in terms of the number of students taking Chinese Language as an elective subject at the secondary Form Four level. The main reason for this drop is the perceived level of difficulty of the Chinese classical texts. There is a relationship between the ability to master Chinese classical literature texts and desire to take Chinese Language as a subject in the Malaysia Certificate of Education (MCE).

Table 1. Number of Candidates Taking Chinese in LSA and MCE.

LSA Candidates (year)	MCE Candidates (year)
60,585 (2004)	48,380 (2006)
68,045 (2005)	55,335 (2007)
66,170 (2006)	53,439 (2008)
68,794 (2007)	54,609 (2009)
71,455 (2008)	54,947 (2010)
71,533 (2009)	53,799 (2011)
69,650 (2010)	53,298 (2012)
68,325 (2011)	51,685 (2013)

Source: sinchew-i.com, 2007–2014.

Mastery of literature in the end will help to improve students' reading and writing ability in a particular language (Abdul Aziz, 2000). This would have implications for increasing students' skills in mastering the modern language. Regarding this, Lee (2004) observed that the majority of post MCE students pursued the Malaysian Teaching Diploma Course (MTDC) to become future teachers has little knowledge of literature and they have difficulty in learning literature. This phenomenon is unexpected and worrying because these teachers are responsible to educate and sow the interest of the students in Chinese language including Chinese classical literature.

In Chinese classical literature component in Chinese Language at MCE, famous core element is important to be learnt and mastered. Zhang's findings in 2009 involving 600 students from five secondary schools in the district of Johor Bahru, Johor, reported that a total of 88.33% of the students were of the view that Chinese famous core element is very important in the teaching and learning of the Chinese language. Zhang's findings also showed that the lack of literary background has disadvantages and it affects the learning of Chinese famous core element. This is unexpected because the element of Chinese classical literature is a vital component in the curriculum of Chinese Language. If sufficient learning of Chinese classical literature were achieved, why was the level of students' acquisition of Chinese literature still not satisfactory?

Furthermore, there is a lack of research to examine the level of acquisition of Chinese classical literature knowledge among Form Four students in NTSS in Malaysia; hence this study was designed to meet this need. In addition, a study done by Rita, Raj, & Shubhangna (2006) on 100 children between the ages of 6 to 18 years in India have shown that female prefer the works of art and literature than male. Does this mean that female perform better in literature than male? Some studies have also indicated that male generally have a lower of achievement in language than female (Van de gaer, Pustjens, Van Damme, & De Munter, 2007). The female also showed a more positive learning attitude than male at the school who speak Dutch (Van de gaer, Pustjens, Van Damme, & De Munter, 2009). This raises the need to explore the extent of differences in the level of acquisition of classical literature knowledge between male and female students and how this is related to academic achievement.

This study is designed to determine the level of the acquisition of knowledge in Chinese classical literature among Form Four male and female students in NTSSs, and the relationship between the level of acquisition of Chinese classical literature knowledge and their academic achievement.

This study is aimed at answering the following research questions:

i. What is the level of students' acquisition of knowledge in Chinese classical literature in two national-type secondary schools?
ii. Is there any relationship between the level of acquisition of knowledge in Chinese classical literature and academic achievement among the students?

3 THEORY OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Language acquisition is the process by which humans acquire the capacity to perceive and comprehend language, as well as to produce and use words and sentences to communicate. Language acquisition usually refers to first-language acquisition, which studies infants' acquisition of their native language. Language proficiency is an issue of interest to researchers in the field of linguistics. Various theories from different disciplines have been submitted to explain this issue. In general, the theory of language acquisition or language proficiency can be divided into two types: the cognitive theory that emphasizes the biological effect and theories asserting behaviorism experience and environmental impact.

Cognitive theory was pioneered by Jean Piaget in his famous Theory of Cognitive Development. Piaget (1959) stressed that children's language development is closely related to mental development. This theory was agreed upon by Noam Chomsky, a psycholinguist from the United States. He submitted that man is born with the ability to master the language at a certain time (Santrock, 2003). In other words, the potential of human language is the natural utterance and language can occur without formal teaching in schools (Abdul Talib, 2000). For example, according to Chomsky, although an adult never spoke to her baby under

the age of one year, this baby is still able to master the language.

In contrast, psychologists believed that language proficiency is determined by nature, this group of behaviorism theorists asserted that behaviorist language abilities of a person are related to environmental factors. According to a famous theorist of behaviorism, B.F. Skinner, language is a behavior that can be learned through experience and reinforcement (Santrock, 2003). In other words, the child's mastery of a language takes place because the adults around him or her provide reinforcement or reward while teaching the child to speak. This theory was later improved upon by Albert Bandura who highlighted the view that language proficiency is related to imitation and the reinforcement from adults around them (Theresia, 2006).

This study applied the theoy developed by Skinner due to the respondents of the study consisted of secondary school students who are more influenced by their peers and parents besides the environment factor. Study by Chan et al. (2013) showed higher quality relationships between high school students with parents and teachers were significantly associated with better youth outcomes, including self-esteem, academic attitudes, prosocial behaviors, and misconduct.

A major question in understanding language acquisition is how these capacities are picked up by infants from the linguistic input. Input in the linguistic context is defined as "all words, contexts, and other forms of language to which a learner is exposed, relative to acquired proficiency in first or second languages" (Sakai, 2005). Nativists find it difficult to believe, considering the hugely complex nature of human languages, and the relatively limited cognitive abilities of an infant, that infants are able to acquire most aspects of language without being explicitly taught. Children, within a few years of birth, understand the grammatical rules of their native language without being explicitly taught, as one learns grammar in school (Sakai, 2005). A range of theories of language acquisition have been proposed in order to explain this apparent problem. These theories, championed by the likes of Noam Chomsky and others, include innatism and Psychological nativism, in which a child is born prepared in some manner with these capacities, as opposed to other theories in which language is simply learned as other cognitive skills, including such mundane motor skills as learning to ride a bike. The conflict between the theories assuming humans are born with syntactic knowledge and those that claim all such knowledge is the product of learning from one's environment is often referred to as the "Nature vs. Nurture" debate. Some think that there are some qualities of language acquisition that the human brain is automatically wired for (a "nature" component) and some think that human brain are shaped by the particular language environment in which a person is raised (a "nurture" component).

Classical literature is found harder to be acquisited compare to language due to the classical language which bring ambiguity meaning. Therefore, most of the students scored low in the component in school. Hence forth, the below methodology was developed to find out the level of knowledge level of students' acquisition of knowledge in Chinese classical literature, besides investigate the relationship between the level of acquisition of knowledge and their academic achievement in Chinese language.

3.1 *Research instrument*

The data pertinent to this study was collected by administering a set of questions testing students' achievement in Chinese classical literature. The instrument was used to determine students' level of mastery of Chinese classical literature. This instrument consists of 50 items with 25 examination-oriented items and 25 items testing basic knowledge of Chinese classical literature. Content validity of these instruments was confirmed by getting agreement from a group of experts on the construction of each item in the test paper. They consists of the Head of Chinese Language, Ms.T, principal trainer for Chinese language in Selangor, Ms. W, and LSA assistant chief examiner, Mr. T, who have more than 10 years experience in teaching Chinese language.

Before the data collection, the questionnaire was tested for reliability. The pilot study was done among 50 Form Four students at a secondary school in Klang. Results of the analysis showed that the questionnaire has the consistency or Cronbach alpha value 85. This means the instrument was robust and can be implemented in the study.

3.2 *Respondents of the study*

In this study, the sample size was 104 in the two schools. Convenient random sampling method was employed. Due to the regulation of the schools, only one class from each school was chosen in this study.

Most of the students have obtained good result in the Chinese language subject during the LSA examination in 2011. A total of 26 (25%) of the respondents achieved grade A, 12 (11.5%) students obtained grade B, 7 (6.7%) students scored grade C, 6 (5.8%) students got grade D and only 1 (1%) student scored grade E.

About 64.1% of the respondents' father had education up to junior high school or high school level only. Most of them join the business world or work

as skilled labors, salesmen, mechanics, taxi drivers, and carpenter. A similar situation was observed in the level of education among the respondents' mother. A total of 74.1% or 77 respondents completed secondary school education only. In addition, only 14.4% (15 people) of the respondents' mother were educated at the tertiary level. This certainly would explain why the study showed 65.4% (68 people) of the respondents' mother work as a housewife.

4 FINDINGS

4.1 *Research Question 1: What is the level of students' acquisition of knowledge in Chinese classical literature in two national-type secondary schools?*

The students' proficiency in Chinese Classical Literature was determined by using a set of tests designed by the researchers and reviewed by Chinese language specialists. The results of the test are reported in percentage, mean, median, and standard deviation. The results for the mastery of Chinese classical literature and comparison of students in the two schools in this study are shown in Table 2.

Table 2 shows the mean score of the respondents in this study, that is 39.56 out of 100 marks in the classical Chinese literature test. The achievement of the respondents in NTSS 1 (M = 43.12, SD = 11.90) is better than that of NTSS 2 (M = 36.00, SD = 10.35). The achievement of the respondents in the exam-oriented components (M = 23:27, SD = 6.79) on average is higher than the questions that test basic knowledge of literature (M = 16:29, SD = 6.60), amounting to 50 marks per sheet. When comparison was made between the two schools, the performance of respondents from NTSS 1 in exam-oriented questions (M = 25.46, SD = 7.11) and literary knowledge questions (M = 17.65, SD = 6.88) was better than that of respondents from NTSS 2 in exam-oriented questions (M = 21.08, SD = 5.72) and literary knowledge questions (M = 14.92, SD = 6:08). Therefore, a summary can be made that the level of the proficiency among the students in Chinese Classical Literature was low.

4.2 *Research Question 2: Is there any relationship between the level of acquisition of knowledge in Chinese classical literature and academic achievement among the students?*

To find out if there is a significant correlation between the level of acquisition of Chinese classical literature knowledge and academic achievement of students in Chinese language, Pearson-*r* correlation test was used. Correlation between the grades in Chinese language obtained. The level of acquisition of knowledge of Chinese classical literature in exam-oriented question (MFE) and the questions on basic knowledge of Chinese classical literature (MFK) was also carried out in the study. Table 3 shows the correlation statistics.

The study showed that there was a significant positive correlation between the test scores of Chinese classical literature (M = 39.56, SD = 11.66) and grades in Chinese language obtained in the LSA examination (M = 3.77, SD = 1.27) with a value of $r = 0.686$; $p < 0.01$. There is also significant correlation between the grades in Chinese language in exam-oriented question scores ($r = 0.633$; $p < 0.01$), and basic literature knowledge question scores ($r = 0.561$; $p < 0.01$). This means that the better the grades in Chinese language, the higher the scores in the acquisition of Chinese classical literature knowledge in the acquisition tests.

Table 2. Level of Acquisition of Classical Chinese Literature in Two Schools.

	Level of Acquisition of Chinese Classical Literary Knowledge								
	MFE* (50%)			MFK** (50%)			Full Marks (100%)		
	NTSS 1	NTSS 2	∑	NTSS 1	NTSS 2	∑	NTSS 1	NTSS 2	∑
M	25.46	21.08	23.27	17.65	14.92	16.29	43.12	36.00	39.56
Med	26.00	20.00	22.00	18.00	14.00	16.00	41.00	34.00	38.00
SD	7.11	5.72	6.79	6.88	6.08	6.60	11.90	10.35	11.66
Min	12.00	10.00	10.00	6.00	4.00	4.00	22.00	18.00	18.00
Max	42.00	36.00	42.00	32.00	28.00	32.00	72.00	54.00	72.00
25%	20.00	16.5	18.00	12.00	10.00	12.00	36.00	28.00	30.00
50%	26.00	20.0	22.00	18.00	14.00	16.00	41.00	34.00	38.00
75%	30.00	25.5	28.00	22.00	20.00	20.00	53.50	46.00	48.00

Guidance: *MFE: Exam-oriented Questions Marks; *MFK: Basic Literature Knowledge Questions Marks.
M = Mean, Med = Median, SD = Standard Deviation, Min = Minimum Marks, Max = Maximum Marks.

Table 3. Pearson-r Correlation for Test Mastery of Classical Chinese Literature and LSA Chinese Grade.

	N = 104		MFE*	MFK**
LSA Chinese Grade	Value Pearson-*r*	0.686	0.633	0.561
	Sig (2-tailed) p	0.000	0.000	0.000

* MFE: exam-oriented question scores; **MFK: basic literature knowledge question scores.

Similarly, the higher the level of the acquisition of classical Chinese literature among the respondents showed the higher the grade obtained by them in the Chinese language subject.

5 DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION

This study finds that the acquisition of Chinese classical literature among the respondents is low, with the mean score of 39.56 out of 100, and a standard deviation of 11.66. This shows a poor D grade. According to Chiah (2005), there were a large number of MCE students who have very little knowledge of literature and their mastery of basic literary knowledge was unsatisfactory. Therefore, a weak performance in Chinese classical literature is related with the examination questions of the subject. The difficulties of the classic Chinese Literature and its comprehension questions in the MCE caused the negative perception of the students towards classic Chinese Literature. As a result, the students decided not to register for the Chinese Language subject in the MCE (Sinchew Daily, 23/4/2011).

The findings are found similar to the study conducted by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA, 2012) that measure students' responses to specific literary texts and their level of comprehension. The target populations were 14-year-old students and students in the final year of secondary schools in Belgium (Flemish), Belgium (French), Chile, England, Finland, Iran, Italy, New Zealand, Sweden, and United States. The result of the study showed that the patterns of students' responses to literature were influenced by the literary nature of the selections that students were given to read. Different literary samples elicited different responses from students, with some consistency across cultures and school systems.

Previous studies have shown that students who have negative attitude on a subject may influence the student's learning outcome (Mickelson, 1990; Hudley, Daoud, Hershberg, Wright-Castro, & Polanco, 2002; Chan, 2003; Lee, 2004). For example, the study of Chan (2003) showed that a positive attitude help to improve the performance of students in two subjects, that is Modern Chinese Language and Mathematics.

It is noted that the scores for the exam-oriented questions (23:27% from 50%) is higher than the questions that characterized the basic knowledge (16:29% from 50%), which is usually not emphasized in teaching and learning Chinese literature. These results suggested that current schools' students were taught by the "exam-oriented" thinking approach. As such, the material related to the examination will be emphasized by the teachers and students. On the other hand, if the material taught only a component of additional knowledge that will not be tested in a formal examination, the student will take for granted for the component, then the achievement of students in the study of basic knowledge is very disappointing. Lack of proficiency in basic knowledge of this have an impact on the academic achievement of their Chinese language (Eng, 2005; Zhang, 2009). This fact should be disclosed to the students so that they are more concerned with the mastery of classical Chinese literature.

The result of this study shows an emphasis on passing examination due to the examination oriented education system. All materials related to examination are taken care of by the students, hence they will obtain a more satisfactory examination oriented scores. Conversely, if the material being taught is for the sake of knowledge only and will not be set in a formal examination, the students tend to neglect the components, the achievement of students in the area of basic literature knowledge this study is very disappointing. Lack of proficiency in basic knowledge has impact on their performance in Chinese language (Eng, 2005; Zhang, 2009). This fact should be disclosed to the students so that they would put more effort in acquiring knowledge of Chinese classical literature.

Next, Pearson *r* analysis was done to determine the relationship between the acquisition of knowledge in Chinese classical literature and an academic subject, which is Chinese language. The results of this study showed that there was a significant relationship between the acquisition of knowledge in Chinese classical literature and academic achievement in Chinese with the Pearson-*r* value 0.686 and $p < 0.05$. This means that a high level of acquisition of Chinese classical literature knowledge will help them in their learning of the Chinese language as well.

The findings are in line with findings of Mohamad (2003) and Ibrahim (2006) in Malaysia that found students who can master Malay literature would perform better in the Malay Language examination. This finding is also consistent with some overseas studies, such as the studies by McClellan

and Fields (2004), Konrad, Helf, and Itoi (2007) and Kinniburgh and Byrd (2008), which have concluded that the use of children's literature in language teaching can improve students' academic achievement. This means that students who like literature will have a better academic achievement than those who do not like literature (Bozorgi, 2009; Stevens, 2006; Su, 2009).

Furthermore, the students who sit for Chinese language subject in MCE should master the Chinese traditional literature that need special reading skills to help them comprehend the text better, and sow the interest to learn. Study done by Kim and Kim (2014) revealed that the three groups differed from one another with respect to their understanding of literal, intended, and implied meanings in reading. The findings provide pedagogical implications for teaching Chinese language learners with different reading proficiency levels. Therefore, the Chinese language teachers in secondary schools should apply different teaching methods to teach the subject especially Chinese traditional literature that require different reading skills.

This finding is found important to support the education system in Malaysia that literature component, include classical literature is important to be taught and be learnt by the students. The relationship between language and literature like songs and rhythms that cannot be separated and interdependent in the process of teaching and learning to produce good generation who inherited the rich culture and linguistic of their own language.

6 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study showed that the acquisition of the students in Chinese classical literature was at the average low level. It also showed that there was a significant positive correlation between the test scores of Chinese classical and grades in Chinese language. In other words, good acquisition of Chinese classical literature will ensure excellent language achievement. Therefore, effective measures should be taken to prevent this problem from becoming more widespread. The researchers believes that with the cooperation from the top management at the ministry of education to the teachers, the younger generation will learn more about the Chinese culture and ensure the continuation of Chinese education in Malaysia.

CORRESPONDING AUTHOR

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Chew Fong Peng, Department of Language and Literacy Education, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, 50603, Kuala Lumpur. E-mail: fpchew@um.edu.my.

REFERENCES

Abdul Aziz, I. 2000. Innovation and creativity in teaching literature (Malay language). Paper presented in the National Seminar on Malay Literature Component Text in Malay Language Subject, July 12–14 2000, Kuala Lumpur.

Abdul Talib, A.Z. 2000. *Malay Pedagogy: Principles, Methods and Techniques* (Malay language). Kuala Lumpur: Utusan Publication & Distribution.

Bozorgi, S. 2009. On the relationship between locus of control and the Grade Point Average of the Iranian Azad University EFL students. Retrieved April, 10, 2015 from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED505569.pdf.

Chan, C.S., Rhodes, J.E., Lowe, R.O., Schwartz S.E.O. & Herrera, C. 2013. Pathways of influence in school-based mentoring: The mediating role of parent and teacher relationships, *Journal of School Psychology, 51*(1), 129–142.

Chia, N.Y. 2005. Chinese students dropout problem in native language class at a national secondary school (Malay language). Unpublished Project of Master in Education. University of Malaya.

Chiah, S. 2005. Discussion on the literature education in the secondary integrated education syllabus. In Hou Kok Chung (Ed.), *100 years of Malaysian Chinese culture and education: Review and prognosis* (Chinese language) (p. 265–285). Kuala Lumpur: Centre for Malaysian Chinese Studies.

Director of Education: Increase 4689 students, LCE full A 27668 students. *Sinchew Daily* (27/12/2007). Downloaded November, 25, 2014 from www://search.sinchew-i.com/node/81924.

Director of Education: 10 + 2 program · students free to choose Chinese language in MCE. *Sinchew Daily* (22.3.2010). Downloaded March, 13, 2015 from http://www.sinchew-i.com/node/145423.

Hudley, C., Daoud, A., Hershberg, R., Wright-Castro, R., Polanco, T. 2002. Factors supporting school engagement and achievement among adolescents. Retrieved May 3, 2014, from http://eric.ed.gov/?id = ED465774.

Ibrahim, K. 2006. Malay teaching techniques through a literary tradision (Malay language). In Norizan Abdul Razak, Rozainee Khairudin & Ravachandran Vengadasamy. (eds.). *Educational, Language, Literature and Psychology Issues in Malaysia* (p. 61–69). Bangi: National University of Malaysia.

IEA. 2012. Six subjects survey: literature education. Downloaded June, 10, 2014 from http://www.iea.nl/six_subject_literature.html.

Kim, M.S. & Kim, H.J. 2014. Investigating Chinese Language Learners' Reading Comprehension for Different Meaning Types. *Gema Online Journal of Language Studies*. Retrieved April, 2, 2014 from http://ejournal.ukm.my/gema/article/view/3423.

Kinniburgh, Leah H. & Byrd, Kelly 2008. Ten Black Dots and September 11: Integrating social studies and mathematics through children's literature. *The Social Studies*, 99(1), 33–36.

Konrad, M., Helf, S. & Itoi, M. 2007. More bang for the book: Using children's literature to promote self-determination and literacy skills. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 40(1), 64–71.

Lee, K.H. (2004). Teaching and Learning of literature in KDPM Chinese studies syllabus. Downloaded February, 7, 2015 from http://www.ipbl.edu.my/inter/penyelidikan/seminarpapers/.../leeMPRM.pdf.

LSA successes: 28,188 people received general A. Sinchew Daily. (24/12/2009). Downloaded January, 21, 2015 from http://tech.sinchew-i.com/sc/node/119706.

McClellan, S. & Evelyn F.M. 2004. Using African American children's literature to support literacy development. *YC Young Children*, 59(3), 50–54.

Mickelson, R.A. 1990. The attitude-achievement paradox among black adolescents. *Sociology of Education*, 63, 44–61.

Piaget, J 1959. *The language and thought of the child* (M. Grabain, Trans.). New York: Humanities Press.

Rita R., Raj P. & Shubhangna S. 2006. Gender differentials in reading behaviour among children. *Journal Social Science,* 12(2), 125–127.

Sakai, K.L. (2005). Language Acquisition and Brain Development. *Science,* 310 (5749): 815–819.

Santrock, J.W. 2003. *Psychology essentials* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Stevens, R.J. 2006. Integrated middle school literacy instruction. *Middle School Journal*, 38(1), 13–19.

The students do not sit for the examination of Chinese Language, who's fault? (23/4/2011). *Sinchew Daily*. (Chinese language) Downloaded May 15 2013 from http://www.sinchew.com.my/node/201983.

Theresia K. 2006. Behaviorism Theoretical insights about first language acquisition (Malay language). *Journal of Education Sower,* 6, 28–33.

Van de Gaer, E., Pustjens, H., Van Damme, J. & De Munter, A. 2007. Impact of attitudes of peers on language achievement: Gender differences. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 101(2), 78–90.

Van de Gaer, E., Pustjens, H., Van Damme, J. & De Munter, A. 2009. School engagement and language achievement: A longitudinal study of gender differences across secondary school. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 55(4), 373–405.

Wan Yusof, A.S. & Zainura, W. 2010. *The influence of academic advising system for students' academic achievement*. (Malay language) Johor Bahru, Malaysia Universiti of Teknologi.

Zhang, B.Y. 2009. Malaysian junior high school students to learn the essence of Chinese famous Difficulties and Solutions. (Chinese language) Unpublished Dissertation of Master in Arts. Beijing University of Languages.

This page intentionally left blank

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

Implementation of the LINUS program in Malaysian primary schools

Chew Fong Peng
Department of Language and Literacy Education, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Chin Hai Leng
Department of Curriculum and Instructional Technology, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Fonny Hutagalung
Department of Educational Psychology and Counseling, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: LINUS is a program implemented by the Ministry of Education in primary schools across the country to raise the level of literacy and numeracy skills of students in 1 to 3 since 2010. This study aimed to investigate the implementation of LINUS program since 2010. The theory of Piaget (1936) was applied in this study. Survey was conducted on 120 students from three different types of schools, namely national primary schools, Chinese schools and Tamil national-type primary schools. Research showed that the LINUS teachers taught them in interesting ways and used language that is easily understood; LINUS class allows students to master the skills of reading and writing; LINUS teachers tend to apply the group activities and games in teaching and learning; In addition, teachers prefer to use computer, pictures, and video in the LINUS classroom. In other words, the implementation of the LINUS program yielded results with positive responses from the students. Therefore, LINUS program should be continued with strong support from parents and the community so that its effectiveness to be more prominent in order to produce young generation who become information literate.

Keywords: LINUS; national schools; national-type schools; ICT

1 INTRODUCTION

The education system in Malaysia strides rapidly over the development of the country in the present millennium. The Government, through the Ministry of Education has designed and implemented various sustainable changes towards realizing the aspirations of being a developed country by year 2020. Changes in the educational arena in the country are beginning to show the results in policies, acts, or reports such as the National Education Policy, Razak Report 1956, Rahman Talib Report 1960, the National Language Act 1967, the Cabinet Committee Report 1979, and the New Education Act 1996.

2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEMS

According to the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013–2025 (2013), the numbers of students who performed below minimum score of TIMSS assessment in the skill of reading was more than double that of the OECD countries. Literacy laid the foundation for learning in primary education and beyond. Reading and writing are implicit in the basic right to education. Without these abilities, it is nearly impossible for students to attain higher education and survive in modern society. Literacy skills are crucial to a person's ability to develop fully as an individual, to live a satisfying and rewarding life and to participate fully in our society.

In response to this demand, the transition class was conducted by remedial teachers in schools. This remedial education is a special program in the form of teaching and learning activities to help students with learning problems such as lack of basic literacy skills in the classroom.

After realizing the problems that occur cannot be resolved through remedial classes alone, the Ministry of Education has introduced the program of KIA2M or Intervention Class on Early Reading and Writing. The program is designed to help the low performing students, especially the students in Year One to master the basic skills of reading and writing. The program was implemented full-time based by the Malay language teachers at Year One nationwide in both National Primary Schools and National-type Primary Schools

(Concept Paper on Implementation of Intervention Class on Early Reading and Writing, 2005). In Malaysia the National schools have Malay language as the medium of instruction while National-type schools use an ethnic group mother tongue (Chinese or Tamil) as the medium of instruction.

Data of the remedial students in the school who 'recovered' after the intervention program of KIA2M indicated that this program had not managed to put all the students who followed the class into the right track. Out of 53,544 primary school children who followed the intervention program, only 28,801students or 53.8% had been restored and can master the skills of reading, writing and arithmetic (Planning and Researching on Education Policy Division (BPPDP, MOE, 2002). The latest data show that 105,255 (23%) of the total 463,990 students have not mastered reading skills in July, 2008 (BPPDP, MOE, 2008).

After that, since 2010, this program was replaced by the LINUS program. LINUS is an acronym of the Literacy and Numeracy Screening Program and useful to help the students in primary schools, in Phase One starting from Year One to Year Three who drop off in the mastery of basic skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic. All Year One teachers who teach Malay language are required to attend the courses of instruction and learning of the module of LINUS beginning in 2010 conducted by the Teacher Education Division, Ministry of Education. This program was implemented in all National Primary Schools, National-type Chinese Schools and National-type Tamil Schools. There are three stages of the Filters, namely Filter 1 (in Year One), Filter 2 (in Year Two), and Filter 3 (in Year Three).

Thus, the literacy education in Malaysia, especially in Malay Language is becoming an important subject in school because the literacy program has been programmed formally under the LINUS program and also became the government's strategy in the National Key Result Area (NKRA). Its mission is to develop high literacy skills among the students, namely the literate youths with competitive and dedicate as the frontier of year 2020 (Khairuddin, 2011).

To avoid wastage in education, early exploration of the LINUS program is needed to investigate the implementation of this program in the school and students response thereto. This can help detect strengths and weaknesses of the program, thus enhancing its implementation to allow students with weak literacy rate could be addressed and dealt with so that they can become useful citizens in the future. So this study will also be looking for answers about the extent of the effective implementation of the LINUS program in three streams of different primary schools.

This study is aimed at answering the following research questions:

i. How much do the students know about the LINUS program?
ii. What are the students' evaluation about teaching and learning methods and environment of LINUS class?
iii. How far do the teaching aids and technology application by the LINUS teachers?

3 THEORY OF THE STUDY

There are a lot of studies that have been carried out by the process of learning and teaching of early childhood literacy. This study will apply the theory of cognitive development Piaget (1936; 1959) to review the development of reading skills and the mastery of writing skills.

According to Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development (1936), children going through the same stages of cognitive development only at different ages. He believes that the environment does not constitute a child's cognitive, otherwise children build knowledge to understand their environment to solve problems.

To Piaget, cognitive development was a progressive reorganization of mental processes as a result of biological maturation and environmental experience. Children construct an understanding of the world around them, then experience discrepancies between what they already know and what they discover in their environment. Thus, Piaget (1959) has introduced three basic components to describe the process, namely the schemas, adaptation processes that enable the transition from one stage to another (equilibrium, assimilation, and accommodation), and stages of development.

When children acquire knowledge, they will save and organize them in mind and developed a system called the schemas. Children will use the schemas to solve the problems and the schemes are typically formed from simple to complex. For example, children build schemas to recognize letters.

After the children recognize letters, children will learn to compose letters to form syllables and then words. This process is known as absorption or assimilation. This absorption occurs when children try to understand the syllables and words and try to adapt this knowledge with schemas of existing letters that have been identified.

Next, modification or accommodation will happen when children have managed to change the old schemas to the new schemas recognizing letters that identify syllables and words. Based on Piaget's theory, equilibrium will be reached after the child through the process of absorption and

modification. To achieve this balance, the child can recognize letters, syllables, words, and sentences if exposed to writing skills. Therefore, a child must master reading skills before he/she manages to write letters, syllables and words by absorption and renovation, children will continue to adapt by building new schemas.

Piaget (1959) believed that children think differently than adults and stated they go through four universal stages of cognitive development. Development is therefore biologically based and changes as the child matures. Cognition therefore develops in all children in the same sequence of stages. Piaget (1959) believed that these stages are universal—i.e. that the same sequence of development occurs in children all over the world, whatever their culture as shown in Table 1.

3.1 *Research insrument*

The researcher modified the questionnaire of the Ministry Of Education (MOE) according to the requirements of this study. The questionnaire consisted of two parts, A and B. There were five demographic that included gender, ethnic, type of schools, school location, and family income in part A. Part B was the aspects of students' opinions that consisting of three aspects. The first aspect was the knowledge of students on LINUS (11 questions), the second aspect regarding the teaching and learning methods and environment of LINUS (8 questions), and third aspect was the application of teaching aids and technology in teaching and learning (7 questions).

Data obtained through questionnaires were analyzed by quantitative methods using SPSS version 21. Descriptive method such as frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation was processed in data analysis based on the number of respondents who answered to scale agreement three points (1- disagree; 2- not sure; 3- agree) to identify students' perceptions on LINUS. Findings of research question 1 and 2 will be displayed in table form while chart will be used to answer the research question 3.

A pilot test was done among 30 year four students in a national primary school in Negeri Sembilan, showed Cronbach alpha value at 0.82, a level that meant consistent and can be implemented in the study.

Table 1. Stages of Development.

Stage of Development	Key Feature	Research Study
Sensorimotor 0–2 yrs.	Object Permanence	Blanket & Ball Study
Preoperational 2–7 yrs.	Egocentrism	Three Mountains
Concrete Operational 7–11 yrs.	Conservation	Conservation of Number
Formal Operational 11 yrs +	Manipulate ideas in head, e.g. Abstract Reasoning	Pendulum Task

3.2 *Respondents of the study*

In this study, the sample size was 120. Stratified random sampling method was employed in this study.

The number of male was 56 (46.7%) compared to 64 (53.3%) female students. The distribution according to ethnic showed that most respondents were Chinese with 51students (42.5%); followed by Indian with a total of 46 students (38.3%); Malay only consisted of 20 students (16.7%), only 3 students (2.5%) were from other ethnic groups.

There were three schools involved in the study, namely National Schools (NS), National-Type Chinese School (NTCS) and National-Type Tamil Schools (NTTS). Each school involved 40 respondents (33.33%) respectively.

In terms of family income, it was found that the parents of 34 students (28.3%) had a total monthly income of between RM1,000–RM2,500. Parents who receive a monthly income of RM2501–RM5000 were represented by 56 students (46.7%), while parents who achieved a total of income exceeding RM5001 were represented by 30 students (25.0%). The findings showed that overall; respondents in this study came from low-income and intermediate-income families.

4 FINDINGS

4.1 *Research question 1: How much do the students know about the LINUS program?*

It was found that the highest mean fell to item 6 (LINUS makes me able to read) at M 2.53, SP.58, followed by item 1 (I know that LINUS related to reading) with M 2:52, SP.70; otherwise the lowest mean fell to item 9 (Class LINUS is different from other classes), only at M 2.14, SP 0.75. This means that LINUS can help in improving the reading skills of the students. However, the students can not differentiate between the LINUS class with other class. In this context, other class refers to the Malay language class. It also is argued that when it comes to reading skills, the students assumed that it is both taught in LINUS class or Malay language.

Table 2. Knowledge of the Students about the LINUS Program.

No	Items	1	2	3	M	SD
1	I know that LINUS related to reading	14(11.7)	30(25.0)	76(63.3)	2.52	0.70
2	I know that LINUS related to writing	13(10.8)	43(35.8)	64(53.3)	2.43	0.68
3	I know that LINUS related to calculating	22(18.3)	35(29.2)	63(52.5)	2.34	0.77
4	My attendance in the LINUS class is compulsory	19(15.8)	53(44.2)	48(40.0)	2.24	0.71
5	LINUS improve my language skills	15(12.5)	37(30.8)	68(56.7)	2.44	0.71
6	LINUS class make me can read	5(4.2)	46(38.3)	69(57.5)	2.53	0.58
7	LINUS class make me can write	19(15.8)	43(35.8)	58(48.3)	2.33	0.74
8	I shall pass the LINUS test	25(20.8)	45(37.5)	50(41.7)	2.21	0.77
9	LINUS class is different from other classes	26(21.7)	51(42.5)	43(35.8)	2.14	0.75
10	I gained a lot of knowledge from the LINUS	22(18.3)	46(38.3)	52(43.3)	2.25	0.75
11	My parents also know about the LINUS	12(10.0)	41(34.2)	67(55.8)	2.46	0.67

Table 3. Students' Evaluation on the Teaching and Learning Methods and Environment of LINUS Class.

No	Items	1	2	3	M	SD
1	Teachers always give compliments in teaching	23(19.2)	35(29.2)	62(51.7)	2.33	0.78
2	Teachers use the group technique in LINUS	16(13.3)	26(21.7)	78(65.0)	2.52	0.72
3	Teachers taught me individually	25(20.8)	48(40.0)	47(39.2)	2.18	0.76
4	The teaching of my LINUS teachers is very good	18(15.0)	50(41.7)	52(43.3)	2.28	0.71
5	Induction set of my LINUS teachers are very good	22(18.3)	40(33.3)	58(48.3)	2.30	0.76
6	I communicate very well with LINUS teachers	15(12.5)	45(37.5)	60(50.0)	2.38	0.70
7	The LINUS class atmosphere is encouraging	22(18.3)	47(39.2)	51(42.5)	2.24	0.74
8	My teachers are skilled in teaching methods in LINUS	20(16.7)	43(35.8)	57(47.5)	2.31	0.74

In addition, writing skills can also be improved (M 2.33, SP 0.74) although not as high as the reading skills. In other words, teaching and learning in the LINUS classroom emphasis reading skills more than writing skills as reading skills are the basic skills in Malay language before the student master the writing skills.

4.2 *Research question 2: What are the students' evaluation about teaching and learning methods and environment of LINUS class?*

Based on the Table 3, it is noted that the highest mean fell in item 2 (Teachers use the group technique in LINUS) with the M 2:52, SP 0.72,; otherwise lowest mean fell to item 4 (LINUS teachers taught me individually) with M 2:18, SP 0.76. This means that the students were of the opinions that the teaching methods and environment in LINUS involving more group activities. This was coincident with the lowest mean score involving individual teaching techniques. Therefore, it can be illustrated that most teachers LINUS at the three schools tend to use group methods in teaching compared with the individual methods. Therefore, the overall students gave positive opinion on the teaching methods and environment in LINUS class.

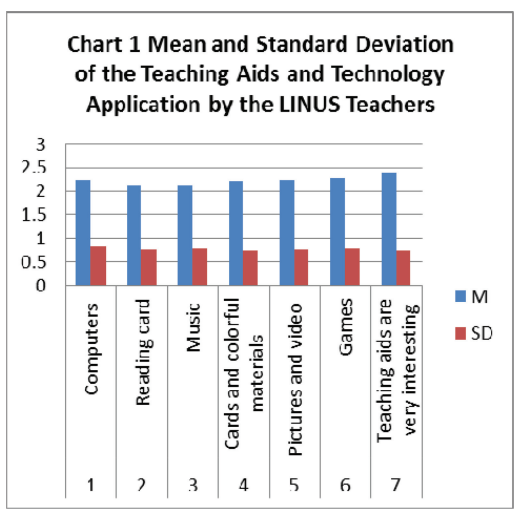

Chart 1. Mean and Standard Deviation of the Teaching Aids and Technology Application by the LINUS Teachers.

4.3 *Research question 3: How far do the teaching aids and technology application by the LINUS teachers?*

Chart 1 shows that the highest mean fell to item 7 (teaching aids of the LINUS teachers very interesting), followed by item 6 (teachers use games); item 1 (Teachers use computers in LINUS class) and item 5 (Teachers use pictures and video); otherwise the lowest mean fell to two items, namely item 2 (teachers uses reading cards) and item 3 (Teacher use music), respectively with M 2:13 and SD 0.76 and 0.78 respectively. This means that the average application of teaching aids and technology by the LINUS teachers were very interesting. However, fewer teachers use reading cards and also music in the LINUS class. This showed that the teaching aids used by the LINUS teachers involved more on computers, images and video, as well as games compared to reading cards and music. However, the application of teaching aids and technology by the LINUS teachers as a whole is very attractive to the students.

5 DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION

The results obtained showed that the students favored the LINUS program implemented at their schools. Students' opinion of the LINUS classrooms showed an impact on their learning.

From the aspect of students' knowledge of LINUS, they understand that the LINUS class is very important for them to improve their learning process. General knowledge available in the minds of the students was that they know that LINUS class is related closely to reading. Teaching approach that emphasizes repeated reading of the LINUS teachers help the students to master the proficiency of reading effectively. This means that equilibrium is reached by the students through the process of absorption and modification according to Piaget's theory (1936). By achieving this balance, students have recognized the letters, syllables, words and sentences if exposed to writing skills.

Through the LINUS program as well, it helped in improving the writing skills of the students. The respondent students in this study were aged 10 years and entered the Concrete Operational stage according to Piaget (1959). The child is now mature enough to use logical thought or operations (i.e. rules). Their thinking is more organized and rational. Therefore, they can master the writing skills in a logical fashion.

Juriah (2012) stated that the diversity approach has assisted students in writing and one of the effective approaches was the process approach which emphasized the writing process, namely prewriting, writing and revising drafts. Through this approach, the students will engage actively in small groups in order to realize the writing process and it resulted in improved writing proficiency especially for the students who attend the LINUS class.

According to Hasnalee (2012), LINUS teachers must possess the expertise to determine student readiness, besides being clear about the level of guidance needed to be delivered to the LINUS students. Studies conducted by Abdul Jalil et al. (2011) stated that teachers should use effective teaching strategies and plans to attract the students. This condition also made students willing to follow the LINUS class that helped them increase their potential and gain knowledge from the LINUS teachers.

Students' opinion regarding the teaching and learning methods and environment of LINUS teachers was also positive. This was because the creativity that exists among the LINUS teachers, have had helped them to attract the attention of the students in learning the Malay language, especially the group activities that are students-centered. Johnson (2013) who stated that student-centered learning requires students to be active, responsible participants in their own learning and with their own pace of learning.

The compliments and encouragement given by the teacher compatible with the Theory of Behaviorism that stated that the compliments, encouragement and rewards are given when a student performs or performed well in learning. This will lead to attract the students to learn something deeper. The various teaching techniques have evolved to give new impetus to the students to attend the LINUS class. The diversity of the technique reflected the wise teacher controlling the class and draws the attention of the students by meeting their tastes.

In face of a world filled with modern and advanced technology and the latest teaching aids application, the usage of the existing technology can improve the understanding of the students in the LINUS classes. However the problems encountered in implementing the LINUS program are most of the rural schools are facing the facility and finance problems including ICT equipment especially the Tamil National-type Primary Schools that located at the estate areas. Although the conditions in National Primary Schools and Chinese National-type Primary Schools are better, the facilities are yet limited and conditioned for pre-booking of the teachers before the class starts. These constraints caused the shortage using of modern teaching aids and technology among the LINUS teachers.

However, teachers who have knowledge in the application of various technologies helped the students to find various types of information to be

given to them. Therefore, the researchers mean to find out whether the improved knowledge of the LINUS teachers in the usage of technology leads to the increment of knowledge acquisition among the students. "Teaching aids of the LINUS teachers are very interesting" gained the highest percentage at 55.8%. This illustrated that the students liked the LINUS teachers who apply the different teaching aids.

The findings also showed that the respondent students have constructed an understanding of the LINUS environment and world around them, then experienced discrepancies between what they already known (reading skills) and what they discover in their environment (teaching and learning methods and environment). From that, they developed their writing skills in rational ways, according to the cognitive stages illustrated by Piaget (1959).

6 CONCLUSION

To achieve the targets set in the NKRA, education is largely dependent on the cooperation between government, school administrators, teachers, and parents. Parents and community play an important role in early childhood education. Early childhood education is a fundamental pillar for the children to acquire knowledge and skills in reading and writing literacy. Emerging literacy among children will achieve success in the future that transform the educational system to ensure the quality of national education improve constantly in order to produce knowledgeable and skilled human capital. Implementation of the Malaysia Education Blueprint (2013–2025) will make Malaysia achieve international education standards besides turning the students of Malaysia into global players.

The role of literature in strengthening the culture of a nation cannot be overstated. Given today's students' lack of interest in learning Chinese classical literature, effective measures should be taken to prevent this problem from becoming more widespread. This study shows that a good acquisition of Chinese classical literature will ensure excellent language achievement. Government's policy on examination subject selection, management of schools' principal in Chinese language time table setting, encouragement from schools principal and parents in teaching and learning Chinese language influence the students' interest and enthusiasm to learn and chose Chinese language as an elective subject in the MCE. The researchers believes that with the cooperation from the top management at the ministry of education to the teachers, the younger generation will learn more about the Chinese culture and ensure the continuation of Chinese education in Malaysia.

CORRESPONDING AUTHOR

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Chew Fong Peng, Department of Language and Literacy Education, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, 50603, Kuala Lumpur. E-mail: fpchew@um.edu.my.

REFERENCES

Abdul Jalil O., Normarini, N., Ghazali, D., Saedah, S. 2011. Challenges of LINUS program teachers in the teaching and learning of language (Malay language), *Issues of Education,* 34, 37–51.

Education Planning and Policy Research Division. (2002). Ministry of Education, Research Report on the Implementation of the Special Remedial Classes at Primary Schools (Malay language). EPRD: Putrajaya.

Hasnalee, T. 2012. Effectiveness teaching methods of reading and understanding skills by Malay Language Teachers from the perspective of Vygotsky Theory of Psychosocial (1935) (Malay language). Paper presented at the National Seminar on Strengthening Effective Teaching and Learning Practice in Malay Language, 16–20 September, Kuching, Sarawak.

Khairuddin M. 2011. *Literacy of Malay Language Teacher Education Series* (Malay language). Shah Alam: Fajar Bakti Sdn. Bhd.

Concept Paper on Implementation of Intervention Class on Early Reading and Writing (KIA2M) (Malay language). (2005). Curriculum Development Centre, Ministry of Education.

Johnson, Eli 2013. *The Student Centered Classroom: Vol 1: Social Studies and History*. New York: Routledge.

Juriah, L. 2012. Effective practices of teaching and learning Malay Language. Paper presented at the National Seminar on Strengthening Effective Teaching and Learning Practice in Malay Language, 16–20 September, Kuching, Sarawak.

Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013–2025. (2013). Putrajaya: Ministry of Education Malaysia.

Modul LINUS. 2010. Ministry of Education. Malaysia.

Piaget, J. 1936. *Origins of intelligence in the child*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Piaget, J. 1959. *The Language and Thought of the Child*. London & New York: Routledge.

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

Librarians' knowledge sharing behaviour

Mohd Zool Hilmie Mohamed Sawal, Nazni Noordin, Raja Alwi Raja Omar, Abd Latif Abdul Rahman & Zaherawati Zakaria
Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM) Kedah, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: Knowledge can be defined as facts, information, description, or skill, which an individual has acquired through experience or education. The uniqueness of knowledge makes it a valuable asset for any organization. In order to investigate the willingness of knowledge sharing behaviour among librarians, this study explored the role of Big Five Personality factor, among librarians towards knowledge sharing behaviour. It focuses on librarians in the Northern Peninsular of Malaysia. The main objective is to examine the factors influencing knowledge sharing behaviour among librarians. The result of this study can contribute to the development of a new knowledge sharing model and, offer new perspective on understanding of human personality and behaviour towards knowledge, especially among librarians.

1 INTRODUCTION

Knowledge can be defined as facts, information, description, or skill that an individual has acquired through experience or education. It is unique, subjective to describe, and intangible to see, but this resource is profitable to an organization or company. An individual is considered to be sharing his or her knowledge once he or she exchanges his or her idea and knowledge through communication and discussion with others. The main obstacle in knowledge sharing is the "behavior" of a particular person, as not all people are willing to share the knowledge that they possess. Knowledge sharing behavior refers to the personality, attitude and intention toward the behavior of either willing to share or not to share their knowledge. Knowledge sharing behavior among individual was assumed to be influenced by their personality trait. Personality trait is a theory created to identify and measure personality, which influences individual behavior. Others stated that personality trait is a psychological mechanism guiding an individual behavior. In order to measure an individual's personality trait, the big five personality traits model proposed by costa and mccrae (1992) was used to measure the relationship with knowledge sharing behavior. This model consists of five types of personality traits, namely; openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. This model is widely used to measure and to determine an individual's personality. Big five personality and knowledge sharing behaviour.

The Big Five Factors Model is used in order to measure the personality trait of an individual. Those five types of personality trait factors are classified as Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism (OCEAN). It has been empirically confirmed that Big Five Personality Traits can effectively predict human key behavior in various conditions. The Big Five taxonomy is well accepted by many researcher and scholars as one of the most reliable taxonomies in identifying personal traits.

The use of the Big Five Personality model has the advantage of providing a strong prediction toward knowledge sharing behavior. Under psychological mechanism, personalities play a vital role that directs the behavior. Meanwhile, other researchers who did evaluation of research on knowledge sharing and personality indicated that individuals with relatively stable personality profile are more likely to share their knowledge with others.

Knowledge sharing behavior could be described as "behavior" of individuals in the process of transferring and sharing their possessed knowledge. This behavior is influence by the combination of personalities such as attitude, and subjective norm toward behaviour, in order to create the intention of whether to share or not to share their knowledge. It can be seen that knowledge sharing and knowledge exchange involve a resources transaction process, or a communication process between two or more participants engaging in two processes, namely acquisitions and provision of knowledge, or what we could callas knowledge collection and knowledge donation.

2 FRAMEWORK MODEL

Figure 1 show the framework model used in identifying the Big Five Personality toward knowledge

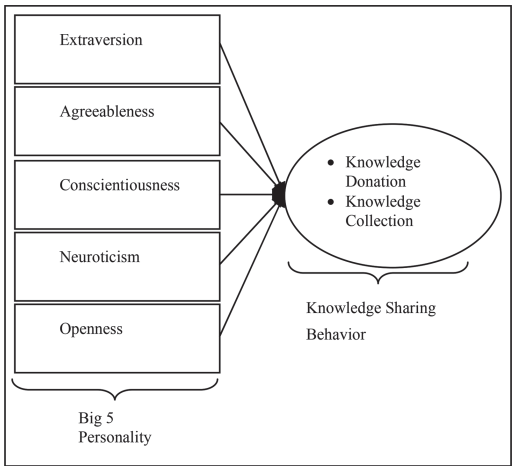

Figure 1. Framework Model.

sharing behaviour among librarian in Northern Peninsular Malaysia. Five elements were taken into consideration as the independent variables, namely; extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness, while the dependent variables consist of knowledge donation and knowledge collection which represent the knowledge sharing behavior.

3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

The research objectives of this study are to identify the personality factors that may influence behavior among librarians; determine which personality trait possesses higher influence toward knowledge sharing behavior among librarians; and to identify reasons for sharing knowledge.

4 RESEARCH FINDING AND DISCUSSION

The data was collected from librarians from Northern Malaysia, namely; Perlis, Kedah, Pulau Pinang and Perak. A total of 70 sets of questionnaires were distributed and 61 sets of questionnaires were returned back (87 percent respondent responded). The questionnaire was designed based on categories or variables using a Likert scale from 1–7. A Likert scale of 1stands for strongly agree and 7 for strongly disagree.

4.1 *Extraversion*

Table 1 shows the feedback from librarians regarding the extraversion personality trait. A majority of the librarians gave their feedback under scale number 3 on the questionnaire except for question number 3 and 4. For question number 3, 24 librarians or 39.3 percent agreed on scale 2 and for question number 4, 18 librarians or 26.2 percent agreed on scale 4.

4.2 *Agreeableness*

Table 2 show the feedbacks for the agreeableness personality trait, and for the question "*I see myself as someone who tends to find fault with others*" indicated that 19 librarians or 31.1 percent were on scale 6. The question "*I see myself as someone who starts quarrels with others"* indicated that 24 librarians or 39.3 percent were on scale 7. A similar response was also recorded in the question *"I see myself as someone who is sometimes rude to others" which* indicated that 20 librarians or 32.8 percent on scale 7. Other questions showed that the majority of feedbacks are on scale 2 that indicated a tendency to strongly agree.

4.3 *Conscientiousness*

The feedbacks for conscientiousness are in Table 3. The question "*I see myself as someone who tends to be lazy*" indicated that 22 or 36.1 percent of the librarians strongly disagreed. The question "*I see myself as someone who makes plans and follows through with them*" indicated that 21 librarians gave the feedbacks on scale 2 and scale 3, which is around 42 or 68.8 percent of the librarians.

4.4 *Neuroticism*

Neuroticism personality trait as shown in Table 4 indicated that a majority of the feedbacks are on scale 4. For the question *"I see myself as someone who is depressed, blue"* the feedback is on scale 5 and 6 which make the majority of 28 or 46 percent of the librarians. The question "*I see myself as someone who remains calm in tense situations*" received a feedback of scale 2 by 19 librarians.

4.5 *Openness*

Table 5 show the feedbacks from librarian regarding openness as a personality trait. The majority of the feedbacks given is on scale 3 except for question number 2, question number 6 and question number 7. Question number 2 *"I see myself as someone who is curious about many different things"* 20 librarian gave their feedback on scale 2, question number 6 *"I see myself as someone who values artistic, aesthetic experiences"* 16 librarians gave their feedbacks on scale 2 and question number *7 "I see myself as someone who is sophisticated in art,*

Table 1. Extraversion personality trait.

No	Questions	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly Disagree 7
1	I see myself as someone who is talkative	5	12	22	16	4		2
2	I see myself as someone who is full of energy	9	18	25	6	2		1
3	I see myself as someone who generates a lot of enthusiasm	10	24	19	5	2	1	
4	I see myself as someone who tends to be quiet	2	6	16	18	8	5	6
5	I see myself as someone who has an assertive personality	4	15	25	11	3	1	2
6	I see myself as someone who is sometimes shy, inhibited	1	5	20	12	11	4	7
7	I see myself as someone who is outgoing, sociable	10	15	17	15	1	2	1

Table 2. Agreeableness personality trait.

No	Questions	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly Disagree 7
1	I see myself as someone who tends to find fault with others	1	1	7	8	7	19	18
2	I see myself as someone who is helpful and unselfish with others	16	33	6	5	1		
3	I see myself as someone who starts quarrels with others	4	7	4	6	4	12	24
4	I see myself as someone who has a forgiving nature	12	28	8	9	2	2	
5	I see myself as someone who is generally trusting	13	25	10	9	4		
6	I see myself as someone who is considerate and kind to almost everyone	13	28	14	3	3		
7	I see myself as someone who is sometimes rude to others	5	6	9	4	4	13	20
8	I see myself as someone who likes to cooperate with others	17	6	9	4	4	13	20

Table 3. Conscientiousness personality trait.

No	Questions	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly Disagree 7
1	I see myself as someone who does a thorough job	10	27	14	6	2		2
2	I see myself as someone who can be somewhat careless	1	10	6	18	5	13	8
3	I see myself as someone who is a reliable worker	11	23	12	5	1	4	5
4	I see myself as someone who tends to be disorganized	1	8	3	12	10	15	12
5	I see myself as someone who tends to be lazy	2	3	5	9	2	18	22
6	I see myself as someone who perseveres until die task is finished.	4	19	10	15	1	8	4
7	I see myself as someone who does things efficiently	6	22	18	12	3		
8	I see myself as someone who makes plans and follows through with them	5	21	21	11	1		2
9	I see myself as someone who is easily distracted	1	7	11	19	7	10	6

Table 4. Neuroticism personality trait.

No	Questions	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly Disagree 7
1	I see myself as someone who is depressed, blue	1	3	7	10	14	14	12
2	I see myself as someone who is relaxed, handles stress well	6	13	14	15	4	5	4
3	I see myself as someone who worries a lot	1	9	7	17	7	14	6
4	I see myself as someone who is emotionally stable, not easily upset	6	16	11	17	3	4	4
5	I see myself as someone who can be moody	3	7	8	10	12	10	11
6	I see myself as someone who remains calm in tense situations	5	19	16	10	4	1	6
7	I see myself as someone who gets nervous easily		8	12	21	9	9	2

Table 5. Openness personality trait.

No	Questions	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly Disagree 7
1	I see myself as someone who is original, comes up with new ideas	4	14	24	14	1	3	1
2	I see myself as someone who is curious about many different things	7	20	18	13	2	1	
3	I see myself as someone who is ingenious, a deep thinker	9	17	21	8	4		2
4	I see myself as someone who has an active imagination	4	14	16	10	6	3	8
5	I see myself as someone who is inventive	5	12	23	10	7	2	2
6	I see myself as someone who values artistic, aesthetic experiences	8	16	15	19	3		
7	I see myself as someone who is sophisticated in art, music, or literature	2	21	5	18	9	3	3

music, or literature" 21 librarians gave their feedbacks on scale 2.

4.6 *Knowledge sharing*

Knowledge sharing refers to the provision of task information and know-how to help others and to collaborate with others to solve problems, develop new ideas, or implement policies or procedures (Cummings, 2004). Table 6 shows the feedback from librarians on knowledge sharing. The question *"I am willing to share knowledge with peers in the department"* received 43 feedbacks from librarians on scale 1. Question "*When I have learned something new, I tell my Peers in the department about it"* received 34 feedbacks from librarian on scale 1. For question *"If I share my online knowledge with other members, I feel very pleasant"* and question *"If I share my online knowledge with other members, I feel very beneficial"* received the majority of feedbacks by 48 and 50 librarian.

Table 6. Knowledge sharing.

No	Questions	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly Disagree 7
1	I am willing to share knowledge with peers in the department	43	17	1				
2	When I have learned something new, I tell my peers in the department about it.	34	22	4		1		
3	When they have learned something new, my peers in the department tell me about it.	17	25	9	8	1	1	
4	Knowledge sharing amongst peers is considered normal in my department	20	23	11	6	1		
5	I am willing to share organization knowledge with librarians in other	23	28	9	1			
6	When I have learned something new, I tell librarians in other organizations.	11	15	19	14	1	1	
7	When they have learned something new, librarians in other organizations will tell me about it.	8	12	14	17	4	4	2
8	Knowledge sharing amongst librarian between different organization is considered normal	12	14	15	14	6		
9	I will instantly share knowledge related to my personal career development	13	22	14	8	4		
10	I always plan to share knowledge related to my personal career development	14	24	16	3	4		
11	I will share knowledge related to my personal career development	16	24	11	6	4		
12	I intent to share knowledge related to my personal career development.	18	23	14	4	2		
13	It is a wise move if I share my online knowledge with other members	23	24	11	2	1		
14	If I share my online knowledge with other members, I feel very meaningful	23	26	10	1	1		
15	If I share my online knowledge with other members, I feel very pleasant	24	24	10	1	2		
16	If I share my online knowledge with other members, I feel very beneficial	25	25	9	1	1		

5 RESEARCH DISCUSSIONS

This study looks at the influence of the Big Five Personality traits comprising the traits of Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism (OCEAN) as factors influencing knowledge sharing behavior among librarians. It was based on the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) proposed by Ajzen (1985). It is believed that the knowledge sharing behavior is influenced by the personality traits and this research try to study the relationship between these elements. The findings from the questionnaires returned by the respondents found that three personality traits; agreeableness, extraversion, and openness recorded a high percentage of respondents, implicating the personality possessed by an average of 80% of

the total respondents. The high percentage of respondents indicated that they possess characteristics such as helpfulness, unselfish, forgiving, considerate, kind and cooperativeness, talkative, outgoing, sociable, energetic, assertive, original, deep thinker, inventive, aesthetic, task oriented, organized, efficient, thorough, and playful. These are all characteristics contained in the openness, extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness personality traits. These traits are then turned into behavior and this is shown by the facts that almost 85% of the respondents agreeing to share knowledge between librarians, as indicated by the questionnaires' findings. Sharing depicts kindness, generosity, unselfishness, and also sacrifice. Individuals with agreeableness personality is at ease with this concept as the act of sharing corresponds with their natural characteristic such as courteous, helpful, generous, considerate, trusting and cooperative. A study by Matzler, Renz, Muller, Herting, and Mooradian (2008) on the relationship between three personality traits and knowledge sharing in international engineering company personnel found that agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness personality traits does influence knowledge sharing. The findings in this study also indicated a similar pattern where respondents with characters as above coincide with the percentage of respondents leaning towards possessing the knowledge sharing behavior. According to the questionnaires' responses, they are willing to share knowledge whether related to their professional duties, or their personal career development. This is probably because they do not see the sharing as a threat to their career; instead it may become a way for them to build their network and enhance professionalism among them. The study also found that librarians' with a high level of extraversion personality trait to be more favorable or having positive intention towards knowledge sharing behavior. Extrovert individuals has friendly characters and likes to talk, communicate and also likes to be among friends. Other characters include expressiveness and eagerness and all of these combinations facilitate the sharing process and could make it a convenient experience. Another study by Wang, Noe, and Wang (2011) revealed that extrovert individuals tend to share knowledge whether or not they would be held accountable and rewarded for it, and this supported the findings of this study. Perhaps, companionship and appreciation are more expected by those having this quality. Reciprocal relationship also influence attitude towards knowledge sharing (Zahra & Mohamad, 2011) as sharing involves knowledge donating and collecting.

6 CONCLUSIONS

It is interesting to see the equilibrium of these personality traits (openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, and agreeableness) and the knowledge sharing willingness where it could be seen that there is a high percentage of respondents possessing the personality traits as stated, and at the same time there is a high percentage of respondents with a strong inclination towards owning knowledge sharing behavior. The corresponding conditions indicate that The Big Five Personality trait does have influence on knowledge sharing behavior among librarians.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This research project is being funded by the Ministry of Education under the Research Acculturation Grant Scheme (RAGS).The authors also would like to thank Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM) Kedah.

REFERENCES

Alam, S.S., Abdullah, Z., Amir Ishak, N. & Mohd Zain, Z. (2009). Assessing knowledge sharing behaviour among employees in SME's: An empirical study. International Business Research, 2(2), 115–120.

Barrick, M.R. & Mount M.K. (1991), The Big Five personality dimensions and job performance: A meta-analysis, Personality Psychology, 44, 1–26.

Cummings, J.N. 2004. Work groups, structural diversity, and knowledge sharing in a global organization. Management Science. 50 (3), 352–364.

Costa, P.T. Jr. & McCrae, R.R. (1992). Four ways five factors are basic. Personality and Individual Differences, 13(6), 653–665.

Halder, S., Roy, A. & Chakraboty, P.K. (April, 2010). The influence of Personality Traits on Information Seeking Behavior of Students. Malaysia Journal of Library & information Science, 15(1), 41–53.

Jadin, T., Gnambs, T. & Batinic, B. (2013). Personality trait and knowledge sharing in online communications. Computer in Human Behavior (29), 210–216.

Khairulbariyah, Y., Roziana, S., Siti Aisyah, P. & Abdul Rahman. (2013). Towards an understanding of effect of core self-evaluations and knowledge sharing behavior. International Journal of Applied Psychology, 3(1), 13–18.

Liu, M.S. (2012). Impact of knowledge incentive mechanisms on individual knowledge creation behavior: An imperial study for Taiwanese R&D professionals. International journal of information management (32), 442–450.

Matzler, K., Renz, B., Muller, J., Herting, S. & Mooradian, T.A. (2008). Personality traits and knowledge sharing. *Journal of Economc Psychology.* 29: 301–313.

Peabody, D. & Goldberg, L. (1989). Some determinants of factor structures from personality-trait descriptions. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 57, 552–567.

Petrides, K.V., Vernon, P.A Schermer, J.A., Ligthrat, L., Boomsma, D.I. & Veselka, L. (2010). Relationships between trait emotional intelligent and the big five in the Nertherlands. Personality and Individual Differences, 48(8), 906–910.

Schaffer, D.R. (2005). Social and personality development. CA: Thomson Wadsworth.

Ten Tsai, M. & Chang Cheng, N. (2010). Programmer perceptions of knowledge-sharing behavior under social cognitive theory. Expert Systems with Applications, 37(12), 8479–8485.

Usoro, A., Sharratt, M.W., Tsui, E. & Shekhar, S. (2007). Trust as an antecedent to knowledge sharing in virtual communities of practice. Knowledge Management Research & Practice 5(3), 199–212.

Wang, S., Noe, R.A.,& Wang, Z.M. (July, 2011). Motivating knowledge sharing in knowledge management systems: A quasi–field experiment. Journal of Management, 37(4). doi: 10.1177/0149206311412192.

This page intentionally left blank

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

Cross-racial supervision: Case conceptualization of supervisee-supervisor relationship

Noor Aishah Rosli
University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: This is a case conceptualized paper that consists of sharing information by the supervisor who are from Asian country and has an experience supervision a supervisee from the Western country. This paper will highlight the background of the supervisee, purpose of supervision, a theoretical model that was used in supervision process, ethical issues, multicultural, the relationship between the supervisee with site supervisor and mentor, supervisee impression of the supervision process, the strength and weaknesses of supervisee, the analysis of supervision process, and the factor that can be learned from the supervision process.

Keywords: supervision; supervisor; supervisee; cross-racial; multicultural

1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Daniella Duca is a Latina woman. Her father is from Puerto Rico and her mother is from the Dominican Republic. She described herself as a Latina—who has Hispanic origin. She said she felt guilty to admit herself as a Latina because she is not a Latina. She said sometimes she felt confused to describe her origin and ethnicity. Both of her parents were divorced when she was very young. Now, her mother lives in Georgia and she always talks with her mother over the phone. According to Daniella, the phone conversation between her and her mother always sound stressful and not happy. The reason their relationship is not really good is because Daniella is still contact with her biological father, which makes her mother unsatisfied. Daniella said her mother has been suffering from depression since she was 13 years old. Her mother blames her father as the cause for her depression. Daniella married long time ago and now has been divorced. They have no child. Currently, Daniella lives with her boyfriend, who is a few years older than her, and his family at New Diamond, Wisconsin. Her boyfriend's parents support some of her living expenses. Moreover, Daniella has a part-time job. She works with her boyfriend's father who has a store in their neighborhood. Although she has personal problems, the problems never affect her emotionally and mentally and she was able to perform well in the supervisory process. Regarding her education, Daniella is a master student at Star University, Wisconsin and currently doing her practicum at the United Nation of Community (UNC) which provides clinical services mostly to a Hispanic population with drug problems.

2 PURPOSE OF SUPERVISION

The purpose of the supervision is to demonstrate an understanding of supervision skills through providing supervision to a master level student every week. Daniella said that she would like to take this advantage to receive extra clinical supervision which is helping her to develop her competence in counseling setting. Her personal goals and plans in her practicum learning agreement are to learn the intake process, develop confidence in applying counseling skills and be able to do a case conceptualization of client. As long as the supervisor has known her, she looked motivated to achieve her personal goals. Furthermore, this supervision was very interesting because the supervisor have an opportunity to work with a cross-racial supervisee. The supervisors have learned a lot from the supervision process; cross-racial supervisee have different view, character, and different problem solving style that opposite to the supervisee. However, there are also similarities between the supervisor and the supervisee especially regarding the both interest in multicultural issues.

A Developmental Conceptualization of the Supervisee Based on the Integrated Developmental Model of Supervision (IDM) (Stoltenberg, McNeil, & Delworth, 1998).

Along her work with Daniella, the supervisors always refer to the Integrated Developmental

Model (IDM) as her foundation in analyzing the progress of her supervisee. To the supervisor, the IDM is unique because it assesses supervisee from two dimensions which are vertical and horizontal. Vertical development consists of advancement from one stage of development to another stage, across three stages, while horizontal development consists of change within three key "structure:" self and other awareness, motivation, and autonomy (Stoltenberg & McNeil, 1997). By referring to IDM, the supervisor evaluated Daniella's developmental in her clinical skills and experiences. Based from this model also the supervisor was able to identify Daniella's growth for each structure and specific domain, which is very clear and easy to understand. Moreover, IDM is able to identify skills and tasks to be learned and any problems that emerge during the clinical training must be resolved as the supervisee in the process of developing her identity as a counselor (Cummings, 2004).

According to IDM, counselors progress through three primary developmental levels (Levels 1, 2, 3). Daniella is at Level 1, since she just started her practicum 11 weeks ago. At Level 1, a trainee initial anxiety despite being highly motivated, lacks an understanding of the complexities of counseling and depend upon supervisor guidance (Leach, Stoltenberg, McNeill, & Eichenfield, 1997). The supervisor actually saw these trait characteristics while supervising Daniella. As the supervisor mentioned above, Daniella is still in the beginning of the first stage in her development of clinical skills competency. The supervisor see Daniella's high level of motivation and at the same time notice that she is also has anxiety. In the same line, Daniella always share that she is able to control her anxiety, but at the same time she feels unsure about something and afraid if the site supervisor and her mentor complain about her. Daniella also said that she is worried if she does something inappropriate when conducting counseling with a client or in a group therapy. For example, asking questions that make clients angry, etc. Daniella shows her awareness about her responsibility at the UNC and is highly self-focused to perform well with her client. The supervisee frequently plans what to do every time she comes to the UNC. She always thinks of the consequences if she does something wrong or if the site supervisor and mentor disagree with her.

The supervisor also found that Daniella is able to show her empathy towards clients. She can understand client's problem. She prepares resources for client and seems she understand the client's needs. However, she show some lack of autonomy. She always depends upon her site supervisor and mentor. Nevertheless, it is not her fault. It is normal to show less autonomy because she just started her practicum and is still at the first level of development. She frequently asks them what to do every time she comes to the site. And from the conversation between the supervisor and Daniella, she prefers to receive structure from her site mentor about what to do next. She feels safe if she knows what the site supervisor and the mentor plan for her. Overall, to the supervisor, the supervisee (Daniella) is very concerned about her competency in counseling skills, highly motivated; she values structure, and shows ability to understand client needs.

3 PROFESSIONAL ETHICS

The supervisee showed her professional ethics when she mentioned that she always took care of client's personal file. She have mentioned that she has never put the file on her table but always puts the file at a safe place and puts the file back in the private room after she finishes reading the file. Daniella is aware of confidentiality of the client's information and never has conversations about the client in front of other people; instead, she talks about the client in the site supervisor or mentor's office.

4 MULTICULTURAL

Daniella works mostly with Hispanic clients. She can speak Spanish, but sometimes she has difficulty understanding some of the words during interaction with her clients. However, she shows motivation because she always refers to the dictionary to get clarification of the words. Daniella feels that clients in her group session are comfortable with her because they look at Daniella the same as themselves. Some of them communicate in Spanish with Daniella and some of them will communicate in English. During the supervision hours, the supervisor recognized that talking about multicultural issue was a main interest. The supervisor and the supervisee have similar opinions about multicultural issues, especially about understanding one's culture, languages, and minority issues. The supervisor really likes working with her supervisee because both of them have a lot in common, including experiences with family, as well as their experience with the community.

5 RELATIONSHIP WITH SUPERVISOR AND MENTOR AT THE SITE

This is the part that the supervisor found the supervisee always struggles with and feels disappointed with her condition at the UNC. Her

situation become worse when her mentor always "forgot" to invite her to be in the counseling room with her; even though her site mentor knew that Daniella needed more hours on individual therapy. According to the supervisee, her mentor can give her more hours but her mentor always forgot to call her to join in the counseling session. For example, last week her mentor had a lot of clients and did not call the supervisee to be in the room. Even though the supervisee heard her mentor talking with the client (when they passed in the hallway), the supervisee thought it was inappropriate for her to disturb her mentor and the client. She also did not want her mentor to think she was pushy.

The supervisee also mentioned that she actually feels that a site supervisor is just a person for her to ask any information that she wants to know and nothing more than that. She sometimes felt awkward with him because he did not supervise Daniella as he supposed to do. She only meets with the supervisor who is actually a psychiatrist once a week usually for 15 minutes. She actually hopes that she will have a supervisor who is eligible to provide her with skills that she wants to improve. Having two persons, a mentor and a site supervisor makes her feel confused sometime when a problem occurs at the site. In other words, she hopes to have only one qualified supervisor who can monitor her progress in providing counseling services to clients. According to that, Daniella is more comfortable to have open discussion with the supervisor rather than her site supervisor or mentor. When I asked the reason, she said that because both of them are too busy. She shared with the supervisor that she feels lucky because she has the third supervisor (the supervisor) to give her guidance and opinion when she has something come up at the clinical setting. Even though she has problems at the site, Daniella always shows her respect to both site supervisor and mentor. She only cares more about the hours than anything.

6 SUPERVISEE IMPRESSION

The supervisee expressed her anxiety if her mentor will criticize her in front of the client if she makes any mistakes. She is worried that she will be unable to solve client's problems, will ask the wrong questions to the client, and will not understand the client's need. That was at the beginning of her practical training. After a few weeks, the supervisor found that she is a strong person and also able to receive feedback from her site supervisor and mentor. She works very hard to develop competency in counseling skills. She has a good personality. Daniella is so polite and a compliant person.

7 STRENGTH AND WEAKNESSES OF SUPERVISEE

The supervisee's strengths are that she is a very hard-working person. She constantly shows her interest to meet her clients and be involved in group therapy. Daniella also is very perseverant person. Even though she has problems at the UNC and also personal problem with her mom, but she still shows a positive attitude to overcome all those problems. Her weakness is over nine weeks with Daniella, the supervisor found that her self-confidence is like a wave, sometimes is high, and sometimes is low. Therefore, the supervisor always motivated her by increasing her spirit to think positively and learn to perceive any problem as a challenge in her life. The supervisor also has advised her not to take comments from people personally.

8 ANALYSIS OF THE SUPERVISION PROCESS

Supervisors are expected to provide leadership, mentorship, and directional support towards supervisee (Roberts & Morotti, 2001). However, many beginner trainees think that the supervisors' task is to tell the trainees what to do. This is what happened in the supervisor early relationship with the supervisee. During the first meeting, the supervisor realized that Daniella seemed to seek answers directly from the supervisor. The supervisor realized that as a practical student at the first level stage, she might think that the supervisor is the place where she can get direct answers for her problems. Here, the supervisor is educated the supervisee to make her own decision for her problems. The supervisor always encourages the supervisee to think by herself and make a decision according to her comfort if the problem is about her, and make a decision according to the client's need if the problems is about her client. Gradually, the supervisee understands about the supervisor-supervisee relationship and that she should have her own stand to what have been discussed in supervision hour. What the supervisor really admires about the supervisee is she is so sincere to the supervisor. The supervisee will tell everything to the supervisor in term of what she felt and experienced without covering anything. Open communication between the supervisor and the supervisee is the key of successful to the supervisory relationship. If the supervisor can use her power as the supervisee third supervisor, the supervisor wish that she could have personal conversation with her site mentor to make sure that the supervisee will be invited to attend the counseling session with the site mentor. Also the supervisor would suggest to

the site mentor to provide the supervisee with 2 or 3 clients that she thinks the supervisee can handle. In the same line, the supervisors wish to talk to the site supervisor (psychiatrist) about how to be fair to the supervisee. The site supervisor should seriously play his roles as a supervisor by consulting with the supervisee to get to know her needs and problems at the site.

9 A DISCUSSION OF WHAT THE SUPERVISOR HAVE LEARNED ABOUT SUPERVISION AS A RESULT OF HER WORKS WITH THIS STUDENT-SUPERVISEE.

There are lots of things that the supervisors have learned from her experience as a supervisor to student-supervisee. First thing is that, to be a supervisor it is not an easy task. The supervisors have a supervisee who is very new in this field and she needs the supervisors guidance to teach her in some areas. Therefore, the supervisor should prepare herself to know about all aspects of supervision including the aspects that the student-supervisee will highlight such as confidentiality, ethnics issues, boundary of supervisor and supervisee, and supervisor issues at the site. Also the student-supervisee always shared with the supervisor about her dissatisfaction at the site, especially about her opportunity to collect clinical hours. In this case, the supervisors have to be able to respond to the student-supervisee's feeling. The supervisors have to ensure that the student-supervisee's level of confidence and motivation are stable and are not influence her mood at the site.

Overall, the supervisor experience being a supervisor to a student-supervisee at a master level really challenge her ability, self-confidence, and knowledge to provide effective supervision to her student-supervisee. The supervisor always have to be mentally prepared before the supervision hour. By providing the student-supervisee with an outline in every meeting, the supervisor found that the meeting went smoothly because the supervisor already have planed that she wrote down in her planner. In the same line, the supervisee has the opportunity to develop her role as a clinical supervisor to her future supervisee. The supervisor also expresses her appreciation to Daniella/student-supervisee for her full cooperation and commitment along the supervision process.

REFERENCES

Cumming, L.J. (2004). Implementation of development supervision: Evaluation of theory in practice. Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertation and Theses. (AAT 3151562).

Leach, M.M., Stoltenberg, C.D., McNeill, B.W., & Eichenfield, G.A. (1997). Self-efficacy and counselor development: Testing the integrated developmental model. Counselor Education and Supervision, 37(2).

Roberts, W.B., & Morotti, A.A. (2001). Site supervisors of professional counseling interns: Suggested guidelines. Professional School Counseling, 4, 208–215.

Stoltenberg, C.D., & McNeil, B.W. (1997). Clinical supervision from a development perspectives: Research and practice. In C. E Watkins (Eds.), Handbook of psychotherapy supervision (pp. 184–202). New York, NY: Wiley.

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

Self-reflection: Self-assessment of supervision related to knowledge and skills

Noor Aishah Rosli
University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: This paper is about self-assessment of the supervisor that has been conducted in the United States. The self-assessment that has been used in this paper was adapted from Handbook of Counseling Supervision (ACA) by Borders and Leddick (1987). The supervisor will share her assessment related to knowledge and skill. In this paper, the supervisor also named the Integrated Developmental Model of Supervision (IDM) as the best supervision model for her. The style of supervision also will be discussed in this paper.

Keywords: supervisor; self-assessment; Integrated Developmental Model of Supervision (IDM)

1 INTRODUCTION

Supervision practice is a good experience to develop professionalism style when working with an early trainee. The supervisor was really like the weekly supervision task because the training was able to increase her knowledge and skills in supervisory relationship. Moreover, based on this experience, the supervisor has the opportunity to develop her own style in supervision. Being a supervisor to a supervisee-student is not an easy task. There was a responsibility that the supervisor have to consider to provide the supervisory services that can fulfill the supervisee's desire for counseling skills such as intake process and interventions. From the beginning of the session, the supervisor already developed her goals that she wants to give the best to her supervisee. Moreover, the supervisor wants the supervisee to feel satisfied working with her. In the same line, the supervisor also wants her supervisee to think that having one hour face to face supervision was worth it.

Applying on Integrated Developmental Model of Supervision (IDM).

Since the supervisor learned about the Integrated Developmental Model of Supervision (IDM) developed by Stoltenberg, McNeill, Delworth (1997), the supervisor set in her mind that she will use this model as a foundation of her work in supervisory process. The supervisor found that the IDM is a concrete model to be used to assess her supervisee's development in her clinical work. The stages and domains provided by this model are really clear for the supervisor to match to the supervisee's progress week by week. By using this model, the supervisor can easily evaluate her supervisee performance by assessing the supervisee's performance in motivation, autonomy, and awareness.

2 THE STYLE AS A SUPERVISOR

The supervisor's style in supervisory relationship is warmth, friendly, empathy, and open communication. The supervisor knows what a supervisee need from his/her supervisor. In fact, to some extent, a supervisor may not always know the need of supervisee. Therefore, a supervisor have to be open to learning about or from his/her supervisee. That is what the supervisor gives to her supervisee. The supervisor does not want to be too rigid because it will gap the relationship with her supervisee. It does not mean the supervisor is not professional. The supervisor just wants her supervisee to feel comfortable when she works with her. At the same time, the supervisor's culture, which is one of the collective countries in Asia shapes the supervisor to be sharing and showing her understanding towards the supervisee. The supervisor always supports her supervisee by showing her empathy especially when the supervisee has problems with her site supervisor and her mentor. At the same time, the supervisor's style helps increase both relationship and develop the supervisee trust to the supervisor.

Open communication also creates positive atmosphere between the supervisor and supervisee. The supervisor believes that she is too firm or too rigid, it will cause the supervisee to be afraid of the supervisor rather than to respect the supervisor. The supervisor wants her supervisee to respect her not to be afraid to her. Sometimes, the supervisor offered direction to the supervisee when she struggled with her anxiety to conduct counseling session with clients or when the supervisee talking about her site supervisor and mentor. The supervisor has questioned the supervisee about the supervisee readiness to conduct counseling and talk to her client. One might see that the supervisor's style is clear and easy to follow by the supervisee.

3 RATING THE SUPERVISOR'S KNOWLEDGE AND SUPERVISION SKILLS

The supervisor would like to rate her knowledge and supervision skills in several domains; teaching skills, counseling skills, consultation skills, and research skills. In teaching skills, the supervisor has to be able to identify needs of supervisee, write learning goals and objectives, and give construction feedback to supervisee are at the expertise level. During the supervision hour, the supervisor also has evaluated the effectiveness of her supervisee and taught the supervisee to conduct effective session with the clients. However, the researcher found the lacking of the ability to devise instructional strategies to accomplish needs and learning style of supervisee, which is rated at the moderate level. The supervisor realizes that she has to work hard to increase her ability in that area. Counseling skills is the supervisors main concern rather than in any areas. The supervisor shows her expertise in the ability to develop rapport and working relationship with her supervisee. The supervisor also developed proficiency in facilitating skills such as warmth and empathy towards her supervisee. In reference to other counseling skills such as self-disclosure, ability to facilitate supervisee self-exploration of strengths and limitations, ability to help the supervisee explore feelings about supervision was at the expertise level. Consequently, the supervisor put rate herself at the below average level in helping her supervisee explore feeling of her client. The supervisor obtained low scoring because the supervisor did not know exactly about the supervisee's client.

In addition, the supervisor also lacks the knowledge in drug problems, which most of the clients at the supervisee's site have problems with. Hopefully, the supervisor will have a chance to increase her knowledge in drug issues among clients. In consultation skills, the ability to assess problem situation, ability to function in a more peer-like with supervisee, ability to encourage supervisee to make own decision, choices, take responsibility for decisions concerning clients, counseling and issue between supervisee with the supervisor and mentor at site were under above average level. In research skills ability, the supervisor writes case notes for her supervisee. However, the supervisee does not have the opportunity to evaluate audiotape and videotape, which by having that chance, the supervisor can help herself increase her skill to identify her supervisee work. As a peer supervisor, the supervisor also has the ability to express suggestions and opinions with respect, ability to receive feedback from peers, ability to critique peer counselor's work, which the supervisor place it at the above average level.

4 MULTICULTURAL COMPETENCY

The supervisor did not hesitate to say that the supervisor competent in multicultural context. The supervisor admits that because she has been in the United State since four years ago, so the supervisor can adjust herself with diversity environment. It is not difficult because Malaysia also rich with diversity. The supervisor enjoy learning about different culture. The supervisor loves all this cultural differences. In terms of supervisor relationship with her supervisee, the supervisor is so lucky because her supervisee is a Latina. The supervisor likes Hispanic people because she finds their cultures are almost similar especially about their family relationship and shyness. Some cultures think shyness is weak, but to some culture shy is one of the good behaviors. If you have a shy nature you can control yourself from doing something bad that may cause you and your family shame. It is also part of religion where the follower should feel shame to do bad behavior such as sex before marriage and talk bad about people. At the same time, the supervisor attended Spanish classes and still learn this language by herself. Spanish language even though it is different but it has a similar root with Bahasa Malaysia language which is the supervisor's original language. Because the supervisee is a Latina, the supervisor feel very comfortable with her. The supervisee's thinking style, behavior, and humbleness has really made the supervisor easy to work with her. The supervisor believes that the Hispanic culture shapes the supervisee's behavior and the way the supervisee is thinking. Maybe the supervisor is biased but the supervisor only telling what she really feels with her supervisee. Sharing about culture was one of the most fascinating experiences that the supervisor and supervisee ever had.

5 GREATEST SUCCESSES IN SUPERVISION AND PART THAT THE SUPERVISOR STRUGGLE WITH SUPERVISEE

The greatest success that the supervisor achieves in this supervisory relationship is that the supervisor was able to work with her supervisee effectively. The supervisor's supervision style helps their work more effective. Her supervisee also gives good cooperation to her supervisor in their relationship. Since the supervisor and the supervisee know each other in supervision setting, the supervisor knows about her supervisee's secret and she never tells anybody. The supervisor appreciates her and the supervisor will never share that secret with anybody and will keep the secret forever. However, there was a part that the supervisor struggles with which the supervisor sometimes felt that for some situation and problems, her supervisee needs her to make a decision for her. The supervisor cannot do that because it is not professional and also because the supervisor afraid if the supervisee will blame her if the result is not as she expected it.

6 THE STRENGTH AND LIMITATION AS A SUPERVISOR

The supervisor strength in this supervision experience was her empathy to her supervisee. The supervisor understood her problems with her supervisor and mentor. The supervisor knew her personal problem with her family, especially her mother. The limitation occurred when sometimes the supervisor was not sure whether or not she should teach the supervisee to do something or just give her clues to solve her problems. For example, sometimes it came to the supervisor that she wanted to ask her supervisee to be brave to talk to her mentor seriously about her dissatisfaction with the way her mentor treated her. By doing that the supervisor believes she will get more hours in individual counseling. But the supervisor realized that she will get in trouble if she informed her mentor that she was always disappointed with her.

7 FUTURE GOALS/GROWTH EDGES IN THE WORK AS A SUPERVISOR

In the future the supervisor hopes that she will increase her knowledge and expertise in supervision by consulting with an expert in this field and add more reading in this supervision. The supervisor will also give more attention to the research skill part to ensure her competency as a supervisor is balanced with other skills areas.

REFERENCES

Borders, L.D. & Leddick, G.R. (1987). *Handbook of Counseling Supervision.*

Alexandria, V.A. American Association for Counseling and Development.

Stoltenberg, C.D. & McNeil, B.W. (1997). Clinical supervision from a development perspectives: Research and practice. In C.E. Watkins (Eds.), *Handbook of psychotherapy supervision* (pp. 184–202). New York, NY: Wiley.

This page intentionally left blank

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

Asian supervisor-western supervisee: Personal approach to supervision

Noor Aishah Rosli
University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: This paper is about the supervision process between the Asian supervisor and a Western supervisee. In other words, this is a personal experience that was gained by the supervisor when she was working with her supervisee in the United States. The supervisor has gathered all of her experience to share it with the readers. To the supervisor, there is lack of article about sharing the supervision experience especially in cross cultural context. The paper will highlight about the setting up the supervision experience, ethical issues, contracting for supervision, evaluation, multicultural context of supervision, supervisory relationship, supervision technique, and theoretical approach. The supervisor also will discuss about her personal approach and experience in conducting supervision in the United States of America.

Keywords: supervisor; supervisee; multicultural; integrated developmental model; life-span development model; and cognitive behavior

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 *Setting up the supervision experience*

Personally, supervision is a clinical observation by someone who is an expert in specific knowledge towards someone who is in the beginning stage of the same field. Supervisee will practice the clinical skill with the aid of expert supervisor or mentor (Nasiff, Schulenberg, Hutzell, & Rogina, 2010). Supervising is not a new task to the supervisor since the supervisor already has the supervision experience in her original country, Malaysia. In Malaysia, the supervisor had supervised university students who were trained to be teachers in kindergarten and preschool. The supervisor also supervised counseling students that receive counseling training at the university counseling center, school, and hospital. From the supervisor's experience of supervision in the United Sates and Malaysia, there is no different in roles and functions of supervision between the two countries, except for the culture in which we practice supervision, which is different. The supervisor has a multiple role of function where supervisors can be a teacher, mentor, and also an evaluator (Pearson, 2006). The imperative role as a supervisor is monitoring clinical performance and professional development of supervisee. Then, from supervisee's performance, supervisors evaluate and then give feedback. Indeed, the supervisor's supervision experience in the United States and Malaysia is very interesting. In fact, in the United States, the supervisor has an opportunity to expose many things that she never knew, relating to many different personalities and cultural backgrounds of the supervisees and their uniqueness of handling tasks at the clinical setting.

2 ETHICAL ISSUES

In supervising, as a professional one should behave in a legal, ethical, and moral manner while conducting professional work (ACES, 2010). The supervisor always keeps in mind that there is a set of code of ethics to be followed. All aspects at the clinical setting is under certain code of conduct as listed in The American Psychological Association's (APA) Ethical Principles of Psychologist and Code of Conduct, The American Counseling Association Code of Ethics, and The American Counselor Education and Supervision Ethics Code. The supervisor is responsible to keep all of the supervisees' information confidential and supervisee's problem could not be discussed with other supervisee or subordinate. The supervisor will make her future supervisees aware of the ethical issues and code of ethics when meeting with the actual client. The supervisor will remind her future supervisee to read and understand the code of ethics. The supervisor will also review some aspects of the code of ethics with the future supervisee. This process is very important as guidance in psychology and counseling professional work. In the same line, future supervisees will be reminded that all the clinical work that they do is under a specific code of ethics. Confidentiality is the most important ethic which should be followed. Supervisees should be aware that they have

to protect the client's information and background. Normally, there will be a discussion between the supervisor and supervisee about client's issues. Therefore, the supervisor will remind the supervisee to inform his/her clients about the recording counseling session and also explain to the client that the session will be taped for educational purposes and will only be reviewed by the supervisor.

As a professional in a clinical setting, supervisory is under the Standard 1.22 Delegation and Supervision of Subordinates (ACES, 2010). According to this standard, psychologists/supervisors delegate to their employees, supervisees, and research assistants only those responsibilities that such persons can reasonably be expected to perform competently, on the basis of their education, training, or experience, either independently, or with the level of supervision being provided. Thus, supervisee is still developing his/her competency in clinical task, so the supervisee might harm the client without supervision. Therefore, the supervisor cannot let the supervisee do any clinical tasks without supervision present. Moreover, in ethical standard also mentions that the psychologists/supervisors should provide proper training and supervision to their employees or supervisees and take reasonable steps to see that such persons perform services responsibly, competently, and ethically. To develop competency in clinical work, the supervisor will teach supervisees how to handle clients and how to do proper documentation about client's information.

3 CONTRACTING FOR SUPERVISION

Informed consent is important to be prepared between supervisor and supervisee. It shows that the supervisor is willing to supervise and give his/her clinical feedback to the supervisee. In the inform consent it also states that the supervisor should meet regularly face to face with the supervisees. This is also one of the requirements that have been stated in the American Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES, 2010) ethical standard code. Supervisors should give verbal and written feedback and evaluation to the supervisees. This supervision is also an important part to the supervisee as it is part of the requirement of the state, and is especially necessary when the supervisee wants to apply for the licensure. Thus, the supervisor have prepared the inform consent documentation for her supervisee.

4 EVALUATION

A supervisor is an important person to the supervisee because supervisors will evaluate supervisees' clinical work including supervisee basic skills, ethical awareness and conduct, knowledge and learning, response and supervision and interaction with clients. In the American Psychological Association (2010) ethical code, there is a code of conduct under Standard 6.05 Assessing Student and Supervisee Performance. The Standard 6.05 Assessing Student and Supervisee Performance mention supervisory relationships and appropriate process for providing feedback to students and supervisees. Supervisee will be evaluated based on their actual performance.

When the supervisor does evaluations on her student-supervisee, the aspects that she will evaluate are; level of competency, level of self-confidence, and interaction with clients. These three aspects are more important to the supervisor to be highlighted to the beginner students in counseling. The supervisee that is discussed in this paper is the beginner student and this is her first experience doing counseling with actual clients. This is the time when the beginner student in counseling will develop his/her own identity as a counselor. Most likely student-supervisee will have difficulty during this new process. So, it is necessary for the supervisor to evaluate the student-supervisee/beginner students' weaknesses and strengths during each session. At the same time, the supervisor will emphasize the importance of clients' confidentiality. Confidentiality is a serious aspect and should be addressed to keep clienteles information secret and harmless. The supervisor met face to face with the supervisee during the evaluation. So that the supervisee will know her strengths and weaknesses.

5 DEVELOPING THE SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE

5.1 *Multicultural context of supervision*

Multicultural issue is part of counseling development. Supervisor and supervisee should have good understanding about multicultural issues at the clinical setting. Moreover, supervisor and supervisee should have discussion about multicultural issues, so that the supervisee will understand how culture influences his/her clinical practices (Hird, Cavalieri, Dulko, Felicia, & Ho, 2001). ACES counseling supervision Standard 4 (1990) addresses the knowledge and skills related to the supervisory relationship. Only one substandard of nine (Standard 4.1) directly addresses multicultural issues, noting the "supervisor demonstrates knowledge of individual differences with respect to gender, race, ethnicity, culture, and age and understands the importance of these characteristics in supervisory relationship" (p. 30). In other words, a supervisor should realize that he/she would be working with

different backgrounds and identities of supervisees; so, he/she should develop cultural competency and respect to people's differences. According to Inman (2006), when supervisees perceive that the supervisor is multicultural competent, they also will develop strong working alliance and feel satisfied working with the supervisor. When both parties have a clear understanding about multicultural issues, so that positive relationships will be built and sincere feedback and evaluation can be made between the supervisor and the supervisees.

The supervisor awareness of culture began when the supervisor came to the United States 3 years ago. A few minutes after she stepped into the first class in the United States, she began to see her own culture as very distinct. Before that, she simply regarded it as the way things are in life. In fact, when she was doing practicum, she was always having an open discussion with her supervisors about multicultural issues. As stated in Schroeder et al. (2009), less acculturated supervisees will have more discussion with their supervisor to develop more understanding and competance in multicultural issues. It is true. Culture is deeply embedded in us. It influences our thinking, our beliefs, and our actions whenever we go. Since the supervisor started pursuing study in the U.S., she has learned more and more about the challenges of cross-cultural interactions, especially in educational, clinical, and supervising settings. It was then that the implications of culture came into her awareness.

During the course of studying and practicing counseling psychology, the supervisor was somewhat confused by the drastic difference in values between her Malay-Eastern heritage and American-European Western traditions. For instance, understanding the meaning of self-concept in two cultures. The different emphasis on self-concept in these two cultures is dramatic; one emphasizes we-self and the other emphasizes I-self. Within Eastern culture, one's relationship to others or the community is considered important, whereas, within Western culture, one's autonomy is highly valued. Culture shapes much of our experiences of others and greatly affects our norms and expectations with regards to interpersonal behavior. As Estrella (2001) point out, "If culture influences the way we see ourselves, experience emotions, define health and problems, and construct our worldview, then clearly culture must come into play as we assess, diagnose, plan treatment, and engage with our clients" (p. 42). In other words, culture will affect and influence our judgment about something.

The supervisor feels curiosity about how others experience cross-cultural supervision increased greatly as the supervisor began to supervise master students with diverse cultural backgrounds. Many issues and questions arose. For instance, a Hmong student who expressed his opinion about his intervention in solving family problems is different with a Caucasian student when he/she relates to the norm of a family. When the supervisor heard the conversation, the supervisor had her own judgment in handling family problems, according to the supervisor own culture compared with both students. Therefore, it is important to supervisors to have cultural competence, so, there is no conflict occurring during the relationship with the supervisee. Personally, the supervisor was thinking that even though she is from a different culture and identity, in the supervisory task, she is always developing an intention to help her supervisee to be competent in their clinical work and respect their own differences.

The supervisor believes if any cultural differences exist between her and her supervisee and among other supervisees, she will be open and discuss it with them. Furthermore, supervisee satisfaction working with supervisor is related to degree of self-disclosure in the supervisory relationship and the perceived positive attitudes towards each other (Schroeder, Andrews, & Hindes, 2009). Therefore, there is not an issues in supervising supervisees from different cultures and values because the supervisor's task as a supervisor is still the same with her supervision task in Malaysia, where she gave genuine feedback and evaluation to her supervisees and made sure they developed competency in counseling skill. Consequently, both parties are avoided from any harm and stress. Needless to say, cultural misunderstandings between the supervisee and the supervisor can affect the dynamics of interpersonal relationship, especially in the beginning of the supervision.

Cultural differences in supervision could lead to ethical issues. Specifically, cultural differences can have a negative impact on the supervisee's self-esteem and self-confidence, which, in turn, can affect his/her effectiveness in working with clients. Ethical issues arise concerning verbal communication and nonverbal cues which vary depending upon the culture. It was stated that people were impacted by their individual social cultural beliefs, and as a result, developed their different viewpoint of life as well as social behavioral patterns (Huang & Chen, 2005). Hung and Chen (2005) pointed out that the characteristics of individual-centeredness, independent view of self, and self-contained individualism were used to describe Western culture, whereas, the traits of situation-centeredness, interdependent view of self, and ensemble individualism were used to specify Eastern culture. As a whole, the concept of individualism empathizing individual centeredness, individual right and welfare, individual competition, self-expression, and criticism and reform was used to describe Western

culture, especially the culture in the United States. The concept of collectivism that considers an individual as the one part of a group, in harmony within interpersonal relationship, social order and ethics was used to describe Eastern culture.

6 SUPERVISORY RELATIONSHIP

A strong working alliance is very important in supervision and it helps reducing ambiguity for supervisees (Schroeder et al. 2009). The supervisor found that it is quite intriguing to consider what is required of the student-supervisor relationship to ensure a satisfying outcome for both parties. The supervisor keenly observed and consciously noted how the supervisors at the practicum sites approached their supervisory relationships. The supervisor believes that understanding, professionalism, and dual communication between supervisors and supervisee will create good supervisory relationships.

The supervisor realizes that the supervisory process changes according to needs of the individual supervisory. Every supervisor has different visions and goals that underpin all aspects of the supervisory relationship. The supervisor thinks it is the quality of personal relationships that have become her own most cherished personal value. Since the supervisor supervised student in Malaysia and continue to supervise students every semester, the supervisor has witnessed many students show nervousness when they have to face with the actual clients. The supervisor always helps her supervisee to avoid this awful feeling. The supervisor wants her supervisees to know that someone cares and that she was there to help and guide them. The supervisor also wants the supervisee to realize that counseling is a challenging field but they have support system. The supervisor also wants her supervisees to know that someone is encouraging them to achieve what they initially did not know was possible and the supervisor wants them to comprehend that someone is encouraging them to seek excitement in doing the clinical work especially when meeting with clients. According to Nassif et al. (2010), supervisor should approach the supervisee with warmth and support. This characteristic will help the supervisees have confidence to develop their personal and professional growth in their career.

When the supervisor reflects on her own experience as a supervisee, the supervisor will ask this question to herself, "What were my needs as a student in being supervised?" and "Was I able to communicate these to my supervisor?" During the supervision, the supervisor has to imagine herself in her student's shoes. The supervisor was thinking what a supervisee wants and expects from his/her supervisor. The supervisor wants to be the best reference to her supervisee and knowledgeable in providing feedback to the supervisee. From the supervisor observation, most supervisees may seek subtle feedback concerning aspects of their counseling skills.

The supervisor believes that she can provide feedback to her supervisee and developing mechanism by which expectations of both can be regularly expressed in an honest and trustful feedback. The supervisor will initiate a strategy to resolve any problems that might occur. The supervisory process sometimes can be frustrating and emotional. Thus, it is important to supervisors to create a positive atmosphere in communication and giving feedback to the supervisees in order to avoid any fear and hesitation among supervisees.

7 CONDUCTING SUPERVISION

7.1 *Supervision technique*

Every supervisor develops his/her own unique technique and style of supervision. Supervision techniques should be focused in helping supervisee to understand their roles at the clinical settings. To the supervisor, she develops her supervision technique based from her experience in supervision in Malaysia.

Several techniques have been emphasized in her supervision process including live supervision, audiotape review, and video tape review case note review, and consultation during the session but out of the therapy room. In live supervision, the supervisor will listen to the supervisee. Being a good listener to supervisees is important to understand what supervisees seek in the counseling process. This does not always respond directly to supervisees' questions. Let the supervisee think what he/she should do in certain conditions when with a client. Let them decide what they will do and will not do. Taking notes is also important especially when doing direct supervision with the supervisee. So, after the session the supervisor can discuss it with the supervisee about any concerns during the session. Once the session is finished, then the supervisor will give feedback during face to face supervision. It is very important to the supervisor to give feedback about the areas that the supervisees should improve. The strengths of the supervisee should also be mentioned in the face to face supervision. This is done so that the supervisee will have a chance to see which areas he/she has to improve in and which areas they have to maintain competency. The using of video and audiotape recorder in counseling sessions is also important as a tool to identify weaknesses and strengths of the

supervisee in the counseling session. So that supervisor and supervisee will have the opportunity to discuss it and improve any area that is needed.

Among all technique that the researcher mentioned above, there is a technique which the researcher thinks as a basic technique to all of the technique above. Cognitive Behavioral technique is imperative in supervisory process especially to the beginner counseling student. This technique may help them change their view about counseling process. According to Flitch and Marshall (2002), cognitive behavioral technique is able to minimize supervisees' anxiety. Moreover, cognitive technique is a tool to facilitate supervisee development (Kindsvatter, Granello & Duba, 2008). According to Kindsvatter, Granello and Duba, (2008), there are three phases of cognitive technique. There are socialization, focus, and modification phases. In socialization phases there is thinking and share, in which the supervisor will ask supervisee to focus on his or her thinking and share his or her problem in supervision. Focus phase explains about the supervisee's focus on his or her own experience, emotion, and thought, and shares it with supervisor. It is important to reduce any confusion that the supervisee going through. In the modification phase, supervisor and supervisee will identify a specific thought or feeling and develops a plan to modify that thought or feeling. To the supervisor, cognitive behavioral technique is a solid technique that the supervisor already uses and will continue to use in the future. In other words, cognitive behavioral technique also encourages the supervisor and supervisee to develop a two way communication, which it really helps to eliminate any ambiguity between both parties.

8 THEORETICAL APPROACHES

At the beginning of the supervisor exposure to supervision, the supervisor had no specific theoretical framework when she supervised the students in Malaysia. Her approach in supervising was rather ad hoc, and lacking a firm theoretical framework. Developing such a framework for the supervision relationship was a challenging but rewarding experience that enabled the supervisor to better understand how one can learn. The supervisor style changed when she starting supervising master student in the U. S., where she develops a loose framework that she uses to guide student and herself in doing the clinical setting. The supervisor plan on further developing her own theoretical framework in supervising after the supervisor exposed to different models of supervision.

The supervisors are very interested in two theoretical approaches that she uses as her basis to theoretical orientation in supervision. The two approaches are Life-Span Developmental Model by Skovholt and Ronnestad (1992) and Integrated Developmental Model (IDM) by Stoltenberg (1981). The Life—Span Developmental model is based on a longitudinal qualitative study conducted by interviewing a 100 counselors/therapist, ranging in experience (at the beginning of the study) from graduate students to professionals with an average of 25 years of experience (Skovholt & Ronnestad, 1992). The supervisor really likes this model because it is simple model and the only model, which emphasizes that counselor/therapist development is a complex process requiring constants reflection. In fact, a supervisor will have an idea about the transition that would experience from one stage to another stage of supervisory process which will prepare the supervisors to be more competent in clinical work and prepare for the future.

The IDM developed by Stoltenberg stresses the need for the supervisor to utilize skills and approaches that correspond to the level of supervisee. So, for example, when working with a level-1 supervisee, the supervisor needs to balance the supervisee's high anxiety and dependence by being supportive and prescriptive. The same supervisor when supervising a level-3 supervisee would emphasize supervisee autonomy and engage in collegial challenging. For the supervisor, the IDM was developed as the fundamental orientation to guide supervisee in clinical setting. According to Nelson, Johnson, & Thorngren (2000), the Integrated Developmental model is beneficial to the practicum student because it focuses on supervisor role in helping the supervisee need.

9 CONCLUSION

The supervisor will continue to develop effective strategies to help her supervision. Through reflection on her own experiences, she believes her supervision skills are becoming more effective and productive. The supervisor hopes she will be a good supervisor in accomplishing supervision goal and would be valuable to her supervisee in their process of developing competency in counseling.

REFERENCES

Bradt, J. (1997). Ethical issues in multicultural counseling: Implications for the field of music therapy. *Arts in psychotherapy*, 24(2), 137–143.

Estrella, K. (2001). *Multicultural approaches to music therapy supervision*. In M. Forinash (ED),

Music therapy supervision, (pp. 39–66). Gilsum, NH: Barcelona Publishers.

Fitch, T.J. & Marshall, J.L. (2002). Using cognitive interventions with counseling practicum students during group supervision. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, 41, 335–342.

Hird, J.S. Cavalieri, C.E., Dulko, J.P. Felice, A.A., & Ho, T.A. (2001). Vision and realities: Supervisee prospective of multicultural supervision. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*, 29, 114–128

Hung, L.C., & Chen, P.H (2005). Cultural shock in counseling: the experience of Taiwanese counselor. *Bulletin of Educational Psychology*, 37(1), 79–98.

Inman, A.G. (2006). Supervisor multicultural competence and its relation to supervision process and outcome. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy*, 32, 73–85.

Kindsvatter, A, Granello, D.H & Dub, J. (2008). *Counselor Education and Supervision*, 473, 179–192.

Nassif, C., Schulenberg, S.E Hutzell, R.R & Rogina, J.M. (2010). Clinical supervision and logotheraphy: Discovery meaning in the supervisory relationship. *Journal of Contemporary Psychotherapy*, 40, 21–29.

Nelson, M.D. Johnson, P. Thorngren, J.M. (2000) Integrated approach for supervising mental health counseling interns. J*ournal of Mental Health Counseling*, 22(1), 45–59.

Pearson, Q.M. (2006). Psychotherapy-driven supervision: Integrated counseling theories into role-based supervision. *Journal of Mental Health Counseling*, 28, 241–252.

Schroeder, M., Andrews, J.J.W., & Hindes, Y.L. (2009). Cross racial supervision: Critical issues in the supervisory relationship. *Canadian Journal of Counseling*, 433(4), 295–310.

The American Psychological Association. Retrieved, December 4, 2010 from http://www.apa.org/ethics/code/index.aspx.

The American Counselor Education and Supervision. Retrieved, December 4, 2010 from http://www.acesonline.net.

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

Parental involvement in students' academic achievement: A preliminary study

Jamuna Kandasamy, Fonny Hutagalung, Mohd Rushdan Abdul Razak & Zulkifli Md Isa
University of Malaya, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: The objective of this research is to provide information on what teachers think regarding parents playing a role in educating their children, to find out the teachers' perception and parents' response on how much time is spent by the parents in helping their children academically and to finding out how the teachers of this school perceive parental help in assisting them (the teachers) improve the students academically. The research method used for this study is the quantitative method involving both parents and teachers. The quantitative method uses a questionnaire which will be distributed to 150 respondents in schools of similar academic performance. The questionnaire for this research was adapted by using this questionnaire from Teachers Involving Parents (TIP) in service program, as reported Hoover-Dempsey, Walker, Jones & Reed (2002) and Teacher Beliefs About Parental Involvement: reported in Hoover-Dempsey et al. (2002); adapted from Epstein, Salinas & Horsey, 1994.

Keywords: parental involvement; academic achievement

1 INTRODUCTION

In today's world, education is very vital and almost every parent's wish is to ensure their off-springs excel in their education. As early as the 1980s, parental involvement in schools has somehow become a core educational issue. Various concerned parties began to show concern about the quality of education received by their children. According to Cotton (2009), parents want their children to get adequate knowledge to lead successful future lives.

Parents, being the locus of a family, play an important role in the social and cognitive development of their child. Basically, by placing high expectations on their child, they try very much to meet their child's needs and demands throughout the process of development. Needless to say, parents also place great importance on their child's academic achievement as well and this phenomena is not something new (Miretzky, 2004).

Parental involvement in the lives of children is definitely not a new concept. For decades, there have been countless opinions regarding parental involvement and today in the 21st century, proactive parents are considered to be a vital component of education by all—meaning the teachers, administrators and society. The importance of parental involvement in schools is well documented with over 30 years of research which showed that one of the most effective approaches to enhance student achievement is for parents to be actively involved in the education of their children (Judith, 2004).

In short, it clearly shows that there are needs to study the relationship between the parental involvement in children's school work and children's academic success. The reason being the western countries such as America and Britain already have research that shows positive effect of parental involvement towards students' academic achievement (Henderson & Berla, 1994). Based on this, studies on this issue need to be carried out in Malaysia, as Malaysia is a developing nation and parents are still unclear of their role in involving themselves in guiding their children academically. Majority of the Malaysian parents mostly have minimum level of involvement. A lot of parents in Malaysia place the responsibility to teach their children upon the teachers. On top of that, Malaysian parents feel that by sending their children to school and providing them with pocket money is enough to make them believe that they have fulfilled their duty and responsibility as parents (Kertas Kerja Kajian Sistem Pendidikan Kebangsaan, 2005). The objective of this research is to provide information on what teachers think regarding parents playing a role in educating their children and also to find out the teacher's perception and parents' response on how much time is spent by the parents in helping their children academically. Besides that,

this research also to find out how the teachers perceive parental help in assisting them (the teachers) improve academically.

2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Both school and home are traditionally seen as two differing systems with roles and responsibilities which are totally different in educating children (Marti & The Conjoint Behavioral Consultation (CBC) Research Group, 2000). It is a totally different scenario now as schools cannot exist independently because it involves many parties which include students, teachers, parents and last but not least society. Hence, both these two institutions should collaboratively work hand—in—hand in ensuring the students get the best deal in education.

Our former Education Minister, Dato' Seri Hishamuddin Tun Hussein Onn (2004), has stated that there has to be cooperation between the three main parties that is parents, school and society in handling the discipline problem which is drastically on the rise. Apart from helping to curb discipline problem, parents can play an effective role in increasing the academic achievement of students (Rosenthal & Sawyers, 2006). They also found that by working together, both parents and teachers can achieve positive results rather than working alone.

Parental involvement should not only be confined to Parent/Teachers Association or also known as PTA activities but also be invited to involve themselves in classroom activities if they are able to do so. The school sector (Bahagian Sekolah) of the Ministry of Education in Malaysia (2008) reported that more than 95.000 primary school students had problems in reading, writing and counting which the basic skills a child should have. This problem might be able to be solved if the school allows parents to be involved. In the West, importance is given to children even in the kindergarten level where parents are much involved. Nord (2001) says children benefit a lot if parents are involved in their education from the beginning. This includes academic benefits where children are able to read, write and count fast if the parents are very active in school programs (Faires et al., 2000)

Razi (1998) in his study finds that parental involvement in Malaysian schools is given less emphasis as schools are regarded as exclusive domains which are solely under the teachers' jurisdiction. Many Malaysian parents still entrust the responsibility of educating their children wholly to the school authorities without realizing the importance of their presence in aiding the school achieve their objectives, mainly academically. Hence, there is a large number of parents who are still in the dark about how they can be involved in school activities (Razak, 2002).

The most accurate predictor of the students' achievement in school is not the income or the social status, but the extent to which families are able to create a home environment that supports learning, communicates high and reasonable expectations for their children's achievement and becomes involved in their children's school (Henderson and Berla (1994), Thus, parental involvement is very essential in the children's educational and academic success.

However, it is still a sad situation in Malaysia, as parental involvement in children's education is still at the minimum level. A lot of parents almost fully trust and place the responsibility to teach their children and ensure their children's education upon the teachers. Besides that, they think that by sending their children to school and providing money when needed is enough to make them believe that they have fulfilled their responsibilities as parents. (Kertas Kerja Kajian Sistem Pendidikan Kebangsaan, 2005).

Furthermore, according to Faridah et al. (2005), in Malaysia, the reason why the students' results are poor is because of their parents and families who give less support in their education, lack of supervision in the students' improvement in schools, not checking the students' homework and pass the hassle of assisting the children's homework to the older siblings. Therefore, it is clearly showed that parental involvement plays an important role in the children's education and Malaysian's parental involvement in children's education still needs to be improved.

Hence, parental involvement has become a core issue when we talk about education as a whole. In Malaysia, education is of utmost importance as it is a developing country which needs high caliber human capital to push forth the development of the country. This is where the parents' role come in. Parents now besides being the breadwinners have to play the role of educators as well and this task cannot be pushed to other parties for example grandparents, uncles, aunties, babysitters or most importantly, the maids. Hence parental guidance is the crux of this matter as it is widely believed that with strong support from their parents, children will be heading in the right direction academically, socially and psychologically. Based on this fact, there is a crucial need for further research to be done to raise the awareness among the teachers, parents, students and community as a whole on the importance of the students' outcome based on the the role parents play.

However, far too little attention has been paid to the issue of parental involvement as major factor to student's achievement especially in the lower secondary level in our country. To be more specific, there has been very little research on educa-

tional issues among the various ethnic groups. In fact, the emphasis on Malaysian students and their academic achievement can only be seen in small areas of research. Thus, more research on this aspect has to be conducted on the role parents play on the welfare of students and their achievement in education. This research is hoped to enlighten teachers and parents generally on the fact that they can work collaboratively in aiding the students to be the best academically, socially and emotionally. Teachers are still unaware that parents can play a positive role in aiding them to educate the students. On the other hand, parents are still in the dark as to how they can partake in helping their children do academically better (Razak, 2005).

This study aims to ascertain and highlight the limited parental participation in specific parent related activities pertaining to their children's achievement. In addition, it will also delve into teachers' perception towards parental role in educating and grooming their children towards good academic achievement. Hence, this chapter reviews the literature revolving parental involvement. In accordance/sync with this, parental involvement' concept will be defined and studies related to the effectiveness and varying ways of parental involvement will be examined.

This particular topic has received much attention in recent decades as numerous school-improvement efforts have sought to improve student learning. Many researches have reported that parental involvement, including involvement in student homework, is related to student achievement and personal attributes conducive to achievement (e.g., self-regulation, perceptions of academic competence Delgado-Gaitan, 1992; Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994; Xu & Corno, 1998).

Parent involvement at home is often more difficult to understand but is defined as "parents initiating learning activities at home to improve their children's performance in school" (Tinkler, 2002, p.6). It includes parents helping with homework, discussing school with their child, playing games, reading with their child, going to the library, visiting a museum, and getting their child to help with cooking, sharing the day-to-day events, to name a few (Tinkler, 2002).

It is a known fact that parental involvement is a valuable component of any student's education and it is a well-established phenomenon that parental involvement is linked to children's success at school. When parents are involved in their children's education at home, they do better in school. (Henderson and Berla, 1999). The level of parent–school involvement is a better predictor of grades than are standardized test scores. (Desimone, 1999).

This study aims to find out what the teachers perceive of the parental involvement in students' academic achievement in this particular school. It hopes to provide information about the role parents play in educating their children academically. Throughout this research, a lot of benefits had been figured out for the students of this school. Parental guidance does not only help the students emotionally, it also helps them perform better in their studies, thus enhancing their academic results. Academic achievement is of importance to students as their tertiary education depends on their school academic results "Students are more excellent in school when their parents get engaged in their education at home.' The children go further in school and the school they go to are better when parents get involved in school". A New Generation of Evidence: The Family is Critical to Student Achievement (Henderson & Berla, 1994). The importance of parental involvement in schools is well documented with over 30 years of research which showed that one of the most effective approaches to enhance student achievement is for parents to be actively involved in the education of their children (Judith, 2004).

This particular topic has received much attention in recent decades as numerous school-improvement efforts have sought to improve student learning. Many researches have reported that parental involvement, including involvement in student homework, is related to student achievement and personal attributes conducive to achievement (e.g., self-regulation, perceptions of academic competence Delgado-Gaitan, 1992; Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994; Xu & Corno, 1998).

In general, parental involvement is defined by two categories that is parental involvement at home and parental involvement at school (Sheldon, 2002). Parent involvement at school is defined as activities done at school or for school such as parent teacher conferences, communicating with the teacher, attending PTA meetings and volunteering at school (Hill & Taylor, 2004).

Why do parents need to be involved in children's homework? The three major reasons are they believe that their involvement will make a positive difference, and they perceive invitations to involvement (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997). Parents appear to become involved in their children's homework also because they believe their activities will make a positive difference for the child (e.g., Bandura, 1997; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). Self-efficacy theory suggests that parents' behavioral choices are guided in part by the outcomes they expect to follow their actions; the stronger the perceived self-efficacy for a task (e.g., helping with homework), the higher the goals they are likely to achieve and the greater the persistence they are likely to exhibit in reaching those goals (Bandura, 1997).

Parental involvement in their child's education has been linked to increased levels of academic performance in the classroom (Angelides, Theophanous, & Leigh, 2006; Bobetsky, 2003; Christenson & Hurley, 1997; Epstein, 1995; Fantuzzo, McWayne, & Perry, 2004; Watkins, 1997; Parker, Boak, Griffin, Ripple, & Peay, 1999; Patrikakou, 1997, 2004). According to Patrikakou (2004), increased levels of parental expectations for high academic achievement led to increased student achievement, as well as an increase in the amount of time spent completing homework outside of the classroom

Monitoring children's homework has been shown to enhance academic achievement (Ballen & Moles, 1994). It is unnecessary for the parents to know all of the answers. Instead, it is far more essential for them to express their interest by providing a quiet and comfortable place for their children to do the homework, by encouraging children's efforts, by being available for questions, and by willing to discuss material the child is learning (Ballen & Moles, 1994). Furthermore, according to Reinsch and Wambsganss (1994) in Patel (2006), current research indicates that homework completion has a positive effect on students' progresses in class. Looking more closely at this research, there are strong indications that portray the most effective forms of parent's involvement as those which engage the parents to work directly with their children in learning activities in the home. Programs which involve parents in readings with their children, supporting their work on homework assignments, or guiding them using materials and instructions provided by teachers, resulted in noticeable and impressive results.

According to Beavers and Dewberry (2002), most students believe that their parents are at least somewhat involved, but do not want them to become more involved. However, according to Bargheto and Ronald (2001) in Beavers and Dewberry (2002), stated "students do not want parents that are 'always around' but take comfort in the fact that their parents are 'always around' is but one paradoxical and often tumultuous landscape that is middle school." For students that are in this confusing and difficult stage in their development, parents are needed more than ever.

Studies find that children do better in school when their parents set aside time each day for their children to study. High but realistic standards set for the children positively lead them in the right direction. Parents of good learners also place importance on verbal interaction; they question their children to prompt further thought and expression, they challenge them to use new words, and they expect them to speak with precision. Families with high expectations for their children's school academic performance also provide consistent guidance and support for schooling. They are aware of their children's progress and interested in the academic route their children need to follow.

Also researchers find that a strong work ethic contributes to success in school. Also important is a family attitude that accomplishments result from effort rather than innate ability or 'playing the system'. Further, on the social level, children benefit when their parents are attentive to their whereabouts, know their friends, monitor their tele viewing, and maintain contact with their teachers. It has been increasingly recognized in the fields of education and psychology that parents have significant impacts on students' learning and developmental processes.

3 RESEARCH METHODS

The research design used for this study is the quantitative method involving both parents and teachers. The quantitative method uses a questionnaire which will be distributed to 150 respondents in schools of similar academic performance. The respondents will be given a grace period of two weeks to give their response. Triangulation, on the other hand, will include interviewing parents and students respectively. In this study, the manipulated variable is parental involvement and the dependent variable is the achievement of the students.

4 PILOT STUDY

This pilot study was carried out in September 2014 and the sample of the study were teachers of one school in Subang Jaya District, Kuala Lumpur. The samples were 30 teachers inclusive of both genders, ranging from the age group of 25 to 60 years old. They were also a mix of different ethnic groups mainly Malay, Chinese and Indians. These subjects were selected as they are from the same school and the retrieving of the questionnaires will be easily handled.

The group of teachers selected also in Subang Jaya District, Kuala Lumpur where the researcher is attached to as an English teacher and has been there for the past twelve years. This group of teachers consists of 6 males and 24 females Besides teachers, the respondents also include parents and guardians of Form 2 students of this particular school.

5 SUMMARY

Parents, being the locus of a family, play an important role in the social and cognitive development of their child. Basically, by placing high expectations on their child, they try very much to meet their child's needs and demands throughout the process of development.

REFERENCES

Desimone, L. (1999). Linking parent involvement with student achievement: Do race and income matter? *The Journal of Educational Research.* 93(1), 11–29.

Epstein, J. L. (1995). School, family, community partnerships: Caring for the children we share. *Kappan, May* 701–712.

Epstein, J. (2001). *School, family, and community partnership: Preparing educators and improving schools.* Boulder, CO: Westview.

Epstein, J., Sanders, M., Simon, B., Salinas, K., Jansorn, N., & Van Voorhis, F. (2002–2009). *School, family, and community partnerships: Your handbook for action*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Epstein, J. (2005). A case study of the partnership schools: Comprehensive school reform model. *The Elementary School Journal,* (106), 150–170.

Heath, S. B., & McLaughlin, M. W. (1987). A child resource policy: Moving beyond dependence on school and family. *Phi Delta Kappan,* (68), 576–580.

Henderson, A. J., & Mapp, K. L. (2002). A new wave of evidence: The impact of school, family, and community connections on student achievement. *Southwest Educational Development Lab.,* Austin, TX. Hettleman, K. (2003).

Mapp, K. L., & Henderson, A. J. (2002). A new wave of evidence: The impact of school, family, and community connections on student achievement. *Southwest Educational Development Lab.,* Austin, TX

Sanders, M. (2001). The role of "community" in comprehensive school, family, and Community partnership programs. *The Elementary School Journal,* 102(1), 19–40.

Sheldon, S. (2003). Linking school, family, community partnerships in urban elementary schools to student achievement on state tests. *The Urban Review,* 35(2), 149–164.

This page intentionally left blank

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

Approaches and models of behaviour management in classroom

Che'Mah Yusof, M.N. Mariani & S. Hafiza
Department of Psychology and Counselling, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: Classroom is a common living environment where educational activities take place. Classroom management is the most important activity for a teacher beside teaching and learning proses. This article describes the approaches and models of Behaviour Management in Classroom. Behaviour management in classroom approach was divided into 3 categories, which is Interventionist, Non—interventionist and Interactionalist. Interventionist approach believes that students learn appropriate behaviour when getting reinforcement from teachers through reward or punishment. Meanwhile Non-Interventionist approach emphasizes that students have born with an inner drive to explore the real world. According to this theory, students should be allowed to influence the situation in the classroom, and teachers are less involved in the adaptive behaviour of students. Interactionalist approach focuses on what can be done by a person to change the environment, as the environment can influence the formation of individual self. This approach strives to find solutions to meet the needs of teachers and students. These models of behaviour and classroom management can be applied by teachers to manage, control, and predict the behaviour of students in the classroom.

Keywords: classroom management; interventionist; non-interventionist; interactionalist

1 INTRODUCTUON

Classroom is a common living environment where educational activities take place. While classroom management is a term that is synonymous with the task of teaching in the classroom. Most of students' and teachers' time passes through this common living environment everyday (Ahmed & Burhanettin, 2010). Classroom management is the most important activity for teachers. Teaching and learning will not occur if the classroom is not managed properly (Mazano, 2003; Kemal, 2009). Teachers are responsible for educating students in the classroom either in academic or socio-emotional aspects of the individual. But one of the most neglected aspects of a teacher's instructional practice is classroom management, despite the fact that classroom management is one of the most prominent aspects of instructional quality (Kunter, Baumert & Köller, 2007; Tanner, Hannah. Sung, & Williams, 2014).

Classroom management involves many aspects: the management of space, time, activities, materials, social relations, and behaviour of students (Gordana & Snezana, 2011). Concern with classroom management tends to be universal despite variations in practice stemming from societal norms in human relationships that influence student and teacher interactions (Shin & Koh, 2008; Balli, 2011).

2 CONCEPT OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The researchers generally define classroom management as various efforts made by teachers to ensure that all activities in the classroom run smoothly, including the process of learning, social interaction and behaviour of students. (Burden, 2005; Good & Brophy, 2006). Doyle (2006) adds classroom management encompasses attitudes and behaviour of teachers that can influence students' behaviour. Brophy, (1986) also defined classroom management all the efforts of teachers to create and maintain the classroom as an effective environment for teaching and learning. Classroom management also refers to all the activities that are very important to create and maintain a supportive and structured environment. It includes the planning and provision of teaching and learning materials, organization of materials, furnishing of classrooms, establishing expectations and the establishment and enforcement of rules and routines in the classroom (Tan et al., 2003).

Savage & Savage (2009) states that classroom management can be divided into two stages, which is; a) to prevent the problem, b) to act when problems arise. Action to prevent the problem from occurring is over emphasized because previous studies showed that one of the variables that

influenced successful classroom management is action to prevent problems from occurring, rather than reactive action, or action after a problem occurs. (Emmer & Stough, 2001). Unfortunately, teachers continue to report that classroom management is one of their most greatest and widespread challenges task in classroom (Manning and Bucher, 2007; Smith & Smith, 2006; Sokal, Smith, & Mowat, 2003).

Historically, classroom management was conceptualized almost exclusively as a teachers' response to student misconduct rather than proactive encouragement of teacher to students' initiative and thinking (McCaslin & Good, 1992, Tanner, et al, 2014).

3 BEHAVIOUR PROBLEMS IN THE CLASSROOM

Behaviour and discipline problems in the classroom is a problem that has existed for decades and it will never end. Rose & Gallup (2000), stated that behaviour and discipline among students is a serious problem. Students' behaviour problems in the classroom is the primary source of stress and could cause burn out for both beginning teachers and experienced teachers. (Blankenship, 1988; Borg; 1990; Griffith, Steptoe, & Cropley, 1999; Martin, Linfoot, & Stephenson, 1999; Forlin, 2001; Hasting, & Bham, 2003; Evers, Tomica, & Brouwers, 2004; Head, 2005; Friedman, 2006). Behaviour problems such as not paying attention to the teacher, shouting, disturbing other students and did not comply with the instruction, that often occur and have been reported in the classroom (Merrett & Wheldall, 1984).

Many different behavioural problems that have been enumerated in different studies such as interfering in the classroom, talking with friends during class, late arrival, failure to do homework, defiance, disobedience, physical and verbal aggression, threats, screaming, inappropriate gestures, vandalisme, moving without permission, speak loudly, not abide the rules, tantrums without provocation, impulsiveness, hitting, biting, or scratching others, or throwing objects, so that they made physical contact with others (DuPaul & Hoff, 1998;; Erford, 1998; Herschell, Greco, Filcheck, & McNeil, 2002; Nelson, 1996; Magee & Ellis 2001; Esturgo-Deu & Sala-Roca, 2010). Students that displaying behavioural problems in the school setting will negatively impact to the academic and social climate of the classroom (Cullinan, Evans, Epstein, & Ryser, 2003; Lane, Little, Menzies, Lambert, & Wehby, 2010; McEvoy & Welker, 2000). Nelson (1996) indicates, behavioural problems not only result in stress among teachers, but also affect the success of academic, vocational and students' skills, personal motivation and leading to a failure to adapt to the school environment. Some teachers will facing problems to build trust and interpersonal relationship with disruptive pupils (Munn & Lloyd, 2005).

Teachers reported that they spent a lot of time to manage and control the behaviour of students in the classroom compared to the time spent in teaching and academic activities (Cains & Brown, 1996; Giallo & Little, 2003). Failure to handle behaviour problems and discipline in the classroom will disrupt the classroom environment and academic activities also will be interrupted. Therefore, subject content cannot be delivered to students and the teachers' power will be decreased. This will cause the other students will not have the opportunity to learn (Blankenship, 1988; Cains & Brown, 1996; Cartledge & Johnson, 1996; Fields, 1999). Studies on the goals of classroom management found that classroom management strategies have serious impact on the orientation and behaviour of students. Some of the research finding indicated that there are positive correlations between teachers' effective classroom management with students' achievement (Marzano, Marzano & Pickering, 2003; McGarity & Butts, 2006). This means that the teachers' mistakes in managing students' behaviour can influence students' attitudes towards learning in the classroom. Therefore, classrooms with frequent disruptive behaviour have less academic engaged time, and the students in disruptive classrooms tend to have lower grades and do poorer on standardized tests (Shinn, Ramsey, Walker, Stieber, & O'Neill, 1987). Furthermore, attempts to control disruptive behaviour costly, considerable teacher time at the expense of academic instruction.

4 MODEL AND APPROACH BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT IN CLASSROOM

Accordingly, educationalists and psychologists have proposed many theories and models of students' behaviour management in the classroom. Glickman and Tamashiro (1980) and Wolfgang & Glickman, (1995) have categorized the theoretical framework of classroom management approaches into three categories; Interventionist, Non—interventionist and interactionalist. Researchers also studied various trends and variables associated with teachers' situation tendency to behave as intervention, non-interventionist, or interactionalist (Henson, 2001; Martin & Baldwin, 1994; Martin & Shoho, 2000; Martin, Yin, & Baldwin, 1998; Janice & Dawson, 2007).

4.1 *Interventionist approach*

Interventionist approach believes that students learn the appropriate behaviour when getting reinforcement from teachers, through reward or punishment (Ritter & Hancock, 2007; Janice & Dawson, 2007). lnterventionist approach emphasizes high control approach to students' behaviour and discipline in the classroom. This theory asserts that the teacher is responsible for controlling the behaviour of students by establishing rules and routines in the classroom. Therefore, this approach emphasizes teacher-centred orientation and the tendency of teachers to control the situation by implementing immediate discipline and control the behavior of students (Witcher, Jiao, Onwuegbuzie, Collins, James, & Minor, 2002).

Teachers who use this approach will be more focused on the formation of students' behaviour, lack of attention to the differences in each individual student. In order to control the behaviour of students, teachers will use reinforcement techniques such as giving gifts, rewards, praise, token economy or a smile. Instead, teachers will also use the punishment technique to remove the undesirable behaviour.

Among classroom management models associated with this approach is Behaviour Modification Model by BF Skinner (1904–1990), Assertive Discipline Model by Canter & Canter (1976), Positive Discipline Model by Jones (1987), Teaching Management Theory by Kounin (1970).

4.2 *Non—Interventionist approach*

Meanwhile, Non-Interventionist Approach stressed that students have an inner drive to explore the real world. According to this theory, students should be allowed to influence the situation in the classroom, and teachers are less involved in the adaptive behaviour of students (Ritter & Hancock, 2007). This approach assumes that the student should be given the power to manage their classroom and teachers' power at very minimum level (Witcher et al, 2002). Burden (1995) asserts that children have the internal potential and are able to make decisions for self-development.

According to Kohn (1996), disciplined approach aims to enable students to socialize and how they can build their values. In addition, students are taught to work with other partners and the confidence to act in accordance with the values that they choose. Among of the models of classroom management that are used in this approach are Communication Congruence Model (Congruent Communication) by Haim Ginot, (1969), Model Discipline Self Control (Self Discipline) by Thomas Gordon (1974) and Internal Discipline (*Inner Discipline*) by Barbara Coloroso (1994).

4.3 *Interactionist approach*

Interactionist approach focuses on what can be done by a person to change the environment, as the environment can influence the formation of self. This theory strives to find solutions to meet the needs of teachers and students. It also emphasizes that teachers and students have to share power in the classroom. Teachers can create rules and regulation in the classroom, besides taking into account the views and ideas of students. In the early stages of this approach, it focuses on the behaviour, then followed with thoughts and feelings. This approach focuses on the medium of individual differences. While teachers allow students to control their behaviour, but at the same time teachers also still protecting the interests of the group. Among psychologists who pioneered this approach is the Democratic Teaching Model by Rudolf Dreikus (1897–1972), Reality Therapy Model by William Glasser (1965) and Judicious Discipline by Forrest Gathercoal.

5 SUMMARY

Historically, classroom management was conceptualized almost exclusively as a teachers' response to student misconduct rather than proactive encouragement of teacher to students' initiative and thinking (McCaslin & Good, 1992, Tanner, et al., 2014).

REFERENCES

Ahmet Kaya & Burhanettin Dönmez, (2010). A comparison of the classroom management approaches of the teachers implementing "Constructivist Learning Approach" and not implementing this approach. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences,* 2, 1820–1824.

Beaman, R., & Wheldall, K. (2000). Teachers' use of approval and disapproval in the classroom. *Educational Psychology*, *20*(4), 431–46.

Blankenship, C. (1988). Structuring the classroom for success. *Australian Journal of Special Education, 12*, 25–30.

Borg, W. R. and Gall, M. D. (1989) *Educational Research: an introduction*. New York: Longman.

Brophy, J. (1986). *Classroom management techniques.* Education and Urban Society, 18(2), 182–194.

Burden, P. R. (1995). *Classroom management and discipline.* New York, Longman—White Plains.

Burden, P. R. (2005). *Powerful classroom management strategies: Motivating students to learn*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Cains, R.A., & Brown, C.R. (1996). Newly qualified teachers: a comparative analysis of the perceptions held by B.Ed. and PGCE-trained primary teachers of their training routes. *Educational Psychology*, 16, 257–270.

Cartledge, G., & Johnson, C. T. (1996). Inclusive classrooms for students with emotional and behavioural disorders: Critical variables. *Theory Into Practice, 35,* 51–57.

Cavanaugh, Brian. (2013). Performance Feedback and Teachers' Use of Praise and Opportunities to Respond: A Review of the Literature, *Education And Treatment Of Children*, 36 (1), 111–137.

Clark, D. (2003). Developing observation strategies to enhance teaching effectiveness in the dance class. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance*, 74(9), 33–47

Coloroso, B (1994). Kids are worth it: Giving your child the gift of inner Discipline. New York: Morrow in Manning, M.L. & Butcher, K.T. (2007). *Classroom management: Model, application dan Cases*, New Jersey, Prentice Hall

Coloroso, B. (2002). *The Bully, the bullied, and the bystander*. New York: Harper-Resource.

Cullinan, D., Evans, C., Epstein, M. H., & Ryser, G. (2003). Characteristics of emotional and disturbance of elementary school students. *Behavioral Disorders*, 28, 94–110.

Daniel, M. Maggin, Sandra M. Chafouleas, Katelyn M. Goddard, & Austin H. Johnson. (2011). A systematic evaluation of token economies as a classroom management tool for students with challenging behavior, *Journal of School Psychology*, 49, 529–554.

Demanet, J., & Van Houtte, M. (2011a). School belonging and school misconduct: the differing role of teacher and peer attachment. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 41, 499–514.

Demanet,J., Van Houtte, M. (2012). Teachers' attitudes and students' opposition. School misconduct as a reaction to teachers' diminished effort and affect, *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28, 860–869.

Doyle, W. (2006). Classroom organization and management. In M.C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (3rd ed.). New York: Simon and Schuster.

Dreikurs, R., Grunwald, B., & Pepper, F. (1982). *Maintaining sanity in the classroom.* New York: Harper & Row.

DuPaul, G. J., & Hoff, K. E. (1998). Reducing disruptive behavior in general education classrooms: the use of self-management strategies. *School Psychology Review*, 27(2), 290–304.

Edwards, C. H. (2004). *Classroom discipline and management.* 4th ed. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Ellis, J., & Magee, S. K. (1999). Determination of environmental correlates of disruptive classroom behaviour: integration of functional analysis into public school assessment process. *Educational & Treatment of Children*, 22, 291–316.

Emmer, E. T., & Stough, L. M. (2001). Classroom management: A critical part of educational psychology, with implications for teacher education. *Educational Psychologist, 36*(2), 102–112.

Erford, B. T. (1998). Technical analysis of father responses to the disruptive behaviour rating scale-parent version (DBRS-P). *Measurement & Evaluation in Counselling & Development*, 30(4), 199–211.

Esturgó-Deu, M. E., & Sala-Roca, J. (2010). Disruptive behaviour of students in primary education and emotional intelligence. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *26*(4), 830–837. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2009.10.020

Evers, W.J.G. Tomica, W. and Brouwers, A. (2004) 'Burnout among Teachers: Students' and teachers' Perceptions Compared' *School Psychology International,* Vol. 25 No. 2. 131–148.

Fields, B. (1999). The impact of class heterogeneity on students with learning disabilities. *Australian Journal of Learning Disabilities, 4,* 11–16.

Ford, A. D., Olmi, D. J., Edwards, R. P., & Tingstrom, D. H. (2001). The sequential introduction of compliance training components with elementary-aged children in general education classroom settings. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 16, 142–157.

Forlin, C. (2001). Inclusion: Identifying potential stressors for regular class teachers. *Educational Research*, 43(3), 235–245.

Franklin C. Wilson, (1982). A look at corporal punishment and some implications of its use, Teaching and *Teacher Education*, 6(2), 155–164.

Freidenfelt Liljeberg, J., Eklund, J. M., Väfors Fritz, M., & af Klinteberg, B. (2011). Poor school bonding and delinquency over time: bidirectional effects and sex differences. *Journal of Adolescence*, 34, 1–9.

Friedman, I. A. (2006). Classroom management and teacher stress and burnout. In C. M. Evertson & C. S. Weinstein (Eds.), *Handbook of classroom management: Research, practice, and contemporary issues* (pp. 925–944). Mahwah, N.J. Lawrence Erlbaum.

Gathercoal, F., & Crowell,R. (2000). Judicious Discipline. *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, 36(4), 173–177.

Gathercoal, F. (2001). *Judicious Discipline* (5th.ed.). San Francisco: Caddo Gap Press.

Giallo.R, & Little, Emma. (2003). Classroom Behavior problems: The relationship between preparedness, classroom Experiences, and self-efficacy in graduate and student teachers, *Australian Journal of Educational & Developmental Psychology*, 3, 21–34.

Ginot, H. (1972). *Teacher and Child: a book for teachers and parents*, New York, McMillan.

Glasser, W. (1965). ***Reality therapy, a new approach to psychiatry***. New York: Harper & Row. In Maning, M.L. & Butcher, K.T. (2007). *Classroom management: Model, application dan Cases*, New Jersey, Prentice Hall.

Glasser, W. (1986). ***Control theory in the classroom***. New York: Perennial Library.

Glickman C.D. & Tamashiro, R.T (1982). A Comparison of first-year, Fifth year, and former teachers on efficacy. Ego-development and problem-solving. *Psychology in the Schools,* 19, 558–562.

Glickman C.D. & Tamashiro, R.T. (1980). Clarifying teachers' beliefs about discipline. *Educational Leadership*, 37, 459–464.

Glynn, E. L., & Thomas, J. D. (1974). Effect of cueing on self-control of classroom behavior. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis,* 7,299–306.

Good, T. L., & Brophy, J. E. (2006). *Looking in classrooms* (8th ed.). New York: Longman.

Gordana Djigic, Snezana Stojiljkovic, (2011). Classroom management styles, classroom climate and school achievement, *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences,* (29) 819–828.

Gordon, T. (1974). *T.E.T: Teacher effectiveness training,* New York: wyden Books.

Griffith, J., Steptoe, A., & Cropley, M. (1999). An investigation of coping strategies associated with job stress

in teachers. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 69,*517–531.
Hastings, R. P., & Bham, M. S. (2003). The Relationship between Student Behaviour Patterns and Teacher Burnout. *School Psychology International*, *24*(1), 115–127. doi:10.1177/0143034303024001905
Head, G. (2005) Better Learning, Better Behaviour. *Scottish Educational Review*, 37(2), 94–103.
Henson, K. (2001) Relationships between Pre-service Teachers'Self-Efficacy, Task Analysis, and Classroom Management Beliefs. *Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Southwest Educational Research Association*, New Orleans.
Herschell, A. D., Greco, L. A., Filcheck, H. A., & McNeil, C. B. (2002). Who is testing whom? *Intervention in School & Clinic*, 37(3), 140–148.
Janice, T. R & Dawson R. H, (2007). Exploring the relationship between certification sources, experience levels, and classroom management orientations of classroom teachers, *Teaching and Teacher Education* 23, 1206–1216.
John T. Blaze, D. Joe Olmi, Sterett H. Mercer, Brad A. Dufrene, Daniel H. Tingstom. (2014). Loud versus quiet praise: A direct behavioral comparison in secondary classrooms, *Journal of School Psychology,* 52, 349–360.
Jones, V. F., & Jones, L. S. (1998). *Comprehensive classroom management* (5th ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
Jones, F.H (2000). *Tools for teaching*, Santa Cruz, CA: Jones H.Jones & Association.
Kazdin, A. E. (1977). *The token economy: A review and evaluation*. New York: Plenum Press.
Kemal,Kayikci, (2009), The effect of classroom management skills of elementary school Teachers on undesirable discipline behaviour of students, *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences* 1 (2009) 1215–1225.
Kimber, W.M, Beverly, J.T, & Peter V.P. (2005). Models of Classroom Management as applied to the Secondary Classroom, *The Clearing House*, 79(1), 36–39.
Kohn, A. (1996). By all available means: Cameron and Pierce's defense of extrinsic motivators. *Review of Educational Research, 66,* 1–3.
Kounin, J. (1970). *Discipline and group management in classrooms.* New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
Lane, K. L., Little, A., Menzies, H., Lambert, W., & Wehby, J. H. (2010). A comparison of students with behavior challenges in suburban and rural settings: Academic, social, and behavioral outcomes. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 18, 131–148.
Landrum, T. J., & Kauffman, J. M. (2006). Behavioral approaches to classroom management. In C. Evertson & C. Weinstein (Eds.), *Handbook of Classroom Management: Research, practice, and contemporary issues* (pp. 47–71). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
Magee, S.K. & Ellis, J. (2001). The detrimental effects of physical restraint as a consequence for inappropriate classroom behaviour. *Journal of Applied Behaviour Analysis*, 34(4), 501–504.
Mandal, R. L., Olmi, D. J., Edwards, R. P., Tingstrom, D. H., & Benoit, D. A. (2000). Effective instruction delivery and time-in: Positive procedures for achieving child compliance. *Child & Family Behavior Therapy*, *22*(4), 1–12.
Manning, M.L. & Butcher, K.T. (2007). *Classroom management: Model, application dan Cases*, New Jersey, Prentice Hall
Martin, A., Linfoot, K., & Stephenson, J. (1999). How teachers respond to concerns about misbehaviour in their classroom. *Psychology in the Schools, 36,* 347–358.
Martin, G., & Pear, J. (2007). *Behavior modification* (8th ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.
Martin, N., Yin. Z. & Baldwin, B. (1998). Construct validation of the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control Inventory. *Journal of Classroom Interaction*, 33(2), 6–15.
Martin, N.K, Shoho, A.L. (2000), *Teacher Experience, training & Age: The influence of Teacher characteristics on classroom Management Style*, paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Southwest Educational Research Association, Dallas.
Madsen, C. H., Becker, W. C., & Thomas, D. R. (1968). Rules, praise, and ignoring: Elements of elementary classroom control. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, 1, 139–150.
McCaslin, M., & Good, T. L. (1992). Compliant cognition: the misalliance of management and instructional goals in current school reform. *Educational Researcher*, 21(3), 4–17.
McEvoy, A., & Welker, E. (2000). Antisocial behavior, academic failure, and school climate: A critical review. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 8, 130–140.
McGarity, J.R. and Butts, D. P. (2006). The relationship among teacher classroom management behaviour, student engagement, and student achievement of middle and high school science students of varying aptitude. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 21*(1), 55–61.
Medland, M. B., & Stachnik, T. J. (1972). Good-behavior game: A replication and systematic analysis. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, 5, 45–51.
Merrett, F., & Wheldall, K. (1984). Classroom behaviour problems which junior school teachers find most troublesome. *Educational Studies, 10,* 87–92.
M. Estrella Esturg_o-Deu, Josefina Sala-Roca, (2010). Disruptive behaviour of students in primary education and emotional intelligence, *Teaching and Teacher Education* 26, 830–837.
Munn, P., & Lloyd, G. (2005). Exclusion and excluded pupils. *British Educational Research Journal,* 31(2), 205–221.
Nelson, J. R. (1996). Designing school to meet the needs of students who exhibit disruptive behaviour. *Journal of Emotional & Behavioural Disorders*, 4(1), 147–162.
Parkay, F., Greenwood, G., Olejnik, S., & Proller, N. (1988). A study of the relationships among teacher efficacy, locus of control, and stress. *Journal of Research and Development in Education, 21,* 13–22.
Pryor, D.B & Tollerud, t.R. (1999) Applications of Adlerian principles in school settings. *Professional School Counseling*, 2(4), 299–304.
Ritter, J.T., & Hancock, D.R. (2007). Exploring the relationship between certification sources, experience levels, and classroom management orientations of classroom teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 23(7), pp. 1206–1216.

Roberts, D. S., Tingstrom, D. H., Olmi, D. J., & Bellipanni, K. D. (2008). Positive antecedent and consequent components in child compliance training. *Behavior Modification*, 32**,** 21–38.

Rose, L.C$_{nd}$ & Gallup, A.M. (2000, September). The 32nd annual Phi Delta Kappa/Gallup poll of the public's attitudes toward the public schools. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 82, 41–66.

Russell Lang, Karrie A. Shogren, Wendy Machalicek,Mandy Rispoli, Mark O'Reilly, Sonia Baker, & April Regester. (2009). Video self-modeling to teach classroom rules to two students with Asperger's, *Research in Autism Spectrum Disorders* 3, 483–488

Savage, T. V, & Savage, M.K. (2009). *Successful Classroom Management and Discipline: Teaching Self-Conterol and Responsibility*. (3rd edition). Sage Publications, Inc.

Shinn, M. R., Ramsey, E., Walker, H. M., Stieber, S., & O¨Neill, R. E. (1987). Antisocial behavior in school settings: Initial differences in an at-risk and normal population. *The Journal of Special Education*, 21, 69–84.

Smith, D. L., & Smith, B. J. (2006). Perceptions of violence: The views of teachers who left urban schools. *The High School Journal, 89,* 34–42.

Sokal, L, Smith, D. G. & Mowat, H. (2003). Alternative certification teachers' attitudes toward classroom management. *High School Journal,* 86(3), 8–16.

Tan O.S., Parsons, R.D., Hinson, S.L., & Sardo-Brown, D. (2003). *Educational psychology: A practitioner—researcher approach*. Australia: Thomson.

Tanner, L. W, Hannah C. Sung, and Jasmine D. Williams. (2014).The defining features of teacher talk within autonomy-supportive classroom management, *Teaching and Teacher Education*. 42, 34–46.

Walker, H. M., Ramsey, E., & Gresham, F. M. (2004). *Antisocial behavior in schools* (2nd ed.). Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadswort.

Witcher, A., Jiao, Q., Onwuegbuzie, A., Collins, K., James, T., & Minor, L.(2008). Pre-service Teachers' Perceptions of Characteristics of an Effective Teacher as a Function of Discipline Orientation: A Mixed Methods Investigation. *Teacher Educator*, 43(4), 279–301.

Wolery, M., Bailey, D. B., & Sugai, G. (1988). *Effective teaching: Principles and procedures of applied behavior analysis with exceptional students*. Boston: Allyn Bacon.

Wolfgang, C.H. & Glickman, C.D. (1995). *Solving discipline problems: Strategies for classroom teachers*, (3rd. Ed). Allyn and Bacon.

Zafer, Unal, & Aslihan, Unal. (2012).The impact of years of teaching experience on the classroom management approaches of Elementary school teachers. *International Journal of Instruction.* 5(2) 41–60.

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

The emphasis of Higher Order Thinking (HOT) in the curriculum and the implementation in reality

Cathreena Chee Sue Fern & Umi Kalsum Mohd Salleh
University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: Higher-Order Thinking (HOT) has been brought to the centre of attention in the education field especially in the 21st century. The emphasis of HOT in the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013–2025, in the curriculum, and the introduction of the new assessment system made HOT an undeniably important element to be included in teaching and learning in the classroom. A question mark however remains on how HOT is being implemented in the classroom that has been accustomed to traditional approaches of teaching and learning. This paper highlights the emphasis given to HOT in the curriculum and the implementation in the classroom.

1 INTRODUCTION

Stenhouse (1975) believes that curriculum studies involve the relationship between two views of curriculum which are the intended and the reality and that the reality seldom matches the intended educational intentions. The excerpt stated below taken from the Malaysian Education Blueprint 2013–2025 would best describe how teaching and learning was previously practices in Malaysian classrooms and how it is supposed to be practiced in the present and in the future.

> "A fundamental objective of any education system is to ensure that its students are being equipped with the knowledge and skills required for success in life. Historically, the Malaysian education system, like others around the world, has emphasised the development of strong content knowledge in subjects such as science, mathematics, and language. There is, however, increasing global recognition that it is no longer enough for a student to leave school with the 3 Rs (Reading, writing & arithmetic). The emphasis is no longer just on the importance of knowledge, but also on developing higher order thinking skills"
>
> (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2012, p. 25)

With the importance on higher-order thinking that is stressed in the blueprint, it is therefore the aim of this paper to highlight the emphasis given to higher-order thinking (HOT) in the curriculum, how assessment is viewed as a way to encourage HOT and the implementation of HOT in the classroom.

2 WHAT IS HIGHER ORDER THINKING (HOT)?

Higher-Order Thinking (HOT) according to Newmann (1991) is when students are challenged with questions or problems that cannot be answered or solved through the routine application of previous knowledge. Instead, they are required to interpret, analyse and manipulate information in order to attempt to answer a question or solve a problem which is in contrast to lower-order thinking that merely involves routine and mechanistic application of knowledge that has been learnt such as repetitive exercises that only requires students to list information of something that has been previously memorised. In short, HOT is seen as an approach to teaching and learning that would elevate students thinking beyond the practice of rote learning and memorisation (Danial, 2015).

HOT involves critical thinking, creative thinking, problem solving and decision making ahead of what is stated according to Bloom's taxonomy although it is believed that most teachers equate HOT with Bloom's taxonomy (Tan & Siti Hajar, 2015). According to Bloom's taxonomy, there are six categories in the cognitive domain which are Knowledge, Comprehension, Application, Analysis, Synthesis and Evaluation. The revised version of the taxonomy however, are named using verbs ranging from Remember, Understand, Apply, Analyse, Evaluate and Create arranged from simple to complex and concrete to abstract where each category is a prerequisite to master the next

(Krathwohl, 2002). Table 1 illustrates the dimensions of the revised taxonomy where the levels of cognitive domains are changed to "remember" as the lowest, followed by "understand." "Apply," "analyse," "evaluate" and "create" would be recognised as HOT as compared to "remember" and "understand" as according to Malini and Sarjit (2014), the purpose of HOT is to encourage students to apply, analyse, evaluate and think creatively.

2.1 *The emphasis of HOT in the English language syllabus*

Much emphasis is drawn to the need to produce students who are capable of developing higher-order thinking skills through critical and creative thinking as stated in the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013–2025. In accordance to that, the Curriculum Specifications for English language highlighted the need of the development of HOT in teaching and learning where it is stated that "critical and creative thinking skills are incorporated in the learning outcomes to enable learners to analyse information, make decisions, solve problems, and express themselves accurately and creatively in language" (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2000, p. 10).

As such, the learning outcomes stated in the English language curriculum specification corresponds to the idea of incorporating HOT is the learning process. Krathwohl (2002) mentioned that Bloom's taxonomy could serve as a basis for determining specific goals in a particular course or curriculum where the verbs used would describe the levels of cognitive process. The Table 2 portrays the verbs that describe the application of HOT in the learning outcomes in the English language syllabus based on the three main areas of language use.

3 SCHOOL-BASED ASSESSMENT (SBA) AS AN APPROACH TO PROMOTE HOT

In ensuring the quality of education, the Ministry of Education (2012) stated that the examination system needs to be transformed to what is known as assessment. School-Based Assessment (SBA) is an assessment system that is more holistic in form

Table 1. Dimensons of revised taxonomy (Krathwohl, 2002).

Levels of cognitive domains	Explanation	Examples of verbs
Remember	Retrieving relevant knowledge from long-term memory	Recognizing Recalling
Understand	Determining the meaning of instructional messages, including oral, written, and graphic communication	Interpreting Classifying Summarising Comparing Explaining
Apply	Carrying out or using a procedure in a given situation	Executing Implementing
Analyse	Breaking material into its constituent parts and detecting how the parts relate to one another and to an overall structure or purpose	Differentiating Organizing
Evaluate	Making judgments based on criteria and standards.	Checking Critiquing
Create	Putting elements together to form a novel, coherent whole or make an original product.	Planning Producing

Table 2. Examples of verbs that describe the application of HOT in the learning outcomes in English language syllabus.

3 main areas of language use	Verbs that describes HOT in the learning outcomes	Examples of learning outcomes
Language use for interpersonal purposes	Discussing, making enquiries, making complaints	Making complaints and responding to complaints
Language use for informational purposes	Predicting outcomes, presenting	Predicting outcomes, and drawing conclusions
Language use for aesthetic purposes	Dramatising, composing	Composing simple poems, stories and dialogues

and focuses on formative approaches in the classroom so as to reduce the practice of rote-learning and memorisation and diminish the exam-oriented mindsets of individuals so that thinking skills can be inculcated in the students. In short, SBA is formed to encourage the practice of HOT. This is as well in line with the Malaysian Education Blueprint 2013–2025 itself where one of its aim concerning curriculum and assessment is to upgrade the assessment system by increasing items that tests upon students' higher-order thinking skills in both national examinations as well as the SBA.

According to Krathwohl (2002), the taxonomy is not only a plan for classifying educational goals, but standards as well. The Table 3 shows the standard descriptor to assess students' performance in English language in the SBA which contains verbs that determine the level of thinking. For example, Band 1, being the lowest level of thinking aims for students' to only "know" the basic skills in English language. When students know the basic skills, students move on to Band 2 which assesses students "understanding". Band 3 would be the "apply" level according to Bloom's taxonomy as it assesses students' ability in using the knowledge. Band 4 would need students to analyse in order to apply knowledge in different situation. Band 5 would require students to evaluate while band 6, the highest level of thinking would require students to bring elements together and create or come up with something new.

HOT has become the centre of attention in Malaysia since the introduction of SBA where it was said that SBA would be able to develop students to think critically and creatively (Zahari, 2014). Following the introduction of the SBA is the Form 3 Assessment or is known as Penilaian Tingkatan 3 (PT3) which replaced the Penilaian Menengah Rendah (PMR) examinations in 2014. Unlike PMR, PT3 questions comprise of subjective items testing upon students HOT (Free Malaysia Today, December 25, 2014) in line with the purpose of SBA that promotes HOT. However, with questions testing upon students HOT that are new to classroom practices in Malaysia, it was mentioned that seventy percent of the teachers and students were lost (Iqbaal, 2014).

4 THE IMPLEMENTATION OF HOT IN TEACHING AND LEARNING

Although the importance of HOT is very well highlighted in the education system in Malaysia, Newmann (1991) believed that pedagogy in the classroom should encourage students to play an active role in seeking their own knowledge, thus raising the question on how HOT is being practiced in the classroom. With the concern of the society that young people are unable to think (Collins, 2014), Van den Berg (2008) mentioned that higher-order thinking is unlikely to happen unless students are involved in activities that promote this kind of thinking. Newmann (1991) also shares the same view where he believed that most of the classroom activities fail to challenge students to think.

To promote this kind of thinking, teachers and students need to step away from traditional approaches to teaching and learning as Stenhouse (1975) believed that "if knowledge is to be approached as a resource and an open system rather than as an imposition by those who possess it, new styles of teaching need to be evolved, and this is by no means easy." One of the approaches that can be used to encourage a more open classroom that would promote students thinking is through the practice of questions and answer in the classroom.

It is believed that students need to ask questions in order to explore ideas (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009). However, Scarino and Liddicoat (2009) continued that students tend to not question much and when they do their questions are often limited to the need for clarification or confirmation. Newmann (1991) also believed that most people shun at the thought of critical inquiry as it involves hard mental work especially for students and thus students prefer instead to receive the information from their teachers and reproduce. Abdul Shakour and Adila (2014) also believed that teaching and learning in Malaysian classroom is still practiced in a one-way process where classroom dialogue is hardly seen and if it remains this way, students are left with not much opportunity to develop their thinking skills.

Table 3. Standard descriptor of SBA for English language according to bands.

Band	Standard Descriptor
B1	Know fundamental skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing
B2	Understand meanings of word, phrases and sentence level
B3	Use knowledge acquired through listening, speaking, reading and writing
B4	Apply knowledge acquired in a variety of situations using some appropriate language conventions.
B5	Demonstrate the ability to use language in a variety of situations using largely appropriate language conventions.
B6	Appreciate literary works and present ideas critically in an exemplary manner.

This is proved through a study by Habsah (2006) where it was discovered that students have not been provided with much exposure to high-level questioning in the classroom which is inconsistent with the curriculum as the curriculum requires students to be taught "how to learn," and in contrast, the teachers have instead been teaching the students "what to learn." The study also discovered that most questions set by teachers are not designed to encourage critical thinking as questions are of lower-level and factual.

Penilaian Tingkatan 3 (PT3) is an assessment following the SBA where most of the questions comprised of higher-order thinking. Malini and Sarjit (2014) mentioned that teachers lack the skills to integrate the practice of HOT in their lessons which in turn does not correspond to the HOT questions asked in the assessment and examinations. This has been seen to be true in the PT3 assessment where the first batch of students comprising of more than 450 000 candidates sat for the assessment in October 2014 where it was mentioned that higher order thinking skills are to be included to leverage the education system in Malaysia to a global level (Bernama, June 14, 2014). However, the result of PT3 was proven otherwise due to the short time provided to students and teachers to familiarize with the practice of HOT (Zahari, 2014).

5 CONCLUSION

Knowledge was once learned only to be remembered, and not to be understood (Edgar, 2012) which explains the need in the moving away from rote learning and memorizing towards the inculcation of thinking skills in the 21st century. However, despite the emphasis given to HOT in the 21st century, the inclusion of the significance of HOT is the educational documents as well as the written curriculum and the introduction of a new assessment system that would promote the application of HOT, the practice of HOT is Malaysian classroom is indeed relatively new and would definitely require time for teachers and students to adapt. Teachers and students will need time to correspond to the call of HOT. And with time, comes along practice and the willingness to change. When teachers and students are willing to step away from the traditional approaches to teaching and learning and give way to new approaches, when they are able to grasp the concept of HOT and put it to practice in the classroom, only then can the curriculum be implemented as intended and thus fulfilling the aims of education in Malaysia.

REFERENCES

Abdul Shakour, & Adila, J. (2014). Philosophical inquiry in the Malaysian educational system reality or fantasy? *Analytic Teaching and Philosophical Praxis, 35*(1), 26–38.

Bernama. (2014, June 14). Form 3 assessment starts from July 1-Muhyiddin. Retrieved from http://english.astroawani.com/malaysia-news/form-three-assessment-starts-july-1-muhyiddin-37727

Collins, R. (2014). Skills for the 21st century: teaching higher-order thinking. *Curriculum and Leadership Journal, 12*(14).

Danial, R. (2015, 5 June). Transforming our education, *The Star*.

Edgar, D. W. (2012). Learning Theories and Historical Events Affecting Instructional Design in Education Recitation Literacy Toward Extraction Literacy Practices. *SAGE Open*, *2*(4), 2158244012462707.

Free Malaysia Today. (2014, 25 December). Stop comparing PT3 with PMR, deputy minister pleads. Retrieved from http://www.freemalaysiatoday.com/category/nation/2014/12/25/stop-comparing-pt3-with-pmr-deputy-minister-pleads/

Habsah, H. (2006). Dimensions of questioning: A qualitative study of current classroom practice in Malaysia. *TESL-EJ, 10*(2).

Iqbaal, W. (2014, 20 October). PT3: The first step in reforming our exam-oriented education system?, *Malaysian Digest*. Retrieved from http://www.malaysiandigest.com/features/523804-pt3-the-first-step-in-reforming-our-exam-oriented-education-system.html

Krathwohl, D. R. (2002). A Revision of Bloom's Taxonomy: An Overview. *Theory Into Practice, 41*(4), 212–218. doi: 10.1207/s15430421tip4104_2

Malini, G., & Sarjit, K. (2014). ESL Students' Perceptions of the use of Higher Order Thinking Skills in English Language Writing. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies, 5*(5). doi: 10.7575/aiac.alls.v.5n.5p.80

Ministry of Education Malaysia. (2000). Sukatan Pelajaran Kurikulum Bersepadu Sekolah Menengah Bahasa Inggeris.

Ministry of Education. (2012). Malaysia education blueprint 2013–2025.

Newmann, F. M. (1991). Higher order thinking in the teaching of social studies: Connections between theory and practice. In J. Voss, D. Perkins & J. Segal (Eds.), *Informal reasoning and education* (pp. 381–400).

Scarino, A., & Liddicoat, A. (2009). *Teaching and learning languages: A guide*: Curriculum Corporation Melbourne.

Stenhouse, L. (1975). *An introduction to curriculum research and development*. London: Heinemann Educational Books.

Tan, S. Y., & Siti Hajar, H. (2015). Effective teaching of higher-order thinking (HOT) in education. *The Online Journal of Distance Education and e-Learning, 3*(2), 41–47.

Van den Berg, G. (2004). The use of assessment in the development of higher-order thinking skills. *Africa Education Review, 1*(2), 279–294. doi: 10.1080/18146620408566285

Zahari, O. (2014, 30 December). Developing higher-order thinking, *The Star Online*. Retrieved from http://www.thestar.com.my/Opinion/Letters/2014/12/30/Developing-higherorder-thinking/

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

Homeschooling: An alternative to mainstream

Lee Ching Yin & Abd Razak Zakaria
Department of Educational Foundation and Humanities, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Hazleena Baharun
Faculty of Major Language Studies, Islamic Science University of Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: Homeschooling is a parent-led home based education, which is currently enjoying new-discovered acceptance both locally and internationally. To understand this new alternative education, we review a number of homeschooling studies from the local and overseas associated with the history and development of homeschooling, factors that led to homeschooling; outcome or impacts of homeschooling on school, families and children, and concerns, challenges as well as critics of homeschooling. We then document the findings of reasons that led to homeschooling and its outcomes to give an overview of homeschooling to provide a guideline and reflection to parents who intend to homeschool their children. Also, it is significant for the current conventional education system to re-attract families who chose homeschool as well as to refine the current educational practice to cater the modern generation. Meanwhile, we also document concerns, challenges, and critics towards homeschooling to ameliorate homeschooling as the growing alternative.

Keywords: homeschooling; home education; homeschool; alternative education

1 INTRODUCTION

Homeschooling can be defined with the word "home" and "schooling", which gives the meaning education or schooling that occurs at home. It is also a circumstance where parents make a conscious decision to provide an education for their child or children in place of that provided by schools, and where the parents are the main teachers or facilitators in the program of education (Broadhurst, 1999). Nevertheless, it is not a replication of school in a home environment, but a holistic lifestyle that strips the trappings of institutional schooling to focus on fundamental (David, 2004). Since homeschooling is a form of private education that is parent led and home based, therefore, homeschooling does not rely on either state-run public schooling or institutional private schooling for a child's education (Ray, 2013).

Homeschooling is neither a new concept nor practice. Scholars from diverse philosophical traditions have responded displeasure towards formal schooling for a few reasons. For example, John Locke, retained his view on the prime aim of education was a rectitude, and the home of a child was the optimal place to teach them, even John Dewey expressed his contrition about formal schooling (Lines, 2000). The escalation of homeschooling is one of the most noteworthy social movements of the olden semi century. This reemergence of what is in fact an old practice has occurred for a distinctly modern reason (Lines, 2000). During the late 1960s and 1970s, a movement emerged to turn down the modern change and return to the path where parents were responsible for their children's education (Aasen, 2010). By the late 1990s, there were over a million students being homeschooled in the United States and the number seems to be growing quickly (Abell, 2002). Just after a decade, an estimated 2.04 million home-educated students (1.73 to 2.35 million) in grades K to 12 resulted in the United States during the spring of 2010 (Ray, 2011). And yet, despite the growth of homeschooling in western countries such as the United States, the United Kingdom, New Zealand, Canada and Australia, the increasing movement among Israel, South Africa, and Asia countries, like Malaysia, Taiwan and China is also notable.

In Malaysia, a real figure of homeschooled students does not exist. Thus, we are not sure about the amount of children are being homeschooled and at what rate it is growing. As Reich (2005) reported, in many areas, registration of home-schooled (a necessity to being counted) is not enforced (Murphy, 2014). In other places, homeschool families simply neglect to register when they are required to do so (Lines, 2000). In still other cases, parents are so opposed to government oversight of their

families that they refuse to participate in data collection activities, both census and research efforts (Murphy, 2014). Along these lines, these are probably the reasons counting exact figure of homeschooled students in Malaysia a difficult task. Favorably, academician Ibrahim Ahmad Barjunid once reported that there are about 5,000 homeschooled students in Malaysia (David, 2004). This figure probably takes into account children undergoing religious education in informal groups outside the mainstream, children in special education, students following correspondence or distance learning and also those who are studying in learning centers who called themselves homeschoolers.

Homeschooling is a new form of alternative education in the education system in Malaysia (Norlidah, Mohd, Saedah & Ruslina, 2012). Primary school education became compulsory after the introduction of Free and Compulsory Education Act in the year 2003. According the provisions of Section 29A, all parents are to ensure that their children at the age of 7 years should be enrolled in a primary school. Nonetheless, the Minister of Education is empowered to grant exemptions and some parents have applied for and obtained approval to homeschool but subject to three conditions: (i) They must use the national curriculum—all other materials are supplementary (ii) They must allow for home visits by Ministry officials (iii) Exemption is for 6 years (David, 2004).

Homeschooling in Malaysia is still at an early stage of development (Norlidah, Mohd, Saedah & Ruslina, 2012). Anyhow, the popularity is growing throughout the years and this form of education is to believe to become the fundamental change of our lifestyle in the postmodern world. Hence, an overview towards homeschooling is significant not only for parents and children who are homeschooling but also the mainstream education.

2 FACTORS LED TO HOMESCHOOLING

Thirty years ago, homeschooling was governed by a allied group of religious fundamentalists and experimental "unschooler", an assortment of subgroups is now arise, with different goals that range from nourishing minority identities, to supporting special educational needs, to simply seeking a high-caliber form of education (Aurini & Davies, 2005). According to the figures in National Household Education Survey (NHES) of the United States in year 1996, 1999, and 2003, the three top reasons for homeschooling in 1996 and 1999 are "to give a child better education at home," "religious reasons," and "poor learning environment at school," that includes worries about drugs, peer pressure, and safety. Even the mode changes in 2003, the three topmost reasons are alike: "concern about the environment of the schools," "dissatisfaction with academic instruction at the schools," and "to provide religious or moral instruction," (Isenberg, 2007). Not to forget, there are also other reasons consisting of a notable number such as physical or mental health, special needs and other behavioral problems.

Several decades ago, the fundamentalists were disillusioned with public schooling as it progressively has no religious or spiritual basis. It is often the case that "these parents view the public schools as grounded in secular humanist philosophy that does not include strong Christian values and dispute moves beyond issues like school prayer and argues that public schools fail to take religious seriously throughout his curriculum (Romanowski, 2006). They do also believe religious duty required them to teach their own children. Consequently, they saw homeschooling appears to be a method to make certain that their children were acquainted to religious teaching. They then sought to integrate religion, learning, and family life by selecting a structured way of homeschooling that concentrated on basics and advocated the dominance of the family. As a result, there is evidence that religious families, particularly evangelical Protestants are significantly more likely to homeschool and therefore results show that religion plays an important role in the decision to homeschool (Isenberg, 2007). Until year 1994–95, the majority of families still named "religion" as the reason why they chose homeschool (Lines, 2000). In Malaysia context as a multireligious country, it is certain that there are families settled on homeschooling with religious reasons.

The ascend of Neo-Liberal ideology, and the manner of public debate on education is increasingly permeated with suspicion of efficiency, liability, and options are factors prompted the growth of homeschooling. A plurality of families say they are turning to homeschooling because they are dissatisfied with the quality of the public school, the public school instructional program and the public school environment, mainly safety, drugs, and unfavorable peer pressure (Lines, 2000). In addition, Broadhurst (1999) stated reasons for choosing homeschool include dissatisfaction with curriculum content, perceived ineffectiveness of schools, and concerns about adverse socialization as a result of school attendance, bullying, and regimentation of school. Parents also believe that whatever public schools teach, they teach ineptly and wanted to share a respect for their children's intellect and creativity and a belief that children learn best when pedagogy taps into the child's innate desire to learn (Romanowski, 2006). Likewise in Israel, Neuman & Aviram (2003) found general

public dissatisfaction with the education system and a search for alternatives is the conditions taken place in the homeschool movement. Similarly, the primary motivation for homeschooling in China is parents' response to their dissatisfaction to the current educational system, especially exam-oriented system resulted in long-time study at school and overloaded homework after school, from which students suffering physically and psychologically (Zhao & Badzis, 2014). Ebinezar (2008) who conducted a qualitative study of five Malaysian families who homeschooled their children found that parents choose to homeschool due to the content of the public school curriculum is not convincing enough.

Simultaneously, John Holt, an American author, educator and also a proponent of homeschooling or unschooling believed that the best learning takes place without entrenched curriculum, and the child should go after his own interests with the help and inspiration of parents and other adults (Lines, 2000). He gave support to small sects of parents to educate their children by their own effort and convinced that public school, as bureaucratic organizations, only harm children by subjecting them to the inhumane routines of "technocracy", unschoolers chose a radically unstructured version of homeschooling that aimed to cultivate children's personal enjoyment of life (Aurini & Davies, 2005). Apart from that, John Dewey also held that school had been artificially "set apart" from society, and had become "so isolated from the ordinary conditions and motives of life" that it was " the one place in the world where it is most burdensome to get experience," (Lines, 2000). He also perceived that parents are insightful enough to identify what is the greatest for their child, and capable to provide what is required.

In view of the fact that public school is no longer the ideal place for learning, parents tend to seek for betterment. According to Romanowski (2006), families choose to homeschool their children because they intent to build up their relationships with their children. These parents have either experienced personally or have witnessed children suffering both emotionally and academically because of the schools' limitation, and recognized "that the schools are often reluctant or unable to serve children with unique learning styles or academic needs". This initiates them to consider "breaking the traditional formal model of teaching will enhanced understanding and learning in their children". In other respects, Ray (2011) marked a number of additional reasons parents look for children's betterment. First, parents want their children to achieve more academically than they would in school. Applied to this, parents wish to individualize the curriculum and learning environment that meets their child's special needs and talent. Third, they hope to foster relationships of the family among siblings and parents. Fourth, they want to come up with guided and reasoned social interactions with peers and adults rather than having the school to determine. Finally, the safety of their children. Similarly, as the new economy is raising credential requirements and intensifying labor market competitions, parents pursue homeschooling by expect superior skills needed in educational and occupational contests to reduce uncertainties in the future as well as to attain advantage in status competitions (Aurini & Davies, 2005). Thus, mothers with more time and less income or even better educated mothers are more likely to homeschool their children especially the young ones and older children with behavioral and special need (Isenberg, 2007). David (2004) a Malaysian parent who homeschooled their children chosen homeschool because they wanted to give their children their childhood, he wanted them to have hobbies, space to grow, time to reflect and most importantly a lifestyle that builds values that matter in their children while they are still with them.

3 OUTCOMES OF HOMESCHOOLING

3.1 *Impact on schools*

As homeschooling created a dramatic movement in education field, one of the promising effects of it could be its influence in forming the public education. Particulars from the homeschooling movement offer important perception about both the restoration of the public education system and the rectification of individual schools (Murphy, 2014). Analysts expect possible effect in public school in the range of areas involving the human resources, curriculum, resources, institutional structure, and etc. Three avenues which homeschool could shape public school: (1) withdrawal impacts, (2) lighthouse effects, and (3) competitive effects (Murphy, 2014). Withdrawal impacts result in a reduced allegiance, willingness to support taxes which leads to less financial aid as well as material resources reduction for public schools. Further, lighthouse effects advocate that the collective goodness that causes homeschooling effective will discover its way in public education (Ray, 2013). Lastly, proof exist that competition from homeschooling is reassuring public schools to develop new institutional appearance. The notable development is the creation of new schools that permit homeschooler to complete their education in multiple setting, both at home and in public school (Bauman 2002). Isenberg (2007) also found part-time homeschooling consist a number in the whole.

3.2 *Impacts on families*

Since promoting family bonding is one of the reason parents choose homeschooling, it is also the impact on family. (1) averts the generational gap between children and parents; (2) builds good relationships among siblings; and (3) establishes a nurturing family atmosphere, for example allow families to knit a strong bond and lead to successful marriages (Murphy, 2014). On the negative side of the ledger, first, homeschooling requires a dominant commitment of time (Aurini and Davies, 2005) and hard work. Second, homeschooling often requires a lifestyle decision to be made where primarily the mother has to forego her earnings to stay at home (Lubienski, 2003). Third, homeschooling confine the careers of the mothers who stay at home (Aurini and Davies, 2005). Last, frustration arises in homeschooling where it is a difficult task to balance homemaking and home teaching (Murphy, 2014). Despite of that, homeschooling do grant satisfaction when seeing children develop, occupying time with children, deepening sibling relation, as well as enliven full-time motherhood. Additionally, Neuman & Aviram (2008) claimed homeschooling is perceived as a solution to difficulties of three types—the parents' negative experiences as children (both in school and in the family framework), negative family and marital experiences, and the children's negative experiences in school. They also asserted the choice of homeschooling affects areas of family life beyond education (e.g. medicine or health, family relationships, work, self-fulfillment), and needs different practical and ideological preparation than those needed for conventional education.

3.3 *Impacts on children*

First thing when we come across impacts of homeschooling on children we will definitely reflect the academic achievement. According to the National Home Education Research Institute (NHERI) of the United States, which collects nationwide research results, the average homeschooler consistently scores higher on standardized achievement tests compared to average public school students, with median scores from 15–30 percentile points higher than the public school norms (Aasen, 2010). Ray in his subsequent investigations (1997, 2010) reinforced that homeschooled children attained at or above 80th percentile in all subjects on standardized tests. Although, analysts find that homeschool students who sit for the standardized test generally do quite well when compared to conventional peers, there is a caveat in the academic achievement aspects added by Murphy (2014). Three concerns come into view. First, analysts from the homeschooling community firmly reject the concept of the priority of achievement scores in comprehending the impact of homeschooling. It is opined that other more significant goals like instilling values should centered in the investigation of whether homeschool works. Second, homeschooling is a right that surpasses test results and the gate to homeschooling should not open or shut in response to test scores. Lastly, the focus on achievement results placed the burden of evidence for the validity of homeschooling on homeschooler, rather than those who against the implementation.

In all likelihood, the most vastly held misconception of homeschooling is the myth of socialization (Romanowski, 2006). Medlin (2013) indicated that the socialization experiences homeschooled children gain are more than adequate. In fact, indicators like quality of friendships along childhood, rarity of behavior problems during adolescence, acceptance to new experiences in college, civic involvement in adulthood conveyed that the socialization experiences homeschooled children receive may be more advantageous compared to children who attend conventional schools. Moreover, when claims pointed that homeschooling creates children who are unable to think for themselves, one study suggested that socialization in conventional schools may not be as empowering as many suppose that they found 84% of the teachers' message reflected the teachers' effort to quiet the students, keep them from asking questions without recognition, or to direct their straying attention to the task at hand (Medlin, 2013). For that reason, homeschool parents are mindful of the issue of socialization and strongly devoted to positive socialization chances for their children. For instance, homeschooled children are involved in various activities outside the home range from scouting, dance classes, group sports and volunteer work with peers, children of varying age, and adults. Hence, they are not isolated from the outside world. Romanowski (2006) also claimed schools are not the only place children learn basic life skills and because homeschooled students are not peer-grouped in school, they learn to interact and deal with variety of people, making them socially mature and able to adjust to new situations.

Another effect of homeschooling on children that gives great concern from the parents will always be the post-homeschooling effects. Broadhurst (1999) stated that children who have been home-educated have successfully applied to and been allowed entrance into prestigious universities, noteworthy that one family from the United States educated their four sons outside the school system, and the three oldest successfully applied to attend Harvard University. Further, homeschooled students also

rate their entire college and university educational experience more positively and adjusted quite well to the tertiary education environment compared to students who were never homeschooled (Drenovsky & Cohen, 2012). Set side by side with the positive university enrollment of homeschooled children, public schooling has been criticized for leaving many children behind while instilling a hidden curriculum of sightless obedience to authority. Besides, there appeared to be no prejudice exhibited towards home-educated teenagers and adults when they attempted to obtain employment and also given allowance to pursue a wide variety of options post-homeschooling (Broadhurst, 1999). They also expressed satisfaction towards their job, family's financial status and life (Murphy, 2014). Therewithal, homeschool graduates have an impact in their communities as they are almost twice as likely to participate in community service and also more likely to belong to community or professional organization (Aasen, 2010; Murphy, 2014). Likewise, a study shows 53% of those in the West believing homeschooling promotes good citizenship as compared to 37% of those in the East (Lyons & Gordon, 2002).

4 CONCERNS, CHALLENGES AND CRITICS TOWARDS HOMESCHOOLING

Since education is privatized by the family, it is difficult to ensure that proficient instruction is provided and student is well engaged in their learning. Most of the parents attend their bachelor degrees from different fields other than education, though they choose homeschooling out of various reasons, they are still freshmen in this new field (Zhao, Badzis, 2014). Some parents do confessed that they are not confident about their method of teaching and children sometimes displayed a need for better quality tuition due to parents' careless handling of learning content. Meanwhile, concerns of homeschooling sometimes feature the lack of educational resources available to parents. But homeschooling associations support advice and information, held conferences on legal, philosophical, and pedagogical controversy, and review educational materials at exhibition booths (Lines, 2000). Aurini and Davies (2005) also reported that given the widespread diffusion of internet, home computers, educational materials, support groups and perhaps most important, the largest cohort of university-educated parents world history.

On top of that another major concern is that homeschooled children lack the opportunities to interact and socialize with their peers. Even though numerous studies revealed that homeschooled children have done remarkably well socially, psychologically, and emotionally, all these studies might have used the qualitative research method that generalized the result. Schalkwyk & Bouwer (2011) in their qualitative study of the voices of homeschooled learners found that in order for homeschooled children to make parents happy as they deserve of respect for their sacrifices, children managed to display adequate impulse control on a behavioral level. They are lonely and helpless and admitted that they are too close to their mother and recounted effort to gain some distance, however, they still tried very hard to identify with the principles set by their parents but did not fully succeed in doing so and showed strong desire to articulate their own needs and realize their own interest. In short, no matter the discourse, it should be fundamentally questioned whether the developmental needs of any child may be disregarded when whatever form of education or curriculum is considered (Schalkwyk & Bouwer, 2011).

In the sense of challenges in homeschooling, parents expressed their loneliness upon embarking on the journey while most of their extended families do not understand and support their ideas (Zhao, Badzis, 2014). David (2004) also stated, Malaysia, a society where we live does not take kindly to people with a different point of view and deeply ingrained with the "normal" way. The biggest challenge is to assuage the suspicion of their friends and the authorities in power. Besides, Zhao & Badzis (2014) also declared the challenges in homeschooling practices in China can be concluded in one key word—balance, in two perspectives. The first balance is the one between homeschooling child and other social responsibility upon parents, a full-time mother and a full-time teacher. The second balance is teaching balance among subjects, where parents from the social science background are not confident to teach pure science subjects.

Lubienski (2003) asserted that even though Universal Declaration of Human Rights outlined parents have a "prior" right to decide on the type of education to be provided for their children, but it is not absolute. When a child must take on the repercussion of another individual's (the parent's) poor choice, then it is fair to call for external intervention. Indeed, Ray (2013) also criticized home education makes children and youth susceptible to, or victim of, bad home environment, bad parents, child neglect, child abuse, child labor abuse, and problematic family and social issues. Thus, he suggested home-based education must be under considerable state control for several reasons such as (a) balancing state and parental rights over the education and upbringing of children; (b) balancing the rights of the state, parents, and children in children's upbringing; and (c) properly recognizing that children cannot get or achieve certain good things under the upbringing of

their parents and that they can only be assured of getting under the rearing of institutional schools, especially state-run ones, or nurture of the state.

Yet, proof that some (or even all) students schooled at home perform better than school-educated students does not indicates that the application of homeschooling result in improvements in academic achievement. In fact, we might note that home schooled students have background elements that differ from those of the typical public school student. Background elements related to academic success include higher family income levels, higher levels of parental educational attainment, more stable families with higher rates of employment (father), and higher rates of a parent (mother) at home (Lubienski, 2003). With family quality as such, it is probable that these children would outperform in school setting too. In addition, it is important to know that the families made a choice that reflects a serious interest in the education of their children and they also have resources not only of time and means, but also the initiative, to make that choice. Therefore, it generally gives impact to a student's academic success (Lubienski, 2003).

Howell (2013) noted that opponents of home-based education do not advocate it because they want the state to be in predominant and ultimate control over the education and upbringing of all children as future adult citizens. They are worry that homeschooling is affecting children to become adults who detain worldviews, think and believe different than they (the opponents) and different from what they want to promote to children and society through state-controlled education. Also, the common school experience is essential for the development and maintenance of the public good and exit from public schooling is an attack on public monopoly (Murphy, 2014). In like manner, Ray (2013) indicated parent-led home-based education harms the collective good; it is bad for the common good or society as a whole because homeschooling is fear based and anti-based (e.g., afraid of different kind of people, anti-state, anti-common sense, and anti-selflessness) as well as cocoons children and parents from those in society who are different from them.

5 CONCLUSION

Homeschooling is an educational application that is entirely supervised by parents. It is also an option to the mainstream that has risen notably in the past half century not only in the developed western countries but also developing countries like Malaysia. Although homeschooling in Malaysia is still in the early stage of development (Norlidah, Mohd, Saedah & Ruslina, 2012), but it is undeniable that it is becoming more common and more widely accepted. Eventually, it will become a major alternative to the mainstream education. Families all over the world from diverse background settle to homeschooling for several reasons: (1) religious reasons, (2) poor learning environment at school and (3) to give a child better education at home. As the outcome of homeschooling, it gives impacts on school, family, and children. Three avenues which homeschool could shape public school: (1) withdrawal impacts, (2) lighthouse effects, and (3) competitive effects (Murphy, 2014). Impacts on families divides into both positive (promote family bonding, solution to difficulties) and negative (commitment of time, scarification of the mother). Meanwhile, impacts on children comprise of academic achievements, socialization, and post-homeschooling effects. On top of all these, we also analyzed concerns, challenges, and critics of homeschooling. The communities and even parents itself they are concern about the proficiency of instructions given and also the socialization opportunities of homeschoolers. At the same time, parents who chose homeschooling faces challenges like to assuage the suspicion of others and balance the role as a parent and a teacher. On the other side, opponents of homeschooling do criticized choice of schooling is not only the parental right, but also the state's academic achievement of homeschoolers are not absolute high as well as homeschooling is bad for common good.

REFERENCES

Aasen, S.H. (2010). New followers of an old path—Homeschoolers. *Journal for Quality & Participation*, 32(4), 12–14.

Abell, D. (2002). *Homeschooling: An overview*. Occasional research paper, no5. Morehead State University.

Aurini, J. & Davies, S. (2005). Choice without markets: homeschooling in the context of private education. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 26(4), 461–474.

Bauman, K. (2002). Home schooling in the United States: Trends and characteristics. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 10(26), 121.

Broadhurst, D. (1999). *Investigating young children's perceptions of homeschooling*. Paper presented at the Australian Association for Research in Education, Melbourne, Australia.

David, B.C.T. (2004). *10 Questions about homeschooling.* Retrieved from: homeschoolhomefrontier.com/10-questions.

Drenovsky, C.K. & Cohen, I. (2012). The impact of homeschooling on the adjustment of college students. *International Social Science Review,* 87(1&2), 19–34.

Ebinezar John A/L Y. Rajamony. (2008). *The Malaysian experience in home schooling*. Ph.D., Universiti Putra Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur.

Howell, C. (2013). Hostility or Indifference? The marginalization of homeschooling in the education profession. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 88(3), 355–364.

Isenberg, E.J. (2007). What have we learned about homeschooling? *Peabody Journal of Education*, 82(2–3), 387–409.

Lines, P.M. (2000). Homeschooling comes of age. *Public Interest*, 140, 74.

Lubienski, C. (2003). A critical view of home education. *Evaluation Research in Education*, 17(2–3), 167–178.

Lyons, L. & Gordon, G. (2002). Homeschooling: Expanding its ranks and reputation. *Gallup Poll Tuesday Briefing*, 1.

Medlin, R.G. (2013). Homeschooling and the question of socialization revisited. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 88(3), 284–297.

Murphy, J. (2014). The social and educational outcomes of homeschooling. *Sociological Spectrum*, 34, 244–272.

Neuman, A & Aviram, A. (2008). Homeschooling as fundamental change in lifestyle. *Evaluation & Research in Education*, 17(2–3), 132–143.

Norlidah, A., Mohd, N., Saedah, S., Ruslina, I. (2012). A model of homeschooling based on technology in Malaysia. *The Malaysia Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 1(3).

Ray, B.D. (2013). Homeschooling associated with beneficial learner and societal outcomes but educators do not promote it. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 88(3), 324–341.

Romanowski, M.H. (2006). Revisiting the common myths about homeschooling. *The Clearing House: A Journal of Education Strategies, Issues and Ideas*, 79(3), 125–129.

Schalkwyk, L. & Bouwer, C. (2011). Homeschooling: Heeding the voices of learners. *Education as Change*, 15(2), 179–190.

Zhao, J. & Badzis, M. (2014). Parents' perspectives on homeschooling in Chinese mainland. *International Proceedings of Economics Development & Research*, 78(4), 17–21.

This page intentionally left blank

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

Perception and expectation of parents and students regarding choice of secondary school type

Maizatul Shabanu Abdul Patah & Abd Razak Zakaria
Department of Educational Foundation and Humanities, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Munira Mohsin
Institute of Teacher Education, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: This study was carried out to investigate the perceptions and expectations of parents and students regarding choice of secondary school type. It also identified the influencing factors in shaping the perceptions and expectations of parents and students in choosing the type of secondary school. This quantitative study involved five different types of schools and used a questionnaire distributed to parents and students. Quantitative analysis using Pearson correlation was used in this study to identify whether a significant relationship existed between parents' and students' perceptions and expectations in selecting the type of secondary schools.

Key words: perception, expectation, choice of school type

1 INTRODUCTION

In the Malaysian school system, placement of school students is based on residential address (Sua, Ngah, & Darit, 2013). After pupils complete Standard Six or after they have sat for the primary school assessment (Ujian Peperiksaan Sekolah Rendah, UPSR) public examination, these students will again be placed in schools based on their home address. Nevertheless, when they are about to go into Form One, students are allowed to choose the secondary school of their choice to further their studies based on their UPSR results or their interest. Students are also given another chance to choose their secondary school type after obtaining their form three examination (Peperiksaan Tingkatan Tiga, PT3) results. If the students have many choices of school, this will give a positive impact on the outcomes and accomplishments of each individual (Edmark, Frölich, & Wondratschek, 2014).

In Malaysia, apart from choosing secondary day schools, students also have the opportunity to join various other types of public schools. Parents who can afford the fees have a varied choice of private schooling for their children. Parents have the right to choose the school for the sake of their children's future (Butler & Hamnett, 2012). This is because education is an important asset in an individual's life whereby an individual has the right to obtain the best eduction (Altrichter, Bacher, Beham, Nagy, & Wetzelhütter, 2011).

The education of children in secondary school is very important for ensuring and preparing children for a more effective educational environment (Neilson & Mcnally, 2013). The Neilson and McNally study was related to choice of nursing school in Sweden. Their findings showed that while the pupils were in primary school in grade five or six, many of them were interested in choosing nursing as a career. But when they enter secondary school, the majority are more interested in choosing a more prestigious career such as doctor or pharmacist. This is because the influence and encouragement while in secondary school has greater influence on students in determining their direction in achieving their future objectives. This also shows that each individual has the right and freedom to make a choice of school in order to get a perfect and quality education (Goyette, 2008).

Parents have high individual perceptions and expectations in making choices of school type (Wang & Eccles, 2013). Parents have and determine the values and high standard in making choices about schools for their children (Butler & Hamnett, 2012). The role of parents is important and in influencing and motivating to enhance achievement and success of their children (Fletcher, Greenwood, & Parkhill, 2010). The

perceptions and expectations of parents in making selection of education for their children are also influenced by the demographic characters or background of the parents themselves (Butler & Hamnett, 2012; Edmark *et al*., 2014; Fletcher *et al*., 2010).

The study findings show that perceptions and expectations of parents are the main influencers in choice of school type (Wang & Degol, 2013). Parents are inclined to choose schools renowned for excellent academic performance (Popa, 2012; Warren, 2010; Wölfel & Heineck, 2012). According to the study by Sua, Ngah, and Darit (2013), the factors influencing Malay parents to send their children to National Type Chinese Schools are high expectations from the parents. Nevertheless, this study showed that Malay students could not fulfil the expectations of their parents because they faced problems mastering Chinese language.

Students also possess perspectives and expectations in selecting their school type. Having choices of school type is important because it gives an impact on the overall life of the students in the future (Neilson & Mcnally, 2013). Those students who choose schools they like will raise their commitment and engagement in school (Edmark *et al*., 2014). Subsequently, this can lessen problems in the teaching and learning process in schools. If students are given opportunity to choose the school or field they desire, the outcomes are better and of greater quality (Green, Navarro-Paniagua, Ximénez-de-Embún, & Mancebón, 2014). Today, students like to search for unique schools that can give them new and interesting experiences in their learning process. They choose the school because they have interests, desires, motivations and aspirations of excellence in their chosen fields. They desire schools that can prepare them to become students of quality and provide skills for their future (Ravindran & Kalpana, 2012).

What is clear is that parents and students have their own perceptions and expectations in selecting the school type. Past studies actually give the bigger scope to parents and students in choosing where it involves higher institutions (Wiswall, Stiefel, Schwartz, & Boccardo, 2014). This study will only focus on Form Four secondary school students; it will also be carried out in several different types of secondary schools. The obvious gap is in the lack of studies done simultaneously on parents and students themselves in various types of schools. Hence this study takes into consideration whether a relationship exists between perceptions and expectations of parents and students in choice of the type of secondary school desired.

2 PERCEPTIONS OF PARENTS AND STUDENTS

2.1 *Cultural values*

Socialization and cultural norms of an individual's life very much influence and shape their values, culture, beliefs and choices (Babak Alavi & McCormick, 2004).

Family culture will influence children's academic achievement (Fucci & Cavaletto, 2012; Gibbons, 2009; Goyette, 2008; Wang & Degol, 2013). The outstanding cognitive development of children is shaped by a stimulating home environment (Fucci & Cavaletto, 2012; Gibbons, 2009). Parents and children will design strategies to ensure excellent academic achievement of children (Gibbons, 2009; Fletcher *et al*., 2010) and prepare children with various skills (Fucci & Cavaletto, 2012). A family environment also influences children in choosing their career (Wang & Degol, 2013).

Nevertheless, there are also parents who want their children to get a better education than they had and who place importance on moral values (Walker & Clark, 2010). In creating quality individuals, there are parents and students who select religious high schools because of their family culture whereby they begin to appreciate the importance of loyalty to their religion (affective domain) (Sahlan, 2014) and place importance on moral values such as discipline and mutual respect (Butler & Hamnett, 2012).

Whatever the choice, the practice of cultural values must be seen from the viewpoint of culture of *individualism* or *collectivism* (Babak Alavi & McCormick, 2004). In Asia the collectivist culture is still practised as compared to the West (Siah, Ong, Tan & Sim, 2014; Wang & Degol, 2013).

Nevertheless, some studies show that the family culture does not influence perceptions of parents and students in school selection (Sánchez-Medina, Macías-Gómez-Stern, & Martínez-Lozano, 2014); these studies found that school is the institution where the transition process occurs between varied family culture of students.

2.2 *School climate*

Over the paste two decades, studies have been done on the importance of conducive school climate in excellent achievement of students. School climate can be categorized into three dimensions: physical and school management, socioeducational process encompassing education including school quality and norms and values, interpersonal relationship, and social interaction as well as dimensions of school structure such as school size and curriculum (Brault, Janosz, & Archambault, 2014).

School climate is an important element in selecting a school and field of study because it has a significant relationship with student achievement (Brault et al., 2014; Meristo & Eisenschmidt, 2014; Pecháčková, Navrátilová, & Slavíková, 2014) and impacts on social behavior (Bear, Gaskins, Blank, & Chen, 2011; Mitchell & Bradshaw, 2013). Parental and student perceptions and expectations are high for a school climate that is motivating and positive (Atkins, Johnson, Force, & Petrie, 2015). Factors such as parents, teachers and peers are significant in shaping a good school climate (Atkins et al., 2015; Hardré & Sullivan, 2008; Wang & Eccles, 2013) and shaping effective interpersonal relationships (Atkins *et al*., 2015; Mitchell & Bradshaw, 2013). Involvement from all educational community members in carrying out their respective responsibilities will help schools focus on student outcomes. This can reduce the discipline problems and social ills among students (Hardré & Sullivan, 2008). Students also will feel safe and secure in school and show positive development from the cognitive, psychomotor and affective aspects (Meristo & Eisenschmidt, 2014; Pecháčková *et al*., 2014).

2.3 *Student interest*

Since two dcades ago, studies have been done on the interest and efficacy related to choice in the field of education. Student interest in a field influences their choice of education and career (Leung *et al*., 2014; Paixão, Silva, & Leitão, 2010). The students' personal interest impacts on and motivates their academic achievement (Chung, Lin, Huang, & Yang, 2013; Patall *et al*., 2014) and enhances their skills (Vaughn & Witko, 2013). Students' interest has a significant relationship with their competency (Leung et al., 2014; Mendolia & Walker, 2014; Navas, 2014; Yang & Chang, 2009).

More interesting,the study by Lent, Paixao, Silva, and Leitao (2010) and Leung, Zhou, Ho, Li, and Tracey (2014) using the Holland RIASEC Model shows that interest or preferences of students together with social support (parental perceptions and expectations) have a significant relationship with choice of field of study and career. This finding is the same as that in the study by Mendolia and Walker (2014) using *matching method* but the difference is that change may occur in the preferences and interests of students in the process of raising achievement in personal education of students.

Nevertheless, the study by Lent, Sheu, Singley, Schmidt, and Gloster (2008) in the United States of America on 209 university students taking engineering found that competency, self capability and output expectations are more significant than individual interest in the choice of education field. Students' perceptions of their capability and expectations of prestigious career were considered when making career choices.

3 EXPECTATIONS OF PARENTS AND STUDENTS

3.1 *Intellectual achievements*

The choice of school made by students and teachers is based on high expectations of the outcomes and intellectual achievement of students (Byrne *et al*., 2012; Delaney *et al*., 2011; Haimerl & Fries, 2010). Parents and students have high expectations about the schools that show outstanding achievement (Vryonides & Gouvias, 2012).

The expectations in perceptions of excellent intellectual achievement are also related to the culture of and experiences brought by the family (Chen, 2015; Giirses, Kuzey, Mindivan, Dogar, Giines, & Youlcu, 2011; Vryonides & Gouvias, 2012). Students shape their expectations based on the environment and culture absorbed by their parents and families, in other words implicit expectations (Glick & White, 2004).

Expectations in intellectual achievement are also significantly related to the attitude and personality of the individual who is making the selection of education determined by the individual (Delaney et al., 2011; Zou, Anderson, & Tsey, 2013). This is because the outcome is relevant with the expectations determined by the individual (Byrne *et al*., 2012).This is the impact from individuals who can identify the appropriate field of study suited to their intellectual ability (Walkey, McClure, Meyer, & Weir (2013).

3.2 *Career aspirations*

According to Gottfredson (1981), the process of choosing a career basically starts with the fantasy of children aged 3–5 years and their career interests are nurtured when they are aged 11–15 years. An individual's career aspirations are actually influenced by various factors, among them family expectations, school environment and social cultural system (Hou & Leung, 2011). High expectations in academic achievement and exposure to career choice actually is a measure of the extent of parental involvement in children's progress (Attanasio & Kaufmann, 2014; Glick & White, 2004); children too have high expectations in designing their future and career choices (Mahamood et al., 2012).

Studies have found that their choice of field of study is more toward examination result (Giirses

et al., 2011). Nevertheless, the study by Delaney *et al*. (2011) found that student personality traits, parents' attitudes and choice of subject or choice of school are the mediators in shaping the career expectancy and future likelihood of getting good monetary resources. Hence the schoice of school and suitable field of study has a positive impact on students (Creed, Conlon, & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2007; Schmitt-Wilson & Welsh, 2012).

Nevertheless, according to Creed *et al*. (2007) there are obstacles in determining the parental and student expectations when these groups have problems arising from ethnicity, finances, attitude and lack of information. This will affect their choice of school, field of study and later, their career choices.

3.3 *Personal development*

Bloom (1956) classified educational activities into three domains, namely the cognitive (intellectual), affective (attitude, feelings, and emotions) and psychomotor (skills). Hence, personal development of students must take into consideration the context of increase in social skills and skill maturity. Expectations of parents and students in choosing schools arise because students need schools to fulfil the orientation goals and motivating school climate (Atkins *et al*., 2015; Bear *et al*., 2011; Ravindran & Kalpana, 2012). The aim of orientation can be to enhance the competency and skill level, to gain self-esteem, or to feel pleasure and enjoyment. A safe school is a school that has student social support, psychological, transitional and emotional support. It involved consistency in skills of social interaction and cognitive, sosial and psychomotor development. In Malaysia, studies show that one of the factors for current students to select their school is because of the variety of co-curriculum offered by a certain school (Ibrahim, Osman, & Bachok, 2014). Students have high expectations in the cocurriculum performance of a school.

On the other hand, students who continue working after leaving school or who stop school early (work-bound students) have low self expectations and academic achievement (Creed, Patton, & Hood, 2010). This results in low personal skills where they lack self confidence and often feel they have poor personal functioning.

4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this study, the researcher will use the technique of quantitative research. This research involves the survey methodology using questionnaire entirely for data collection; the questionnaires will be distributed to the parents and students at the selected schools.

In making seclection of schools, the researcher chooses research based on purposive sampling. According to Fraenkel *et al*. (2012) in purposive sampling, the researcher cannot choose easily the sample required but instead the researcher must have justification for selecting the sample. Cohen *et al*. (2003) stated that purposive sampling is used to choose a sample that can fulfil the needs of the research question and specific research objectives. In this study, the researcher wants to study the perceptions and expectations of parents and students toward the school type. Hence, the sample is chosen guided by clear criteria and fulfils the character desired by the researcher. The researcher selects the sample consisting of students and their parents who are from schools in SBP, Vocational Colleges, Technical Secondary schools, SMKA and SABK.

Subsequently, simple random sampling is used to choose each school from five types of school chosen namely SBP, Vocational College, SM Technical, SMKA and SABK. Simple random sampling is also used for selecting 500 students from Form Four. Indirectly, 500 parents of the chosen students will be answering the questionnaire for parents. The parent questionnaire will be answered by the mother, father, or care giver of the student. Simple random sampling is used because each individual in the population is free and has the same opportunity or probability of being selected (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006).

For data analysis, the statistical test used in this study is Pearson correlation test. The Pearson correlation test is used to identify the significance between perception and expectation of parents and students in choice of secondary school type. This test only reveals the strength or wekness of relationship between two variables.

5 CONCLUSION

Choice of a suitable and quality school is important because it has an impact on determining the direction and future of the student. Parents and students have their own perceptions and expectations in making a choice of school type. Each individual needs to be aware of the educational assets in the challenging and competitive world today.

Hence, this study actually can help students and parents to identify the needs, preferences, or career aspirations that must be chosen. This can affect the perceptions and expectations of parents and students regarding the selection of school type to produce an innovative and skilled generation.

REFERENCES

Altrichter, H., Bacher, J., Beham, M., Nagy, G., & Wetzelhütter, D. (2011). The effects of a free school choice policy on parents' school choice behaviour. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, *37*(4), 230–238. doi:10.1016/j.stueduc.2011.12.003.

Atkins, M.R., Johnson, D.M., Force, E.C., & Petrie, T. a. (2015). Peers, parents, and coaches, oh my! The relation of the motivational climate to boys' intention to continue in sport. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, *16*, 170–180. doi:10.1016/j.psychsport.2014.10.008.

Attanasio, O.P., & Kaufmann, K.M. (2014). Education choices and returns to schooling: Mothers' and youths' subjective expectations and their role by gender. *Journal of Development Economics*, *109*, 203–216. doi:10.1016/j.jdeveco.2014.04.003.

Babak Alavi, S., & McCormick, J. (2004). A cross-cultural analysis of the effectiveness of the Learning Organization model in school contexts. *International Journal of Educational Management, 18*(7), 408–416. doi:10.1108/09513540410563112.

Bear, G.G., Gaskins, C., Blank, J., & Chen, F.F. (2011). Delaware School Climate Survey-Student: Its factor structure, concurrent validity, and reliability. *Journal of School Psychology*, *49*(2), 157–74. doi:10.1016/j.jsp.2011.01.001.

Brault, M.-C., Janosz, M., & Archambault, I. (2014). Effects of school composition and school climate on teacher expectations of students: A multilevel analysis. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *44*, 148–159. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2014.08.008.

Butler, T., & Hamnett, C. (2012). Praying for success? Faith schools and school choice in East London. *Geoforum*, *43*(6), 1242–1253. doi:10.1016/j.geoforum.2012.03.010.

Byrne, M., Flood, B., Hassall, T., Joyce, J., Arquero Montaño, J.L., González González, J.M., & Tourna-Germanou, E. (2012). Motivations, expectations and preparedness for higher education: A study of accounting students in Ireland, the UK, Spain and Greece. *Accounting Forum*, *36*(2), 134–144. doi:10.1016/j.accfor.2011.12.001.

Chen, W.-W. (2015). The relations between perceived parenting styles and academic achievement in Hong Kong: The mediating role of students' goal orientations. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *37*, 48–54. doi:10.1016/j.lindif.2014.11.021.

Chung, Y.-C., Lin, C.-Y., Huang, C.-N., & Yang, J.-H. (2013). Perceptions on gender awareness and considerations in career choices of medical students in a medical school in Taiwan. *The Kaohsiung Journal of Medical Sciences*, *29*(11), 629–35. doi:10.1016/j.kjms.2013.01.014.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2003). *Research Methods in Education* (5th ed.). New York, NY: Taylor & Francis Group.

Creed, P. a., Conlon, E.G., & Zimmer-Gembeck, M.J. (2007). Career barriers and reading ability as correlates of career aspirations and expectations of parents and their children. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *70*(2), 242–258. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2006.11.001.

Creed, P.A., Patton, W., & Hood, M. (2010). Career development and personal functioning differences between work-bound and non-work bound students. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *76*(1), 37–41. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2009.06.004.

Delaney, L., Harmon, C., & Redmond, C. (2011). Parental education, grade attainment and earnings expectations among university students. *Economics of Education Review*, *30*(6), 1136–1152. doi:10.1016/j.econedurev.2011.04.004.

Edmark, K., Frölich, M., & Wondratschek, V. (2014). Sweden's school choice reform and equality of opportunity. *Labour Economics*, *30*, 129–142. doi:10.1016/j.labeco.2014.04.008.

Fletcher, J., Greenwood, J., & Parkhill, F. (2010). Are schools meeting their clients' expectations? Parents voice their perceptions about children learning to read in schools today. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *26*(3), 438–446. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2009.05.011.

Fraenkel, J.R., Wallen, N.E., & Hyun, H.H. (2012). *How to design and evaluate research in Education*. Singapore: McGraw-Hill.

Fucci, S., & Cavaletto, G.M. (2012). Educational Choices of the Elites. Autonomy and Responsibility of Italian and Foreign Children Between Family and School. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *46*, 4990–4994. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.06.373.

Gibbons, S. (2009). CEE DP 101 Access, Choice And Participation In Higher Education Anna Vignoles, (January).

Giirses, A., Kuzey, B., Mindivan, F., Dogar, Ç., Giine§, K., & Yolcu, H.H. (2011). Determining the relationship between students' choice of profession and mission and vision of their high school. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *15*, 2595–2598. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.04.152.

Glick, J.E., & White, M.J. (2004). Post-secondary school participation of immigrant and native youth: The role of familial resources and educational expectations. *Social Science Research*, *33*(2), 272–299. doi:10.1016/j.ssresearch.2003.06.001.

Goyette, K. a. (2008). College for some to college for all: Social background, occupational expectations, and educational expectations over time. *Social Science Research*, *37*(2), 461–484. doi:10.1016/j.ssresearch.2008.02.002.

Green, C.P., Navarro-Paniagua, M., Ximénez-de-Embún, D.P., & Mancebón, M.-J. (2014). School choice and student wellbeing. *Economics of Education Review*, *38*, 139–150. doi:10.1016/j.econedurev.2013.11.007.

Haimerl, C., & Fries, S. (2010). Self-fulfilling prophecies in media-based learning: Content relevance moderates quality expectation effects on academic achievement. *Learning and Instruction*, *20*(6), 498–510. doi:10.1016/j.learninstruc.2009.07.002.

Hardré, P.L., & Sullivan, D.W. (2008). Student differences and environment perceptions: How they contribute to student motivation in rural high schools. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *18*(4), 471–485. doi:10.1016/j.lindif.2007.11.010.

Hou, Z., & Leung, S.A. (2011). Vocational aspirations of Chinese high school students and their parents' expectations. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *79*(2), 349–360. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2011.05.008.

Ibrahim, N.M., Osman, M.M., & Bachok, S. (2014). Public School Development and Planning: Parents'

Criteria of Selecting Public School in Gombak District. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *153*, 274–285. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.10.061.

Lent, R.W., Paixão, M.P., Silva, J.T. Da, & Leitão, L.M. (2010). Predicting Occupational Interests and Choice Aspirations in Portuguese High School Students: A Test of Social Cognitive Career Theory. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *76*(2), 244–251. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2009.10.001.

Lent, R.W., Sheu, H.-B., Singley, D., Schmidt, J. a., Schmidt, L.C., & Gloster, C.S. (2008). Longitudinal relations of self-efficacy to outcome expectations, interests, and major choice goals in engineering students. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *73*(2), 328–335. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2008.07.005.

Leung, S.A., Zhou, S., Ho, E.Y.-F., Li, X., Ho, K.P., & Tracey, T.J.G. (2014). The use of interest and competence scores to predict educational choices of Chinese high school students. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *84*(3), 385–394. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2014.02.010.

Mahamood, S.F., Tapsir, R., Saat, A., Ahmad, S., Wahab, K.A., Boon, M.H.A., & Rahman, K.A. (2012). Parental Attitude and Involvement in Children's Education: A Study on the Parental Aspiration Among Form Four Students in Selangor. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *42*(July 2010), 117–130. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.04.173.

Mendolia, S., & Walker, I. (2014). The Effect of Personality Traits on Subject Choice and Performance in High School: Evidence from an English Cohort. *Economics of Education Review*, *43*, 47–65. doi:10.1016/j.econedurev.2014.09.004.

Meristo, M., & Eisenschmidt, E. (2014). Novice teachers' perceptions of school climate and self-efficacy. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *67*, 1–10. doi:10.1016/j.ijer.2014.04.003.

Mitchell, M.M., & Bradshaw, C.P. (2013). Examining classroom influences on student perceptions of school climate: The role of classroom management and exclusionary discipline strategies. *Journal of School Psychology*, *51*(5), 599–610. doi:10.1016/j.jsp.2013.05.005.

Navas, M.D.C.O. (2014). The Improvement of Employability Among Higher Education Students: The use of Emotional Intelligence as an Educational Strategy. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *139*, 380–386. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.08.021.

Neilson, G.R., & Mcnally, J. (2013). Nurse Education Today: The negative influence of significant others on high academic achieving school pupils 'choice of nursing as a career. *YNEDT*, *33*(3), 205–209. doi:10.1016/j.nedt.2012.02.019.

Pecháčková, Y., Navrátilová, Z., & Slavíková, P. (2014). Social Climate in the Environment of Primary Schools. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *112*(ICEEPSY 2013), 719–724. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.01.1222.

Popa, N.L. (2012). Perceptions of School Climate and Parental Behaviors Among Romanian Students From Migrant Families. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *47*(2007), 1368–1373. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.06.828.

Ravindran, S.D., & Kalpana, M. (2012). Student's Expectation, Perception and Satisfaction towards the Management Educational Institutions. *Procedia—Economics and Finance*, *2*(Af), 401–410. doi:10.1016/S2212–5671(12)00102–5.

Sahlan, A. (2014). Enhancement of Culture in Education: Research on Indonesian High School. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *143*(1), 117–121. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.07.371.

Sánchez-Medina, J. a., Macías-Gómez-Stern, B., & Martínez-Lozano, V. (2014). The value positions of school staff and parents in immigrant families and their implications for children's transitions between home and school in multicultural schools in Andalusia. *Learning, Culture and Social Interaction*, *3*(3), 217–223. doi:10.1016/j.lcsi.2014.02.013.

Siah, P.C., Ong, S.B.C., Tan, S.M., & Sim, C.P. (2014). Perception on Chinese values: A comparison of Chinese secondary students studying at national secondary schools and Chinese independent schools in Malaysia. *The Social Science Journal*. doi:10.1016/j.soscij.2014.08.006.

Sua, T.Y., Ngah, K., & Darit, S.M. (2013). Parental choice of schooling, learning processes and interethnic friendship patterns: The case of Malay students in Chinese primary schools in Malaysia. *International Journal of Educational Development*, *33*(4), 325–336. doi:10.1016/j.ijedudev.2012.09.002.

Vaughn, M.G., & Witko, C. (2013). Does the amount of school choice matter for student engagement? *The Social Science Journal*, *50*(1), 23–33. doi:10.1016/j.soscij.2012.07.004.

Vryonides, M., & Gouvias, D. (2012). Parents' aspirations for their children's educational and occupational prospects in Greece: The role of social class. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *53*, 319–329. doi:10.1016/j.ijer.2012.04.005.

Walker, M., & Clark, G. (2010). Parental choice and the rural primary school: Lifestyle, locality and loyalty. *Journal of Rural Studies*, *26*(3), 241–249. doi:10.1016/j.jrurstud.2009.12.002.

Walkey, F.H., McClure, J., Meyer, L.H., & Weir, K.F. (2013). Low expectations equal no expectations: Aspirations, motivation, and achievement in secondary school. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *38*(4), 306–315. doi:10.1016/j.cedpsych.2013.06.004.

Wang, M.T., & Degol, J. (2013). Motivational Pathways to STEM Career Choices: Using Expectancy-Value Perspective to Understand Individual and Gender Differences in STEM Fields. *Developmental Review : DR*, *33*(4), 304–340. doi:10.1016/j.dr.2013.08.001.

Wang, M.-T., & Eccles, J.S. (2013). School context, achievement motivation, and academic engagement: A longitudinal study of school engagement using a multidimensional perspective. *Learning and Instruction*, *28*, 12–23. doi:10.1016/j.learninstruc.2013.04.002.

Warren, J.R. (2010). Cobb, C.D. (2010). Review of "Graduation Rates for Choice and Public School Students in Milwaukee, 2003–2008." Boulder and Tempe: Education and the Public Interest Center & Education Policy Research Unit. Retrieved from http://epicpolicy.org/thi.

Wiswall, M., Stiefel, L., Schwartz, A.E., & Boccardo, J. (2014). Does attending a STEM high school improve student performance? Evidence from New York City. *Economics of Education Review*, *40*, 93–105. doi:10.1016/j.econedurev.2014.01.005.

Wölfel, O., & Heineck, G. (2012). Parental risk attitudes and children's secondary school track choice. *Economics of Education Review*, *31*(5), 727–743. doi:10.1016/j.econedurev.2012.05.004.

Yang, F.-Y., & Chang, C.-C. (2009). Examining High-school Students' Preferences Toward Learning Environments, Personal Beliefs and Concept Learning in Web-based Contexts. *Computers & Education*, *52*(4), 848–857. doi:10.1016/j.compedu.2008.12.008.

Zou, W., Anderson, N., & Tsey, K. (2013). Middle-class Chinese Parental Expectations for their Children's Education. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *106*, 1840–1849. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.12.209PE.

This page intentionally left blank

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

Religious practices in delinquents

Maisarah A. Malik, Abd Razak Zakaria & Abdul Muhsein Sulaiman
Department of Educational Foundations and Humanities, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: Too few studies have assessed the relationship between an individual and religiousity, which captured depth understanding of misbehavior, delinquency. This article investigates the role of religion in behavior before partaking in delinquency and how it is able to influence the decisions made in life. Moreover, this study focuses on the individual's religious practices from childhood, teen, and adult. Analysis is based on qualitative data set collected from 4 delinquents who are already convicted and still serving their sentences in the Henry Gurney School (juvenile school). This research uses focus group interviews and personal notes which are combined and arranged into N-vivo software. The research suggests that being close to parents benefit their religious practices and their childhood is more on religious practices compared to teen lives.

Keywords: religious; delinquents; practices; misbehavior

1 INTRODUCTION

Delinquency refers to unlawful acts which are committed by youth under 18 from all backgrounds and used as a common term to identify the scope of criminal behavior involving all types of status offenses (Felson, 2003; Warr, 2002) while delinquent is the youth committing the crime (Shoemaker, 2010). These acts are identified such as alcohol drinking and cigarette smoking, drug use, risky driving, early sexual activity also known as youth substances (U.S Congress, Office of Technology Assessment, Adolescent Health, 1991; Ferguson & Meehan, 2011), running away from home, truancy (Aras, Gunay, Ozan & Orcin, 2007), robbery, assault, rape, and homicide (U.S Department of Justice, 1998).

Delinquency appears to be occurring because of several factors and loads of research concerning on these delinquency acts, a few aspects can be viewed as factors especially those which directly involved in adolescent development such as family (Amato & Jacob, 2008) who has direct instruction on adolescent behaviors in the three main areas which are home life, a child's community, surroundings or neighborhood, and parents. Adding in school effectiveness (Smith & McVie, 2003; McAra, 2004) on certain dimension such as teachers attachment; student against student, student against teacher, teacher against teacher or teacher against student (Fuchs, 2009), commitment to school, school violence (Debarbieux, 2006) and peer pressure (Smith, 2004).

By highlighting factors of delinquency; Professionals have learnt a great deal about which risk and protective factors are relevant for screening and intervention. School programs such as "The Good Behavior Game" and "The Fast Track Program" (Herrenkohl et al., 2001) and "Communities That Care" by Hawkins and Catalano, 1992 are created for adolescents' surrounding. As the child grows older and becomes integrated into society, potential of new risk factors related to peer influences, the school, and the community begin to play a larger role. Although focusing on risk factors is important, examining protective factors that reduce the risk of delinquency is as important for identifying interventions that are likely to work. The promising intervention begins with school (Herrenkohl, Hawkins, Chung, Hill, & Battin-Pearson, 2001) recommend a few such as conflict resolution and violence prevention curriculums, bullying prevention, after school recreation programs, mentoring programs, and school organization programs. Other interventions which focus on the surroundings are Parent Management Training (Patterson, Reid, & Dishion, 1992) and Functional Family Therapy (Sexton and Alexander, 2000); both interventions focus on the family while peer interventions (Coie and Miller-Johnson, 2001).

Even though delinquency issues happened in each part of the world, still Malaysia is a unique country, which is multi-racial as it has the Malays (53.3%), who are Muslims and form the majority in the country; while the other two main racial groups are the Chinese (26.0%), who generally follow Buddhism and Confucianism while the Indians (7.7%), who mostly follow Hinduism; clearly these races blended their cultures structures to

form Malaysia's uniqueness and diversity heritage (Ishak, 2009; Jamil & Abd Razak, 2010). Thus, religion is one of the important aspects in Malaysia as and can be said as the focal point is Malaysian context, therefore, studies related to religion bring an advantage to a country like Malaysia or other similar countries. Moreover, there aren't any religions that promote misbehavior, so it is relevant to say that being religious helps an individual to be a righteous person.

By reflecting on the purposes, religion can be used as a tool to help prevent high-risk urban youths from delinquent behavior and give them a greater sense of empathy toward others (Johnson, Corbett & Harris; 2001). Thus, additional investigation on religion factors are needed to better understand factors behind delinquency acts. However, this research is mainly focused on a few selected felonious who are already arrested or behind bars. Researchers need to examine their history of lives, how do they got involved in crime and does religion plays a role in their decision.

2 RESEARCH FOCUS

Delinquency is definitely a common issue involving the youth and it is happening around the world and relatively a lot studies have specifically examined the affect of economy to these delinquencies misbehavior. Socio-economy statuses either in urban or rural areas have the influences on individuals to participate in crime (Fergusson, Swain-Campbell, Horwood, 2004, Wilkinson, & Pickett, 2009, Tesser, 1995). This can easily be understood as the world requires money to live and even be the setter to one's status among the citizen. Some felonious plainly act in crime because they needed to, they steal because money is required. (Siegel, 2005: Horstkotter, Beghman, Corine, Krumeich & Guido, 2005) while some because they are jealous or to fulfill their needs. However, Machin & Meghir (2004) stress that not only insecure economy and low wages but also the environment of the neighborhood aids the act of delinquencies.

Tonnes of emergent data derived from a qualitative study indicates that the delinquents are acting accordingly to their environment, neighborhood; it just happened to them (Horstkotter et al. 2005). Earlier studies (Sampson, Jeffery & Thomas, 2002; Hoffman 2002) concludes that disorder and less facilities neighborhood is likely to be recognized as crime area due to insufficient facilities and less connection between the neighbor; disorganized area affect the social activities among the neighborhood. Nevertheless, continued study also showed that disorganized areas not only affecting the economy but also the social aspect called "Collective efficacy"; (Sampson, 2006) residents who concern and engage in each other lives. Destroying collective efficacy will make a huge turn to delinquency. Another related factor with the neighborhood is the environmental factors like parents and peers (Caspi, Brent & Rebecca, 2005).

Some studies during early 20th, suggest environmental interferences such as parenting and peer factors do shape an individual to become a delinquent (Garnier, Stein, 2002 & Maxwell, 2002). In some longitudinal studies (Farrington, 2002, Loeber, 2008, Farrington, Coid, & Murray, 2009) highlight on family (parenting, reinforcement or motivation) becoming predictors in a child's conviction. These surveys show that if a family member is charged with a crime or arrested due to misbehavior, the potential of a younger member to commit crime later in their behavior development is high. In relation to Mc Ara & Mc Vie (2005) who emphasizes on the term called "usual suspect", once a person is seen as a trouble maker, the label will stay along with them even though the suspect tries to be better. This results in no effort being made to change to be better.

Other studies show that peers also play vital roles in misbehavior particularly throughout their adolescence years as peers share most of their amount of time together compared to family (Regnerus, 2002). On top of that, peer promotes various types of crime based on their age instances; addicting to illegal substances may happen in middle school and while bullying by not befriending with someone has happened in primary. There are types of delinquents, which requires them to be in group with the people they know such as vandalism and bullying; definitely involving peers (Wright, Nichols, Graber, Brooks-Gun, & Botvin, 2004). Nonetheless, Smith (2004) indicates a link between being a prey or victim regularly changing them to be the offender, part of it because they spent too much time with their friends in school.

Apart from family and school, Smith (2006) mentioned that school affects the later development of misbehavior pattern and criminal acts. There is a wide agreement that school is part of delinquency and crime but with different aspects; for example, school climate, teachers' perception, and school economic support. Some researches center the school climate, which permits delinquency and range of crimes; such as truancy, bullying, drugs, and vandalism (Carra, 2009, Jenkin, 1997, & Karworski, 2008). While other researches investigate on the community within the school such as peers and teachers (Smith, 2006, & Siege, 2005). Even though both are looking at the same aspect, they

both end up with slightly different results. Smith (2006) mentions that an attachment between students and teachers are related to lower the level of misbehavior whereas Siege (2005) indicates that usually people starts to label an individual after involve in crime such as "pervert", "thief", or even "rapist" even after the person was out from prison. The label starts to follow and makes it hard for the person to change into a better person and sometimes use it as an excuse to commit crime in future.

For these reasons, the meaning of delinquency has been discussed in almost all factors such as economy status, neighborhood, and environmental aspects; family and peers, a few criteria of school; the climate, the relationship between teachers and the economic status. However, what remains to be explored is a study in relation to religion and focus Malaysia's delinquency issues. Despite an increasing interest studies and cases on delinquencies in Malaysia, it is surprising to know that only a few research on the matter have been done especially in the perspective of religion; Islam. Very few studies have focused on the impact of religion and delinquency acts among Malaysian descriptively and conceptually.

Hence, this study positively gives new data or variables, which can help to minimize delinquency issues in future. Regnerus (2003) reveals that helpful influence of religion in youth help them to promote positive prosocial outcomes. Most of the studies focus on delinquents' outside factors and less on the spiritual insight. This research will focus on the delinquents' lives' experiences as well as religion in their lives, their family, friends, and school practices. The main focus is to understand how an individual decides to be a delinquent and how much religion plays a role in their behavior during their childhood, teenager, and adult eras.

3 RESEARCH PURPOSES

This research aims to understand an individual's way of living during childhood before participating in delinquency and the beginning of religious practices in their lives and the person who influenced them the most in religion aspects.

4 OBJECTIVES

The objectives of the research are:

1. to know how Islam is taught throughout their lives, childhood and teen.
2. to see in which phase of lives the religious practices are well taught into their lives.

5 METHODOLOGY

Research is a process consisting of a few systematic steps to understand various aspects of the world (Hancock, Ockleford & Windridge, 2009; Creswell, 2007; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007; Merriam, 1998). This particular research is to comprehend how the religion affects an individual's decision in misbehavior. The whole process is specified to remark these research questions: (i) How religion practices are taught in their lives in each era of lives; a) Childhood and b) Teenager, (ii) In which phase, the religious practices are well taught to these delinquents. This chapter is conducted in a school which is controlled under The Prison Department of Malaysia and using qualitative approaches as the main method. Both interview and personal notes are used in collecting the data. Group Interview consisting of four participants for about two hours are listened to thoroughly by three researchers assisted by an expert of the matter. The expert is used to ensure the trustworthiness in collecting data as no visual recording is allowed. While personal notes consisting of a few questions related to the study are distributed to each delinquent and they are asked to write down the answers. Researchers seriously take ethics as an important matter, thus, all personal notes are confidential and participants are reminded not to put any initial or nicknames on their paper. The interviews are transcribed and personal notes are typed out and later arrange in the Nvivo 9 software to accommodate and to combine the data and also to see the patterns through the systems. The strategy taken to increase data trustworthiness and also ethical issue faced by the researcher.

6 FINDINGS

Producing a perfect child has been a dream to all married couples and sometimes to those who are not married too. We are living based on several main essential aspects such as financial, physically healthy condition, mental stability, and even religiousity. Religion is seen as a guideline to ensure an individual to stay righteous so that there would not be any negative influence or incidents to happen.

This study indicates ***parent as the main agent*** and ***in theory*** at the beginning of childhood especially in educating religious practices. All participants agreed that parents are the main roles that always applying religious advices in their lives; however, three of them specifically mentioned "mom" who influenced them the most.

"My mom. She always reminds me to follow my dad to the mosque and evensending me personally to class teaching me to read ***Al-Quran*** (Muslim bible)"

"I think my mom. She always asks me to join her each time she wants to pray. I remembered she called me and teach me ***wudhu***."

"Both of my parents always teach me about religious practices but my dad was not always around, he is a lorry driver. So, my mom will be the one who always send me to religious class and even teach me how to recite Al-Quran."

Referring to the above, all participants agreed that their childhood is more observed and reminded compared to the teenagers and adults. Nevertheless, half of the participants indicate that their childhood was more on obeying and practicing the practices. Additionally, being a child at that time requires them to follow instructions and ***caning*** was part of the parents teaching methods.

"I think my childhood is strict because my mom will **cane** me if I did not perform my prayer (***shalat***)"

"My parents are strict but I know it is for my own good. Once, I lied to them, I went to play bicycle than attending my religious class (reciting Al-Quran), my sister told my dad and my dad **cane** my legs. It hurts a lot but since that day, I never miss my class."

Besides that, participants also mentioned that in their teenager years there was more freedom than childhood due to their proximity and distances with their parents. All of them stressed how their teen lives are far different from their childhood. All of them agreed that religious practices start to lose it grips.

"I feel more freedom during my teen life compared to childhood. None of my friends ever advice me to pray or anything."

"Teen. When I was a child, I have to always report myself; what am I doing, where am I going but when I started to work, I don't have to do them anymore. Sometimes when I called my mom or visit them, she did advice me not to forget ***shalat*** but when I am on my own, I don't do it"

"Erm my parents passed away when I was 10, then I lived with my grandfather. My grandfather is not strict like my dad. So my teen life is more freedom and no one really care about my religious practices."

"Teen. I quit school when I was 14. I started to work at a cyber cafe in the city. My parents are in the village. Erm my friend never remind me to pray and I did not to."

7 DISCUSSION

In growing up, there are several phases of life; childhood, teen, and adulthood. These three phases definitely influence and trigger an individual maturity in making choices either independent or dependent decision. On top of that, religion is also an element of knowledge, which needs to be instilled in individuals and these three phases of lives do differ the degree of applying religious practices. Most childhoods are dominated by the parents or adults and the degree of knowledge imparted to them is depending on the people surrounding them, which are mostly adults, parents, teachers, or the community. However, there are individuals who received great religious attention from the parents but being blocked by other factors such as friends. The control starts to lose when they enter the second phase where friends, entertainment and other influences are setting into their lives. As a result, parents slowly start to lose the grip over their child and be more understanding or supportive. The roles of planting religious practices turns to facilitating either they implement them or not. Undeniably, childhood religious practices are more secure compared to teen phase and usually, teen is the stage where people judge the success of parents in raising the children.

In comparing both stages; childhood and teen lives, most participants feel that they started to change when they entered their teen lives. They believed that being far from the parents allows them to act freely as if there are fewer eyes watching their movement. In addition, there are no loud voices instructing them to "shalat" or recite Al-Quran. Moreover, as the parents get older, their strictness and firmness gets older too. This results to no punishments being taken if they did not perform any religious practices, which is different from their childhood lives.

This study can offer a lot but some limitation drawn by the gate keeper limits the depth to be discovered by the researcher. Some limitation such as no visual recording and time provided to affect the process. These two elements are worth fighting for in future research in furthering to understand the delinquency in the aspect of religion because religion is one of the basic needs in human lives; thus, it is relevant to study the matter. Apart from that, there are issues such as time consuming and practices. As this study involves certain organization with high security, the researcher does need to pass a few gate keepers and it takes a lot of time to settle for permission to access the school as well as the participants. As this involves interviewing participants who are already convicted and are still serving their punishments, it will be a bit high

affective to filter for both parties researcher and participants. Hence, it is valuable if researcher manages to do a few rounds of pilot study or meeting just to enhance trust and even practices skills to interview them well. Therefore, future research will be conducted related to the variables but more in depth.

REFERENCES

Amato, Paul R. and Jacob E. Cheadle. (2008). "Parental Divorce, Marital Conflict and Children's Behavior Problems: A Comparison of Adopted and Biological Children." *Social Forces* 85(3): 1141–1161.

Aras, Ş., Günay,T., Özan, S. & Orçın, E. (2007). Risky behaviors among high school students in İzmir. *Anatolian Journal of Psychiatry*, 8, 186–196.

Carra, C. (2009). Pour une approche contexturelle de la violence: Le role du la climat de cole. *International Journal of Violence and School*, 8, 2–23.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education*. New York: Routledge.

Coie, J.D., and Miller-Johnson, S. (2001). Peer factors and interventions. In Child Delinquents: Development, Intervention, and Service Needs. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, 191–209.

Creswell, J.W. (2007). Qualitative inquiry & research design: choosing among five approaches. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Debarbieux, E. (2006). *Violence à l'école: un défi mondial?* Paris: Armand Colin.

Farrington, D.P. (2002). Families and crime. In J.Q. Wilson & J. Petersilia (Eds), Crime: *Public policies for crime control*, 2, 129–148.

Farrington, D.P., Coid, J.W. & Murray, J. (2009). Family factors in the intergenerational transmission of offending. *Criminal Behavior And Mental Health*, 19(2), 109–124.

Felson, M. (2003). The process of co-offending. *Crime Prevention Studies*, 16, 149–167.

Fergusson, D., Swain-Campbell, N. and Horwood, J. (2004). How does childhood economic disadvantage lead to crime? *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 45(5), 956–966.

Ferguson, C.J., and Meehan, D.C. (2011). With friends like these.. .: Peer delinquency influences across age cohorts on smoking, alcohol and illegal substance use. *European Psychiatry*, 26, 6–12.

Fuchs, M. (2009). Impact of school context on violence at schools. A multi-level analysis. *International Journal on Violence and Schools*, 7(1), 20–42.

Garnier, H.E. & Stein, J.A. (2002). An 18-year model of family and peer effects on adolescent drug use and delinquency, *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 31(1), 45–56.

Hancock, B., Ockleford, E., & Windridge, K. (2009). *An introduction to qualitative research*. National Institute for Health Research. The NIHR Research Design Service for the East Midlands.

Hawkins, J.D., and Catalano, R.F. (1992). *Communities That Care*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Herrenkohl, T.I., Hawkins, J.D., Chung, I.J., Hill, K.G., and Battin-Pearson, S. 2001. *School and community risk factors and interventions. In Child Delinquents: Development, Intervention, and Service Needs*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc., pp. 211–246.

Hoffman, J.P. (2002). A contextual analysis of differential association, social control, and strain theories of delinquency. *Social Forces* 81, 753–785.

Horstkotter, D., Beghman, R., Corine de Ruiter, Krumeich, A. & Guido de Wert. (2005). We are also normal humans, you know? View and attitude of juvenile delinquents on antisocial behavior, neurobiology and prevention. *International Journal of Law and Psychiatry*, 35, 289–297.

Jenkins, P.H. (1997). School delinquency and the school social bond. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 34(3), 337–367.

Johnson, B.R., Ronald, P., Corbett, Jr., & Kay M.H. (2001). *Reviewing and clarifying the role of religion in reducing crime and delinquency*, 65(3). Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Karwowski, M. (2008). Creative climate as a preventive factor for youths' risk behaviors. *New Educational Review*, 16 (3–4), 175–184.

Machin, S. & Meghir, C. (2004). Crime and economic incentives. *Journal of Human Resources*, 39(4).

Maxwell, J.A. (1996). Qualitative research design: An interactive approach. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

McAra, L. (2004). Truancy, school exclusion, and substance misuse. *Edinburgh Study of Youth Transitions and Crime Research Findings,* No. 4.

Merriam, S.B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education* (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Montgomery, K.L., Thompson, S.J. & Barcyzk, A.N. (2011). Individual and relationship factors associated with delinquency among throwaway adolescent. *Children and Youth Service Review*, 33, 1127–1133.

Patterson, G.R., Reid, J.B., and Dishion,T.J. (1992). Antisocial Boys.Eugene, OR:Castalia.

Patton, M.Q. (2002). Two decades of developments in qualitative inquiry. *Qualitative Social Work*, 1, 261–283.

Regnerus, M.D. (2002). Friends influences on adolescent theft and minor delinquency: A developmental test of peer-reported effects. *Social Science Research*, 31, 681–705.

Sampson, R.J., Morenoff, J.D., Gannon-Rowley, & Thomas. (2002). Assessing "Neighborhood Effects": Social processes and new directions in research. *Annual Review of Sociology* 51, 443–478.

Shoemaker, D.J. (2010). *Theories of Delinquency*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Siegel, L.J. (2005). *Criminology*. California: Thomson Wardsworth.

Smith, D.J. (2004). The links between victimization and offending. *Edinburgh Study* of Youth Transitions and Crime Research Findings No. 5.

Smith, D.J. and McVie, S. (2003). 'Theory and methods in the Edinburgh Study of Youth Transitions and Crime'. *British Journal of Criminology*, 43(1), 169–195.

Tesser, A. (1995). *Advanced Social Psychology*. Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Warr, M. (2002). Companions in crime: The Social Aspect of criminal conduct. New York: Cambridge University.

Wilkinson, R., & Pickett, K. (2009). The spirit level: Why more equal societies almost always do better. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 11:1, 129–134.

Wright, A.J., Nichols, T.R., Graber, J.A., Brooks-Gun, J. & Botvin, G.J. (2004). It's not what you say, it's how many different you can say it: Link between divergent peer resistance skill and delinquency a year later. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 35, 380–391.

Yin, R.K. (2008). *Case study research design and method*. California: Sage Publication Inc.

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

Mental health literacy among undergraduate students in selected universities in Malaysia

Rafidah Aga Mohd Jaladin, Ngu Ka Yun & Ida Hartina Ahmed Tharbe
Department of Educational Psychology and Counselling, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: This study examines general knowledge of mental health literacy among undergraduate students from selected public and private universities in Malaysia, differences between art stream and science stream of the undergraduate students on mental health literacy, their help-seeking intention and their stigmatising attitudes towards people with mental illness. A total of 80 undergraduate students had participated in this study. A questionnaire on "Attitudes and Beliefs about Mental Health Problems: Professional and Public Views" had been distributed to the participants through a snowball sampling technique. The result of the study showed that general knowledge of mental health literacy among undergraduate students was low-to-moderate. However, there was no significant difference between art stream and science stream undergraduate students. The findings of this study promoted understanding on mental health literacy among undergraduate students and could assist in developing counselling services that are more responsive to their need.

Keywords: mental health literacy; undergraduate student

1 INTRODUCTION

Health literacy has been the focus of research in the health sector but mental health literacy has only been specifically studied by a few researchers. Health literacy provides knowledge to the public on the prevention, diagnosis, and treatment of diseases. People can carry out early intervention when they detect early warning signs of a disease and get proper treatment for major physical diseases. On the contrary, most of the people were lacking of knowledge on proper prevention measures and management of mental disorders (Jorm, 2000). As a result, treatments are often being delayed, resisted or questioned with suspicion. The general public is also uncertain on how to assist those with mental disorders.

Jorm et al. (1997) observed this phenomenon and tried to draw attention to that area. Therefore, he and his colleagues created the term "mental health literacy" and defined it as "the knowledge and beliefs about mental disorders which aid recognition, management or prevention". Mental health literacy is further divided into six components which are (a) the ability to recognize specific mental disorders or different types of psychological distress, (b) knowledge and beliefs about risk factors and causes, (c) knowledge and beliefs about self-help interventions, (d) knowledge and beliefs about professional help available, attitudes which promote appropriate help-seeking, and (e) recognition and knowledge of ways to obtain mental health information (Jorm, 2000).

Jorm recognised the importance of the ability of an individual to diagnose specific mental disorders in facilitating early treatment. Most people with mental disorder are having insufficient professional knowledge about it during their first attack and therefore unable to identify the early sign of mental disorder. They respond to the disorder according to their own judgement and beliefs about the causes of illness. For example, beliefs in supernatural causes will result in greater use of traditional healers and poorer compliance with medication, resulting in a delay of proper treatment (Jorm, 2000; Jorm, 2012).

In most situations, self-help skills are important especially for those who are unwilling to seek professional help during mental attack. Generally, the public rate professional help negatively. Most of them prefer 'natural' remedies to professional help. This will often lead to resistance to seek medical help and lack of compliance with any medication recommended. Knowledge on how to seek proper mental health information is important for an individual to learn where to get help as well as how

to do self-help intervention towards specific mental disorder. Sometimes, self-help strategies can be used under the guidance of healthcare professionals for better control of mental disorders (A. F. Jorm, 2000; Anthony F. Jorm, 2012).

Furthermore, public attitude can affect the treatment of mental disorders. Social support from family and friends is regarded as important in improving mental health conditions. However, if the person who suffers mental disorders is surrounded by friends and relatives that are having prejudice or reluctant to discuss about mental disorders, he or she will be unable to seek treatment for specific mental disorders (A. F. Jorm, 2000; Anthony F. Jorm, 2012). Supportive family and friends can help people with mental disorders to cope with their illness better.

The intent of this study was also to find out the way to bring up awareness among public on mental health literacy. The researcher wished to come out with some tips for public to learn the self-help skills on early symptoms of mental disorders, as well as being supportive to those who suffer from mental disorders.

1.1 *Statement of problem*

Mental health literacy is knowledge and beliefs about mental disorders which help an individual to recognise, manage or prevent from mental disorders. Because of high prevalence of mental disorders over human's lifetime, it has been argued that everyone has the possibility of develop one of these disorders themselves or getting in contact with someone who has mental disorder. Early awareness on this potential can help us cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to his or her community (WHO, August 2014). Previous research related to mental health literacy focused on five perspectives: individual's ability to recognize disorders in order to facilitate help seeking; knowledge of professional help and treatments available; knowledge of effective self-help strategies; knowledge and skills to give first aid; and support to others and knowledge of how to prevent mental disorders (Loureiro et al., 2013).

According to previous research, mental health literacy level is associated with a higher level of depression symptoms (Lam, 25 September 2014). Severe depression will also lead to complete suicide (Andrew, 5 August 2014). The suicide rate in Malaysia is about 1.3 for every 100000 people from 2007 to 2010,without including the unreported suicide cases (Joseph Sipalan, 29 May 2013). This situation shows the importance of examine the mental health literacy among Malaysians. I choose young adult who are undergraduates as my research target because they are in the transition state from adolescence to adult, and hence they are having challenges from being independent from family, to earn academic qualification, and to build up their social status. However, the mental health literacy is not being emphasized and instilled in their study, and thus mental health literacy among undergraduates in Malaysia will be low.

Overview the Malaysian education system, we are more academic based and less emphasize on mental health literacy. Students can only gain very little knowledge on mental health in some of the course subjects. As we know, Malaysian education system consists of two major academic streams which are art stream and science stream. Science stream students have higher opportunity exposed to courses that promote information on mental health literacy, such as Biology. Thus, science stream undergraduates will present better mental health literacy than art stream students.

According to a Malaysian research, the outcome expectation of an individual will influence his willingness to seek counselling (Ibrahi & Ahmad, 2013). Thus, help-seeking intention among Malaysians is also important for this study since it may influence the readiness of Malaysians to gain help in mental health aspect. According to a study, Asians were having more negative counselling attitudes which hindered their willingness in seeking help from counsellor (Yakunina, 2012). In accordance with this, the undergraduates' help-seeking intention may be low.

1.2 *Research objectives*

This research attempts to identify the mental health literacy among undergraduate students in a public university in Malaysia. Specifically the study is aimed at:

a. Identifying their mental health literacy.
b. Determining whether there are significant differences in mental health literacy among undergraduate students enrolled in different academic stream.
c. Finding out the undergraduate students' intention in seeking help from professionals on mental health issues.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 *Concept of mental health literacy*

According to Jorm et.al. (1997) defined mental health literacy as "knowledge and beliefs about mental disorders which aid their recognition, management or prevention". This definition had been widely used in many researches until now. Mental

health literacy comprises several components which are (a) knowledge on how to prevent mental disorders; (b) knowledge about the diagnosis of mental disorders; (c) knowledge of help-seeking options and treatments available, (d) knowledge of effective self-help strategies for milder problems, and (e) first aid skills to support others who are developing a mental disorder or are in a mental health crisis.

Many people have insufficient knowledge of the major risk factors of mental health disorders. Some risk factors are traumatic life events, association between cannabis use and risk of psychosis, and the role of parenting. In addition, there is also a lack of research which examines community beliefs about prevention measures. Both experts and communities agree on a number of activities that can help to prevent mental disorders such as physical activity, keeping in contact with family and friends, avoiding use of substances, and making time for relaxing activities. Additionally, the professionals suggest that avoiding stressful situations is important to prevent mental disorders.

Many people have delayed or failed to get professional help when they have mental disorders. One of the reasons for this situation is the lack of recognition about mental health literacy. This will worsen the conditions of those who suffered from mental disorders. Moreover, most of the people have their first onset of mental disorders during adolescence or early adulthood. At that period of age, people are usually underdeveloped in terms of their knowledge and experience. As a result, young people need the guidance of their parents or other supportive adults to provide them with information about their disorders and professional help available. Parental guidance can greatly increase the chance of getting early treatment and prevent the conditions of the patients from getting worse.

Moreover, self-help strategies can be used under the guidance of health professionals. People often view self-help as a better strategy than professional mental disorder treatments. Some of the strategies can help an individual to decrease their levels of anxiety and depression whereas some strategies are less helpful in certain situations. Most of the people will choose to apply self-help strategies when their level of depression is low and prefer professional help only when their depressions become more severe.

Furthermore, people should equip themselves with knowledge and first-aid skills to help those with mental disorders. Most of the people who experience mental disorder will not be able to draft out what is happening to them and thus fail to seek help from appropriate sources. In this situation, family members play an important role in providing social support to an individual who is suspected to have mental disorder. The patients will be more likely to seek professional help if someone close to them suggests it to them. However, there are not much strategies available to improve mental health first aid skills and educate the public about this kind of knowledge. Therefore, it is necessary to increase the mental first aid knowledge and skills of the public so that they can assist an individual with mental health disorders.

2.2 *Knowledge on mental health literacy*

There were some researches which had been done on young people and proved that young people had insufficient knowledge on mental health literacy. For instance, a survey was carried out on 4938 Portuguese youths to evaluate their mental literacy about depression. This survey involved questions about recognition of the disorder, knowledge of professional help and treatments available, knowledge of effective self-help strategies, knowledge and skills to five first aid methods and support to others, and knowledge on the prevention of mental disorders. The results showed that mental health literacy among Portuguese youth was unsatisfactory and thus, program related to mental health literacy is needed (Loureiro et al., 2013).

Another study applied population-based cross-sectional health survey. This kind of survey utilise a two-stage random cluster sampling design. It was done in China on 1678 high school children aged between 13–17 years. The results showed that the students failed to identify depression. The researchers also suggested that an inadequate mental health literacy level is associated with a higher level of depression symptoms (Lam, 25 September 2014).

In the United States, a study was done on 193 students from four middle schools in different parts of the United States. A self-report questionnaires concerning knowledge, attitudes and social distance related to mental illness was used in this study. The results showed that the recognition of mental health disorder among middle school students was low. However, the results showed some inconsistency and thus may vary with different types of disorders (Wahl, Susin, Lax, Kaplan, & Zatina, July 2012).

Apart from that, gender is also one of the factors which can cause an impact on mental health literacy. A cluster-controlled trial research had been done in Norwegian. Pre-test on both control and intervention group had been done and followed by three-day intervention. Two months after the pre-test, follow-up study was performed in both intervention and control schools. This study involved 1070 students from secondary schools with the age of 13–15 years old. The results showed that girls and older

adolescents scored higher in recognising the symptom profile of mental disorders and also had lower levels of prejudiced beliefs (Skre et al., 2013).

Moreover, another study was carried out in United Kingdom to examine the extent to which mental health literacy of depression is influenced by individual psychological differences. This study was conducted by surveying 1218 general public of age 18–78. The results showed that respondents were indicated that a female was easier suffer from mental health disorder compared to male (Swami, November 2012).

Furthermore, a study was done on 400 university students from four British universities. The results proved that females who were emotionally intelligent, open-to-experience, and studied relevant academic subjects were better informed in mental illness. This study was carried out by using survey and other sources such as NEO Personality Inventory ad Trait Emotional Intelligence (Furnham, Cook, Martin, & Batey, 2011).

2.3 *Community attitudes towards people with mental illness*

Although sometimes community will accept people with mental disorders, they may still holding stereotyping beliefs and attitudes. A cross-sectional mental health literacy survey had been done in late 2007 on 240 systematically-sampled community members and 60 purposively-sampled village health workers. The results showed that there exists some false beliefs and negative attitudes of community towards those with mental disorder (Kermode, Bowen, Arole, Pathare, & Jorm, 2009).

Another cross-sectional descriptive design was carried out in India to compare the attitudes towards mental illness among undergraduate students. 268 undergraduate students enrolled in nursing courses and Bachelor of Business Management courses were asked to complete Attitude Scale for Mental Illness (ASI) and the Opinions about Mental Illness in the Chinese Community (OMICC) questionnaires. The results showed that their attitudes towards those with mental illness were significantly depending on the course that they enrolled (Vijayalakshmi, Reddy, Math, & Thimmaiah, 2013).

2.4 *Other researches in Malaysia*

There are some researches done in Malaysia which are related to mental health literacy. There were two researches which examined public knowledge and beliefs about depression among urban and rural Malays and Chinese in Malaysia. Questionnaire which presented two cases of depression and a series of items about the causes and best treatments for depression had been delivered to 153 urban and 189 rural Malays participants. The results of the study showed that urban participants use psychiatric labels (depression) whereas rural participants used generic terms (emotional distress) to describe the two vignettes (Swami, Loo, & Furnham, 2010). In another study, 409 participants were requested to fulfil the same task like what was done in the study mentioned above. The results showed that Chinese Malaysians presented moderate depression literacy (Loo & Furnham, 2012). These two study provided some information about the mental health literacy among Malaysians.

A cross sectional and descriptive population-based survey used questionnaires with 21 items validated to explore the perception among Malaysians about the causes of depression. 1037 respondents from Pulau Penang, Malaysia had been approached for research purpose. 843 completed questionnaires were analyzed and the results showed that most of the participants neglected the biological reasons of depression. This would hinder their ability to seek help at the early stage of depression (Khan, Sulaiman, & Hassali, 2009).

Research on caregivers had also been carried out in Malaysia. In 2008, 24 family caregivers were involved in a study through semi-structured interviews. This study had listed out the benefits of using mental health services and barriers to access these services. Through this study, it was shown that mental health services in Malaysia can help to provide mental health literacy to the caregivers. The health services allowed the caregivers to gain information and practical knowledge on mental health literacy. Besides, they also received emotional support through counselling service (Mohamad et al., 2011).

3 METHODOLOGY

3.1 *Research site and participants*

Participants whom had been selected are undergraduate students from University of Malaya. A total of 80 undergraduate students had been randomly chosen as samples, with 34 females and 46 males. Snowball sampling had been used in this study.

3.2 *Instrumentation*

A cover letter was attached to the survey to explain the purpose of the study, its relevance and obtain their agreement to participate in this study. The survey used in this study was divided into Part A: background questionnaire and Part B: Attitudes

and Beliefs about Mental Health Problems: Professional and Public Views.

In Part A, the information which had been collected are participants' age, gender, ethnicity, residential area, father's and mother's occupation and educational level, participants' year of study, faculty and their bachelor degree which they were currently enrolled in.

In Part B, it is a questionnaire which Prof. Anthony Jorm used for the 2011 National Survey of Mental Health Literacy and Stigma. The questions which had been listed in the questionnaire are the self-completed questionnaires that Prof. Anthony Jorm and his group used for parallel postal survey of mental health professionals in Australia. The questionnaire had been further translated, adapted and validated for Malaysia population.

The questionnaire had been divided into 6 sections. Question 1 is to examine the ability of participants in recognised the mental health disorder which related to the situation given. Question 2 and 3 are about the help-seeking beliefs and intentions. Question 4 is about first aid intentions and beliefs/self-help strategies. Question 5 and 6 are examining participants' beliefs about outcomes, causes and prevention.

3.3 *Research design*

A cross-sectional quantitative study had been carried out through delivery of the questionnaire through social media. The questionnaire is a self-completion version of the interview schedule used for the national survey of Australian adults in 2011. With the permission of Prof Anthony Jorm, we used the questionnaire as our measurement in examining the mental health literacy among undergraduate students in a public university in Malaysia. The questionnaire had been transferred to google questionnaire and send to the undergraduate students from a public university.

3.4 *Data collection procedures*

The link of the google questionnaire was shared to undergraduate students from a public university by using social media. Undergraduate students had been requested to fill in the questionnaires voluntarily. The result of the study had been assigned with numerical values and transferred to Microsoft Excel 2013 and SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) for data analysis.

3.5 *Data analysis procedures*

Analysis of the questionnaire had been done by using Microsoft Excel 2013 and SPSS version 22 (SPSS, 2013). The frequencies and percentages of nominal variables such as gender, race/ethnicity, and years of study of the participants will be calculated. After that, the analysis of the questionnaire had been calculated by using frequencies and percentages. The general knowledge of mental health literacy among art stream students and science stream students had been compared in SPSS by using t-test.

4 RESULTS

The findings are divided into several parts: (a) demographic variables, (b) ability of undergraduate students in recognising specific mental illness, (c) comparison of the ability in recognising specific mental illness among art stream and science stream undergraduate students, (d) general help-seeking intention among undergraduate students

4.1 *Demographic variables*

There were 80 undergraduate students from University of Malaya participated in this study. The sample included 46 males (57.5%) and 34 females (42.5%). The age range of the participants was 20 to 25 with a mean of age 22.46 (SD = 1.23). There were 72 Chinese (90.00%), 5 Malays (6.25%) and 3 Indians (3.75%) involved in this study. Among the participants, it was found that 34 participants (42.50%) are studying art stream courses whereas 46 participants (57.50%) studying science stream courses. There were 8 first year undergraduate students (10.00%), 15 second year undergraduate students (18.75%), 30 third year undergraduate students (37.50%) and 27 final year undergraduate students (33.75%) participated in this study. Table 1 showed the frequencies and percentages for these demographic variables.

4.2 *Ability of undergraduate students in recognising specific mental illness*

The ability of undergraduate students in recognising the mental illness was calculated. There were 28 participants (35.00%) successfully recognised the vignette which presented as depression, followed by medical diagnosis such as stress, insomnia and Anorexia Nervosa (28, 35.00%), non-medical diagnosis such as family problem, love problem, sick and 'emo' (18, 22.50%) and unsure (6, 7.50%).

4.3 *Comparison of the ability in recognising specific mental illness among art stream and science stream undergraduate students*

The recognition level among art stream undergraduate students (34, 42.50%) and science stream undergraduate students (46, 57.50%) was compared

Table 1. Frequencies and percentages of responses to demographic variables.

Descriptive Variable		Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender			
	Male	46	57.50
	Female	34	42.50
Ethnicity			
	Malay	5	6.25
	Chinese	72	90.00
	Indian	3	3.75
Course			
	Art Stream	34	42.50
	Science Stream	46	57.50
Years of Study			
	First Year	8	10.00
	Second Year	15	18.75
	Third Year	30	37.50
	Final Year	27	33.75

Note: n = 80.

Table 2. Frequencies data about general knowledge of mental health among undergraduate students.

Diagnosis	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Depression/Depressed/ MDD	28	35.00
Medical Diagnosis	28	35.00
Non-medical Diagnosis	18	22.50
Not sure	6	7.50

Table 3. Comparison among art stream and science stream undergraduate students on recognising specific disorder.

	Course			
	Art Stream	Science Stream	*T*	*Df*
Diagnosis	1.7059 (0.46250)	1.6087 (0.49344)	0.894 0.903	78 73.654

in this study by using t-test. The result showed that there was no significant difference in the scores for art steam students (M = 1.7059, SD = 0.4625) and science stream students (M = 1.6087, SD = 0.49344); t (0.894) = 78, p = 0.374.

4.4 *General help-seeking intention among undergraduate students*

General help-seeking intention among undergraduate students was calculated by using frequencies data. Health professional which considered as helpful were counsellor (72.8%), followed by psychologist (64.2%) and psychiatric (51.9%). Informal supportive systems chosen by participants were help from their close family (69.1%) and help from some close friends (63.0%). Besides that, the medicine which rated as most helpful was antidepressants (33.3%), followed by vitamins and minerals, tonics or herbal medicines (30.5%). In contrary, the option which rated as most harmful was tries to deal his problems by his own (39.5%). The most harmful medicine which rated by participants was antibiotics (34.6%), followed by sedatives/hypnotics (28.4%), analgesics and antipsychotics (27.2%). The results of the study are shown in the Table 4.

Table 4. Percentage of respondent endorsing potential types of help from other resources (N = 80).

Helpful	Harmful	Neither, depends or don't know
Different people who could possibly help		
A typical GP or doctor	25.6	8.5 65.9
A typical chemist (pharmacist)	6.2	12.3 81.5
A counsellor	72.8	7.4 19.8
A social worker	32.1	8.6 59.3
Telephone counselling service e.g. Lifeline	44.4	12.3 43.4
A psychiatrist	51.9	8.6 39.5
A psychologist	64.2	7.4 28.4
Help from his close family	69.1	7.4 23.5
Help from some close friends	63.0	9.9 27.1
A naturopath or herbalist	13.6	12.3 74.1
The clergy, a minister or a priest	21.0	14.8 64.2
Amirul tries to deal with his problems on his own	13.6	39.5 46.9
Medicines		
Vitamins and minerals, tonics or herbal medicines	30.5	6.1 63.4
Analgesics	4.9	27.2 67.9
Antidepressants	33	21.0 45.7
Antibiotics	4.9	34.6 60.5
Sedatives/hypnotics	7.4	28.4 64.2
Antipsychotics	7.4	27.2 65.4
Tranquilisers such as Valium	7.4	24.7 67.9

The result of question 10 is presented in the Table 5 The result shows that most of the participants are willing to accept the behaviour which had been presented in the question except "have Amirul married into your family". There were only 22.0% of respondents willing to accept Amirul into their family, whereas 53.6% of the respondents are unwilling to do so and 22.0% of the respondents remained don't know.

5 DISCUSSION OF THE RESULT

Hypothesis 1: Mental health literacy among undergraduate students is low.

Through the result which gained from this study, it shows that only 35% of the participants successfully recognised the specific disorder which provided in the vignette. This is congruent with the previous studies which presented that public, especially young people had deficient knowledge in mental health literacy (Lam, 25 September 2014; Loureiro et al., 2013; Skre et al., 2013; Wahl et al., July 2012). In view of the mental health literacy among undergraduate students is low, future interventions need to be taken to improve the mental health literacy among undergraduate students.

As a part of health professional, counsellor could play their role in planning some programme like mental health awareness campaign and talks that promote mental health in order to facilitate mental health literacy among undergraduate students. Besides that, publication of newsletters and bulletin is another way to raise undergraduate students' awareness on mental disorder. New updates on statistics and research regarding mental disorders can be published to undergraduate students so that they can have better insight on mental health literacy. All the interventions listed above can help to increase the mental health literacy among undergraduate students and promote mental health among them.

Hypothesis 2: Science stream students will have better mental health literacy than art stream students.

Malaysia's education system was generally divided into two main streams which are art stream and science stream. Art stream students are studying courses such as art and language, whereas science stream students are studying about scientific field such as Biology, Chemistry and Physics. Thus, it was assumed that science stream students have higher mental health literacy than art stream students. However, the result of the study does not support the hypothesis. This might be due to most of the science stream students do not gain sufficient information and practical knowledge on mental health literacy in their study. Mental health education does not occupy a specific topic in all the major courses offered in their study, other than the mental health care subject. However, students are also not taking subjects related with mental health as major or minor courses unless they are interested in it. Since that is not their field of study, they would not present well in mental health literacy.

Another factor that might affect the research outcome is the overall awareness on mental health literacy of the participants. A previous study, which done in Malaysia also showed that the general knowledge of mental health literacy among Chinese was moderate (Loo & Furnham, 2012). As the majority of the samples for this study are Chinese, the possibility for them to know more about mental health literacy is high.

The outcome of this study shows that there is no significant different on the courses which enrolled by the undergraduate students. This situation allow mental health profession reconsider about the alternatives which can help in promoting mental health literacy in different courses.

Table 5. Behaviour of participants towards character in the vignette.

Behaviour	Definitely Willing	Probably Willing	Probably unwilling	Definitely Unwilling	Don't Know
Move nextdoor to Amirul	11	35.4	20.7	9.8	20.7
Spend anevening socialising with Amirul	26.8	56.1	11	1.2	2.4
Make friends with Amirul	36.6	53.7	6.1	0.0	1.2
Have Amirul start working closely with you on a job	12.2	48.8	19.5	4.9	12.2
Have Amirul marry into your family	6.1	15.9	26.8	26.8	22

Hypothesis 3: Help-seeking intention among Malaysians was low

The general help-seeking among undergraduate students in public university is satisfied according to the result of the study. Previous studies suggested that young adult had low help-seeking intention (Rowe et al., 2014). There was study presented that higher level of mental health literacy would trigger greater intention to seek help from professional sources (Smith & Shoshet, 2011). However, this study shows that samples had lower mental health literacy, but they would like to seek for professional helps. The result of the study does not support the previous research.

The deviate of the result may because of the sample which has been used in this study is different with the previous research. The research which had been used in previous research was psychology students (Smith & Shoshet, 2011) whereas the samples for this study were combination of art stream and science stream undergraduate students. Besides that, another research was comparing self-harm behaviour with help-seeking intention (Rowe et al., 2014). However, in this study, it was only examine help-seeking behaviour and thus, the participants may not link the help-seeking intention to self-harm behaviour. As a result, they would not consider about the stigmatising attitudes which the previous research considered in their study.

This study shows that help-seeking intention of undergraduate students is high. In accordance with this, counselling organisations should play their role in providing more information about help-seeking resources. This can help the undergraduate students to have a better knowledge on where to seek for appropriate help according to their needs.

Hypothesis 4: Undergraduate students holding stigma towards those with mental illness.

Previous studies showed that most of the people would hold false beliefs and stigmatising attitudes towards those with mental illness (Kermode et al., 2009; Vijayalakshmi et al., 2013). The result of this study partially support the previous research in which some stigmatising attitudes were supported by the participants, especially their viewed on public stigmatising attitudes towards those with mental illness.

The difference of the result may because of the study which showed that most of the people holding negative beliefs and stigmatising attitudes was carried out in India (Kermode et al., 2009; Vijayalakshmi et al., 2013). The different culture in India and Malaysia may develop different levels of stigmatising attitudes towards those with mental illness.

5.1 *Limitation*

There are several limitations in this study which need to be addressed. First and foremost, the majority of the respondents in this study are Chinese (90.00%). Therefore, this may not be able to represent the undergraduate students in public universities. In addition, the small sample sizes which only taken from a university also lower the generalisability of the findings.

Moreover, the reliability and validity of the questionnaire used in this study are not found. It is an Australian survey which was used in the 2011 National Survey of Mental Health Literacy and Stigma. Although some justification had been done on it, there is no pilot test done towards the questionnaire. Therefore, the suitability for the application of questionnaire in Malaysia context remains unclear.

This study is a self-report study and thus, some of the answers which responded by the participants in the study may not be able to represent the real situation. Participants may provide socially desirable response in this study.

5.2 *Recommendations and implications*

In the future, researchers can examine the mental health literacy by including more participants from different cultures and races such as Indians, Malays, Ibans, Kadazans, and others as Malaysia is a multicultural country. This would provide a better view on the general knowledge of mental health literacy among undergraduate students as well as Malaysians.

Furthermore, pilot test should be done on the questionnaire in order to investigate the reliability and validity in applying the questionnaire in Malaysia context. This will help the researchers to get more reliable results in future studies which examine mental health literacy among Malaysians.

6 CONCLUSION

This study examined the general knowledge of mental health literacy among undergraduate students in a public university. The result of the study proved that undergraduate students have low mental health literacy. The courses which they enrolled in does not have significant impact for them to gain knowledge in mental health literacy.

Finding from this study also shows that general help seeking intention among undergraduate students is high. Most of them will prefer mental health professionals when they are facing mental health problems. Lastly, stigmatising attitudes among undergraduate students show moderate results from this study.

REFERENCES

Andrew, Louise B. (5 August 2014). Depression and Suicide. from http://emedicine.medscape.com/article/805459-overview.

Anynomous. (27 November 2013). More Young People Having Mental Health Problems, *Borneo Post Online*. Retrieved from http://www.theborneopost.com/2013/11/27/more-young-people-having-mental-health-problems/.

Art. (n.d.) American Heritage® Dictionary of the English Language, Fifth Edition. *(2011)*. Retrieved May 31 2015 from http://www.thefreedictionary.com/art.

Furnham, Adrian, Cook, Richard, Martin, Neil, & Batey, Mark. (2011). Mental Health Literacy Among University Students. *Journal of Public Mental Health, 10*(4), 198–207.

H, Minas, R, Zamzam, M, Midin, & A, Cohen. (2011). Attitudes of Malaysian General Hospita Staff towards Patients with Mental Illness and Diaetes. *BMC Public Health, 14*(11).

Ibrahi, Ruziliza, & Ahmad, Jamaludin Haji. (2013). *The Influence of Outcome Expectations and Willingness to Seek Counseling Among Students.* University Putra Malaysia, Malaysia.

Jorm, A.F. (2000). Mental Health Literacy: Public Knowledge and Beliefs About Mental Disorders. *British Journal of Psychiatry, 177*, 396–401.

Jorm, A., Korten, A., Jacomb, P., Christensen, H., Rodgers, B., & Pollitt, P. (1997). Mental Health Literacy: A Survey of the Public's Ability to Recognize Mental Disorders and Their Beliefs About the Effectiveness of Treatment. *Medical Journal of Australia, 166*(4), 182–186.

Jorm, Anthony F. (2012). Mental Health Literacy: Empowering the Community to Take Action for Better Mental Health. *American Psychologist, 67*(3), 231–243. doi: 10.1037/a0025957.

JosephSipalan. (29 May 2013). Suicide Rate On The Rise In Malaysia, *The Star*. Retrieved from http://www.thestar.com.my/News/Nation/2012/06/05/Suicide-rate-on-the-rise-in-Malaysia/.

Kermode, Michelle, Bowen, Kathryn, Arole, Shoba, Pathare, Soumitra, & Jorm, Anthony F. (2009). Attitudes to People with Mental Disorders: A Mental Health Literacy Survey in a Rural Area of Maharashtra, India. *Soc Psychiat Epidemiol, 44*, 1087–1096.

Khan, Tahir Mehmood, Sulaiman, Syed Azhar Syed, & Hassali, Mohamed Azmi. (2009). The Couses of Depression? A Survey Among Malaysians About Perception for Causes of Depression. *Asian Journal of Pharmaceutical and Clinical Research, 2*(2), 174–177.

Lam, Lawrence T. (25 September 2014). Mental Health Literacy and Mental Health Status in Adolescents: A Population-Based Survey. *Child And Adolescent Psychiaty And Mental Health*. doi: 10.1186/1753–2000–8–26.

Lifeline. (n.d.). What Is Help-Seeking. file:///C:/Users/yun91_000/Downloads/What%20is%20Help-seeking.pdf.

Loo, Phik-Wern, & Furnham, Adrian. (2012). Public Knowledge and Beliefs about Depression Among Urban and Rural Chinese in Malaysia. *Asian Journal of Psychiatry, 5*, 236–245.

Loureiro, Luis M, Jorm, Anthony F, Mendes, Aida C, Santos, Jose C, Ferreira, Richardo O, & Pedreiro, Ana T. (2013). Mental Health Literacy about Depression: A Survey of Portuguese Youth. *BMC Psychiatry, 13*(129).

malaysiandigest.com (Producer). (28 October 2013). More Malaysians Will Experience Mental Illness By 2020. Retrieved from http://www.malaysiandigest.com/opinion/469592-more-malaysians-will-experience-mental-illness-by-2020.html.

Marcus, Madalyn, & Westra, Heny. (2012). Mental Health Literacy in Canadian Young Adults: Results of a National Survey. *Canadian Journal of Community Mental Health, 31*(1).

Mohamad, M.S., Chong, Sheau Tsuey, Hoesni, S.M., Subhi, N., Sarnon, N., & Nen, S. (2011). Family Caregiver's Experiences Using Community Mental Health Services in Malaysia. *Journal e-Bangi, 6*(2), 142–154.

Murray, C.J., Abraham, J., Ali, M.K., Alvarado, M., Atkinson, C., Baddour, L.M.,... & Gutierrez, H.R. (2013). The state of US health, 1990–2010: burden of diseases, injuries, and risk factors. *Jama*, *310*(6), 591–606.

Professional. (n.d.). Retrieved May 31, 2015, from http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/professional.

Rowe, Sarah L, French, Rebecca S, Henderson, Claire, Ougrin, Dennis, Slade, Mike, & Moran, Paul. (2014). Help-Seeking Behaviour and Adolescent Self-Harm: A Systematic Review. *Australian & New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry, 48*(2), 1083–1095.

Self-help. (n.d.). Retrieved May 31, 2015, from http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/self-help.

Science. (n.d.) American Heritage® Dictionary of the English Language, Fifth Edition. (2011). Retrieved May 31 2015 from http://www.thefreedictionary.com/science.

Sheri, Lim. (2015). Reducing Stigma Towards People with Mental Illness in Malaysia. *ASEAN Journal of Psychiatry, 16*(2).

Skre, Ingunn, Friborg, Oddgeir, Breivik, Camilla, Johnsen, Lars Inge, Arnesen, Yngvild, & Wang, Catharina Elisabeth Arfwedson. (2013). A School Intervention for Mental Health Literacy in Adolescents: Effects of a Non-Randomized Cluster Controlled Trial. *BMC Public Health, 13*(873).

Smith, Coral L/, & Shoshet, Iam M. (2011). The Impact of Mental Health Literacy on Help-seeking Intentions: Results of A Pilot Study With First Year Psychology Students. *Journal of Mental Health Promotion, 13*(2), 14–20.

Swami, Viren. (November 2012). Mental Health Literacy of Depression: Gender Differences and Attitudinal Antecedents in a Representative British Sample. *PLOS ONE, 7*(11).

Swami, Viren, Loo, Phik-Wern, & Furnham, Adrian. (2010). Public Knowledge and Beliefs about Depression Among Urban and Rural Malays in Malaysia. *International Journal of Socal Psychiatry, 56*(5), 480–496.

Vijayalakshmi, P, Reddy, D, Math, S B, & Thimmaiah, R. (2013). Attitudes of Undergraduates Towards Mental Illness: A Comparison Between Nursing and Business Management Students In India. *South African Journal of Psychiatry, 19*(2).

Wahl, Otto, Susin, Janet, Lax, Amy, Kaplan, Lorraine, & Zatina, Dayna. (July 2012). Knowledge and Attitudes About Mental Illness: A Survey of Middle School Students. *Psychiatric Services, 63*(7), 649–654.

WHO, World Health Organization. (August 2014). Mental Health: A State of Well-being. from http://www.who.int/features/factfiles/mental_health/en/.

Yakunina, Elena Sergeeva. (2012). *Asian International Students' Intentions to Seek Counseling: Integrating Cognitive and Cultural Predictors.* (Doctor of Philosophy), University of Akron, US.

Yap, Marie Bee Hui, Reavley, Nicola J., & Jorm, Anthony Francis. (2013). Associations Betwen Stigma and Help-Seeking Intentions and Beliefs: Findings from an Australian National Survey of young People. *Psychiatry Research, 210*(3), 1154–1160.

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

Anti bias education practice in pre-school education in rural Malaysia

Abdullah Kadir, Mariani Md. Nor, Fonny Hutagalung & Jain Chee
Department of Education Psychology and Counseling, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: This study will aim at describing the Preschool Education Anti-Bias practice in rural Malaysia. It explores two key aspects. Firstly, teacher demographics which influenced anti-bias education teaching practice in pre-school. A few factors are scrutinized namely gender, academic educational background and teacher service period. Both methods and teachers' classroom teaching strategy are examined. Researchers concentrate on teacher application to develop interest, knowledge and pupil understanding of anti-bias educational practice. This study is a qualitative case study. Research respondents consist of 2 groups. A total of 4 pre-school teachers and 16 pupils will be involved as study participants. Data collection will be done through interview, lesson observation and document analysis. Triangulation technique and expert examination will be used to ensure trustworthiness and credibility.

Keywords: anti-bias education; preschool; rural malaysian

1 INTRODUCTION

Malaysian society is composed of a variety of religions, languages, ethnic groups and cultures. The diversity of the Malaysian population is seen in the different ethnic customs and beliefs that have filled the background with unique cultural and ethnic practices. Therefore, anti-bias education practices are important in Malaysia in order to integrate the students at all levels of education.

2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Preschool education context shows that the practice of anti-bias education has a broad applicability. This can be approached through western researchers' view as well as the Islamic perspective. Based on studies in the West, the concept of Anti-Bias Education Practice is a concept that promotes equality of teaching human rights in the classroom. According to Derman-Sparks and Olsen (2010), the Anti-Bias Education Practice is a concept and an approach that gives special privileges to every human being to be treated with respect, dignity, equality and justice without distinction (Derman-Sparks & Olsen, 2010; Lin, Lake, & Rice, 2008).

Anti-bias education practice requires educators to fulfil "the practice of freedom" (Freire, 2000). This practice gives the students exposure and practice facilities for socialization with decency. Through it, students learn how to manage an environment in critical and creative ways; as a result, each student is allowed to have a positive self-identity, be confident and more concerned (Derman-Spark & Olsen, 2010). The practice of freedom is also bridging the differences among students. This allows existence of multiple communication, critical thinking and skill to stand alone in the face of injustice.

In an Islamic perspective, the concept of Anti-Bias Education Practice translates as nature educator-Justice on behavior, balanced or match (Abdullah Nasih Ulwan, 2008). Justice here is also related to the conduct of the teachers not to be extreme in the process of nurturing students. They were also seen placing justice in the right place and not being harmful. This is in contrast with the views of Muslims now that puts fair education in terms of equal position or equality of rights.

The concept of effective education is the practice of teaching and educating students in accordance with their capabilities, and their learning style (Yusuf Al-Qardhawi, 2003; Al-Ghazali, 2010). This is because what benefits a person does not necessarily benefit someone else. Its implication is that effective teachers properly convey their knowledge appropriate to the maturity level of the students. In education, it is considered an injustice to educate the non-committed members or students in a manner that the students cannot afford.

3 REVIEW PROBLEMS

Pre-school teachers play an important role in delivering the anti-bias education practices to students. According to Mariani (2012), anti-bias education practice teaching in Malaysia is considered important because Malaysian society is a plural society that diverse in terms of cultures, ethnicity and religion. Its implementation is seen as a necessity to education policies and programs that serve as prevention and encourage partnerships between communities. Several factors can be put forward as challenges in teaching practice-driven anti—bias education.

In the education sector, Saedah Siraj and Mohammed Sani Ibrahim (2012) stated that the community generally is more confident of the long-serving teachers who are more knowledgeable and committed. This is because teachers with limited background experience are associated with less effective presentation in the classroom. This is consistent with findings in other countries showing nearly 80% less effective delivery of new teachers (Parsad, Lewis, & Farris, 2001). While in Malaysia, about 50% of the teachers are teaching at the effective level category (MOE, 2012). Among the causes of teacher teaching being seen as less effective, is that educators lack pedagogical mastery and are less ready when faced with students comprising various ethnic, background and culture differences (Parsad et al., 2001).

People living in rural and remote areas require intelligent commitment and more motivated high school managers (Haznurah Zainon & Mohd Zuri Ghani, 2012; Syed Ismail & Ahmad Subki, 2010). This requirement aims at eliminating the rural-urban students' achievement gap. In addition, this challenge is trying to bridge the local community relations with educators (MOE, 2012). The results from Amar, Hazri, and Passes (2013) show that teachers and school managers' socialization is more likely to reflect the ethnicity as negative socialization processes. This situation can cause minority pupils to feel marginalized and have "low self-esteem to succeed" (SUHAKAM, 2010, 2012).

Educators need to intelligently handle the confines of negative issues, especially bias in practice, behavioral bias, gender bias, language bias, the stereotypical attitudes and attitudes of prejudice. Preconceptions towards pupils only pose less confident teaching especially of minority students (Derman-Sparks & Ramsey, 2006; SUHAKAM, 2010). This group requires a teacher to exhibit anti-bias and put pupils at ease, making them feel always appreciated and well managed. Wise teachers create a learning system that is fair and leads to formation of character and personality of pupils. This is because pupils desire a varied instruction involving multicultural understanding and flexible methods.

The pupils require such a teaching of anti-bias involving the use of language, ethnicity, culture, and methods that are understood (Carol Smith, 2013; Derman-Sparks & Edwards, 2010). Teaching with bias will only put students in a corner and make them fail to manage the environment properly.

4 OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

This study has the following objectives:

1. Demographic Profiling of teachers involved in teaching educational practices in terms of gender bias, anti, academic educational background (professional qualifications) and length of service (work experience).
2. To analyze and identify the method applied in the classroom by the teacher to foster anti-bias practice in pre-school education from the aspect of building interest and knowledge, increasing awareness of pupils and developing critical thinking students.

5 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION

The following are definitions of words, phrases and terms as they are used in the study:

5.1 *Preschool*

This context of study suggests operational refers to preschool class built and supervised by the Ministry of Education Malaysia. Preschool pupils consist of children aged five and six years. This preschool is using the Standard National Curriculum for preschool curriculum, teaching and learning (MOE, 2010).

5.2 *Bias*

In the context of this study, operational definition of bias applies to explain the issues of disbelief, fear, suspicious, guilt, unfair and prejudiced. Bias in this study also is a tendency or attitude of prejudice to one person or group (Mariani, 2012; Van Keulen, 2004).

5.3 *Anti-Bias*

Anti-bias in this study applies based on the opinion of scholars of Islam and the West. Anti-bias refers to actions contrary to the acts of bias. These include fair practices, respect, trust, not fear change, and open-minded. This practice also referred to the

intention, simplicity, sincerity, equality and values (Abdullah Nasih Ulwan, 2008; Derman-Spark & Ramsey, 2006).

5.4 *Practice Anti—Bias Education*

In the context of this study, anti-bias education practice refers to internal and external behavior of teachers in teaching. This behavior was fulfilled on the basis of sincerity without compulsion, holy faith, confidence and responsibility. The result will build interaction with ethnic diversity, cultural diversity, developing critical thinking and skill to stand alone to face injustice (Al Ghazali, 2010; Freire, 2000; Lin, 2008; MOE, 2009).

6 MANAGEMENT OF TEACHING AND LEARNING IN PRESCHOOL

Relevant pedagogical knowledge is important in preschool. It plays a role in shaping the culture of learning without affecting the identity of students' cultural heritage. Its implementation allows teachers to incorporate elements of culture, ethnicity and language in planning teaching (James, 2014). This practice emphasizes the similarities and differences of rights among students. In addition, it develops the power of creative and critical thinking that ultimately strengthen pupils ranging from various ethnic groups and cultures in the classroom. This is seen as important because all forms of action and nursery teachers in preschool gave more positive impact to the development of pupils (Marzano et al., 2003).

In preschool teaching, teachers need to implement the method of learning through play. By implementing this method, the teacher can get involved with building positive communication with pupils. This method is seen as the key in the process of teaching pupils in preschool. Playing is a natural nature preschool students who are able to upgrade the skills of pupils to optimum levels (Broadhead, 2004; Brock et al., 2009; Drake, 2001; Mariani, 2012; Riley, 2003). Method of play helps preschool students to explore their thinking skills, social skills and emotional skills.

Emphasis on language manners and positive regard will impact on preschool students. Preschool students adore good speeches and names that suit them. This is because the use of the name, skin color, physical form, language, behavior in the classroom is a symbol of ethnic identity and culture practiced at home (Najeemah Mohd Yusof, 2010; Miriam Giugni, 2008). Therefore preschool teachers need to avoid classroom practices that are inappropriate or less polite. For that, teachers need to be more creative in creating rules that can apply to a wide range of students and ethnic cultures.

In addition, play can also prevent pupils from feeling bored and get rid of fear of preschool peers of different ethnicity, language and culture. The use of personal dolls in teaching is one of the techniques that expose students to appreciation of differences in ethnicity, language and culture in their environment (Mariani, 2005; Van Keulen, 2004). Play is said to be able to train the pupils in self-control, emotion control, socializing and sharing experience with power (Carol Smith, 2013). It directly provides an opportunity for students to tolerate and accept others and to share power.

7 THE RESEARCH DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Qualitative research design is used in the study. Case study method is applied because the researchers want to explore the situation about teaching practice-driven anti-bias education in preschool in depth and in detail (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006; Merriam, 2009). In this study, researchers will undertake data collection through document analysis, observation and interview. Preschool teachers and students are the most important and key information providers in this study. Preschool teachers studied will consist of 2 males and 2 females, while the preschool students will consist of 8 males and 8 females of different ethnic groups.

Location of the study will be in Education Ministry preschool classes located outside the city which have basic facilities and are implementing the Standard National Curriculum for Preschool. For effective data analysis, researchers will apply three analytical methods which involve making summaries, reflective annotations and current information gathering through memoing. After data collection, data filtering, data presentation, forming conclusions will be applied to obtain the results. This process will make the review more robust and achieve the targeted objectives.

REFERENCE

Abdullah Nasih Ulwan. (2008). *The Muslim Awlad Fil-Tarbiyyatul* (translation: children's education in Islam by Syed Ahmad Semait. Volume One of Two) Singapore: Pustaka Nasional.

Al Ghazali. (2010). *Guidance on seeking the pleasure of God.* (Trans. Syed Ahmad Semait). Singapore: Pustaka Nasional.

Anita Abu Hasan, Noryani Md Yusof, & Husni Jazam (2015). *Budaya dan pembelajaran: Siri Teks Profesional IPG.* [*Culture and learning: Professional Text Series for IPG*]. Johor Bahru, Malaysia: Pelangi Professional.

Banks, J. A. (2002). *Teaching strategies for ethnic studies* (7th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Banks, J., & Banks, Cherry A. McGee (2010). *Multicultural education: Issues and perspectives* (8th ed.). New York, NY: Wiley.

Broadhead, P. (2004). Early years play and learning: Developing social skills and cooperation. London: Routledge.

Brock, A., Sylvia, D., Jarvis, P., & Olusoga, Y. (2009). *Perspectives on play: Learning for life*. England: Pearson.

Carol L. F. Smith, (2013). Using personal dolls to learn empathy, unlearn prejudice: Personal doll training. South Africa. *The International Journal of Diversity in Education, 12*.

Derman-Sparks, L., & Ramsey, P.G. (2006). *What if all the kids are white: Anti-bias multicultural education for young children and families*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Derman-Sparks, Louise, & Julie Olsen Edwards. (2010). *Anti-bias education for young children and ourselves*. Washington DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Derman-Sparks, Louise, & Ramsey, Patty. (2005). Anti-bias/ multicultural education with white children. Washington, DC: NAEYC. Retrieved from http://www.achievementseminars.com/seminar_series_2007_2008/readings/sparks_antibias%20 multicultural.pdf.

Derman-Sparks, Louise, & Ramsey, Patty. (2007). A framework for culturally relevant, multicultural and antibias education in the twenty-first century. Retrieved from http://www.achievementseminars.com/seminar_series_2007_2008/readings/sparks_from%20a%20framework.pdf.

Derman-Sparks, Louise. (2007). Goals and teaching guidelines for anti-bias education with young children. Retrieved from http://www.achievementseminars.com/seminar_series_2007_2008/readings/sparks_goals%20and%20teaching%20 guidelines.pdf.

Drake, J. (2001). *Planning children's play and learning in the foundation stage*. London: David Fulton.

Fraenkel, J.R., & Wallen, N.E. (2006). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (7th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Freire, P. (2000). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York, NY: Continuum.

Hamdi Ishak, Ab halim Tamuri, Rosadah Abdul Majid & Safani Bari. (2013). Amalan pengajaran guru dalam pengajaran dan pembelajaran pendidikan Islam di Sekolah Kebangsaan Pendidikan Khas (masalah pendengaran). [Teaching practice in teaching and learning of Islamic Education in National Special Education Schools (Hearing Impaired)]. *Journal of Islamic and Arabic Education, 2*(4), pp. 11–24.

Haznurah Zainon, & Mohd Zuri Ghani (2012). Tekanan dalam kalangan guru Pendidikan Khas di sekolah intergrasi. [Emotional stress among Special Education teachers in integrated schools]. *Journal of Special Needs Education, 2.* Universiti Sains Malaysia.

Mariani, M.N. (2005). Persona dolls: Lawful or prohibited*? Issue Papers of CEIEC, University of Melbourne, 3*(4).

Mariani, M.N., & Mohd Sofian Omar Fauzee. (2012). *Trend and issues in children's play and creative expression: Asean perspectives*. Kuala Lumpur: Pearson Malaysia.

Merriam S.B. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S.B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study application in education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S.B. (2002). Case study. *Qualitative research in practice: Examples for discussion and analysis* (pp. 178–180). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Miranda Lin & Alan Bates. (2014). Who is in my classroom? Teachers preparing to work with culturally diverse students. *International Research In Early Childhood Education, 5*(1), p. 27.

Miranda Lin, Vickie E. Lake, & Diana Rice. (2008). *Teaching anti-bias curriculum in teacher education programs: What and how*. London: NAECH.

Miriam Giugni. (2008). *Multiculturalism, anti-bias and social justice in children's services*. Retrieved from http://www.cscentral.org.au/Reources/Exploring_Multiculturalism.pdf.

Najeemah Mohd Yusof. (2005). Multicultural education practice among teachers in national secondary schools: A case study in Kedah. *Journal of Educators and Education, 20,* pp. 7–11.

Najeemah Mohd Yusof. (2010). *Language and ethnic boundaries among students of various ethnic groups in secondary schools in Malaysia*. Kuching: The Collection of Conference.

Parsad, B., Lewis, L., & Farris, E. (2001). *Teacher preparation and professional development*. Washington, DC: US Department of Education, NCES.

Riley, J. (2003). *Learning in the early years*. London: Paul Chapman.

Saedah Siraj, & Mohammed Sani Ibrahim, (2012). *Teacher competency standards*. Kuala Lumpur: The Faculty of Education, University of Malaya.

Siti Zuraidah Maaruf. (2014). *Pedagogical module development responsive to traditional craft culture Visual Arts Education High School*. Unpublished Doctoral thesis, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya.

Suhakam. (2010). Malaysia Annual Report. Human Rights Commission of Malaysia.

Suhakam. (2012). Status Reports Children Education Rights of Indigenous People. Human Rights Commission of Malaysia.

Syed Ismail, S.M., & Ahmad Subki, M. (2010). *Asas kepimpinan dan perkembangan professional [Foundations of leadership and professional development]*. Puchong, Malaysia: Multimedia.

The Ministry of Education. (2001). *National preschool curriculum*. Kuala Lumpur: Curriculum Development Centre.

The Ministry of Education. (2010). *A standard national curriculum for preschool*. Kuala Lumpur: Curriculum Development Division.

The Ministry of Education. (2012). *Preliminary report of the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013–2025.* Putrajaya: Ministry of Education Malaysia.

The government's response to the annual report of Malaysia. (2010). The Prime Minister's Department, Malaysia.

Van Keulen, A. (Ed.) (2004). *Young children aren't biased, are they?* Amsterdam: Bernard van Leer Foundation.

Yusuf Al-Qardhawi. (2003). *Sunnah: sumber ilmu dan peradaban*. [*Sunnah: Source of knowledge and civilization.* (Trans. Muhammad Firdaus)]. Gombak, Malaysia: The International Institute of Islamic Thought.

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

Do we have salt & pepper on the table? (teaching style & learning style importance)

Revatde Nadarajan, Zahra Naimie & Rana Ahmed Abuzaid
University of Malaya, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: Teaching and learning are important components in an educational setting. Effective learning happens when the learners are able comprehend what is being taught by the teacher. Teaching Styles and Learning Styles are like both sides of a coin where both sides are equally important in an education system. When learners faced problems in understanding what is being taught by a teacher, it is important for the teacher to use an appropriate and significant teaching and learning styles so that the students can comprehend the lesson. Thus, it is important for the teacher to know which styles to use, therefore, the teaching and learning takes place smoothly.

Keyword: teaching style; learning style; educational setting; learning styles inventories; teaching style inventories

1 INTRODUCTION

Teaching and learning are two most important processes in a classroom environment. The most effective learning environment happens when the pedagogy is based on the preferred ones. Most importantly the two-way communication between teacher and students must be effective. The teaching style, also known as command style, is the most teacher-directed (Mosston, 1992). In this type of style the teacher is the exclusive decision maker. Decisions on what to do, how to do it, and the level of achievement expected are all determined by the teacher (Nichols, 1994). Grasha (1996) has concluded that there are five types of teaching style which are expert, formal authority, personal model, facilitator, and delegator. Teaching style in this study refers to the method of delivering knowledge used by teachers on their daily teaching process. Keefe (1991) defined learning style as a specific mental process or behavior which is affecting and psychologically helping learners to understand their learning respond to what is taught, and interacts with peers. In sum, there is currently no widely accepted definition of learning style. Learning is how individuals perceive the knowledge using their interest and preference. Grasha & Riechmann (1974) has mentioned that there are six types of learning styles: competitive, collaborative, avoidant, participant, dependent, and independent. Learning style in this study refers to student's way of perceiving knowledge and information given by the teachers, or a medium that is used by the student throughout the learning process. This article will discuss importance of teaching style and learning style. Caldwell and Goldin (1987, 1979) have concluded that this is one of the important parts of a study as it introduces the whole part of research. It discusses both teaching styles inventories and learning style inventories and approaches being used in education. Various learning inventories are discussed with focus on how they relate to the education process. The research questions are designed to investigate the relationship between teaching styles and learning styles in student's mathematics achievement. This literature review also explores the main subjects in this study, which are teaching styles, learning styles, relationships between teaching style and learning style, and list of inventories in this area.

2 IMPORTANCE OF TEACHING STYLE

A successful learning environment is formed when the students benefit from the teaching style. A study has said that an educator should be able to use various ways to deliver knowledge and various ways in learning for the best student outcomes. Though the teacher is teaching the same subject, student's accomplishment is diverse from important factors in which not only teaching quality but teaching style and learning style also (Beck, 2001; Naimie et al., 2010; Wirz, 2004). Moreover, every single teaching style shown by a teacher had an encouraging outcome on students with excellent learning styles. It is also mentioned

that a student loses learning opportunities due to the same teaching style used in every classroom and numerous learning styles (Grasha, 2002). A solid proof highlighting the teaching style of an educator is the foremost factor that contributes directly (Beck, 2001; Hughes, 2009; Zhang, 2005) and indirectly to student learning style (Kabadayi, 2007; Vaughn & Baker, 2001). One study indicates that when a teaching style is divergent from learning style it could cause problems such as boredom in the classroom, dropouts, skipping lessons, and students building their own negative concept on that particular subject. This contributes to low student achievement (Kinshuk et al., 2009; Vaughn & Baker, 2001). Many researchers have suggested that a teacher should discover various teaching styles and learning styles of their students in order to design a meaningful lesson throughout the learning process and it should vary from one to another (Claxton & Murrell, 1987) cited in Damrongpanit & Reutrangul, 2013). Teachers' teaching style can be seen in many ways. A teaching style includes the principles and approaches such as directed-learning, workshop; tutorial and etc. are used for instruction. Teaching style is also known as the teacher's pedagogy skill used in delivering knowledge. All teachers have their own unique way of teaching their students. Generally, the teaching style depends on the content the teacher wants to deliver (Brookfield, 1990).

3 IMPORTANCE OF LEARNING STYLE

Learning styles can be defined, categorized, and recognized in many diverse ways. Learning style can also be defined as a set of causes, deeds, and approaches that enables learning for an individual in a given condition. The research literature on learning styles has come out with several corrections which contribute to the unrelated, varying, and often different evidence regarding what learning styles are. A study by DeBello (1990) gives numerous definitions about learning styles and their theories as well. According to Steinberg (2001) many of these learning styles are still original and have not been duplicated by any source. Mares (1998, p. 65) proposed that learning style is not something fixed; it can, however, be identified in many ways. It can be noticed in many activities, which are carried out during the learning environment and it takes a longer time to be known. To be more accurate Felder and Henriques (1995, p. 21) defined learning style as the way an individual typically obtains, holds, and saves information. Stewart and Felicetti (1992) regarded learning style as an educational guideline, which most pupils are interested to learn. Learning styles were broadly defined as the individual way frequently used for acquiring, gathering, processing, and understanding to be an expert (Davis, 1993; Kolb, 1984; McCarthy, 1987). Studies have also established that learning style means student's behavior that conveyed from individual competence and knowledge in mental cognitive, affective, and psychomotor areas when the students cooperate with their fellow classmates in the learning and schooling environment (Duff & Duffy, 2002; Honey & Mumford, 1992). Kinshuk et al. (2009) said that every student can learn in various ways, but only can perform well in one way in which they are confident. According to Boyd and Apps (1980, pp. 100–101), learning is the performance or development that takes place when the behavior changes, knowledge, abilities, or talents and approaches are gained. According to Kolb's Model (1984), which is also called as the experiential learning theory that is said to emerge from the surrounding between the students and teachers, Dede (2011). Peker (2003) stated that students require four different ways of learning in order to learn effectively. The four different ways are Concrete experience, reflective observation, Abstract conceptualization, and active experimental. Ergür Derya (2000) added that Kolb's model as learning amalgamation within the stages rather than producing behavioral and cognitive approaches.

4 MATCHING TEACHING STYLE AND LEARNING STYLE

Numerous research was found relating both teaching style and learning style (Fischer, & Fischer, 1979) and some others also studied the matching between teaching and learning style (Damrongpanit & Reungtragul, 2013). Some research also talks about students' preferred learning style and teachers' teaching strategies (Wilson, 2011). Various studies were found relating to teaching style and learning style, these including Joaquin, Ganadan, and Ibe (2010), Kopsovic (2001), Cassidy (2004), Yilmaz & Soylu and Akkoyunlu (2009) and Wang, Wang, Wang, and Huang (2006). There are several studies on effective teaching style and its influence on student achievement (Bietenbeck, 2011; Branton, 2000; Haas, 2002; Schwerdt & Wuppermann, 2008). Nevertheless, studies support the fact that there is a relationship between the teacher's teaching style and student's learning style (Fischer & Fischer, 1979; Giuliani, 2005; Grasha, 1996). Many researchers have found that the identical teaching style and learning style will improve learning, attitudes, motivation, and behavior (Ehrman, 1996; Jones, 1997; Littlewood et al., 1996; Willing, 1988,

cited in Naimie et al., 2009). Findings of research by Damrongpanit and Reungtragul (2013) indicated that teachers should comprehend their teaching styles and should obtain information on students' learning styles in the classroom for planning the education process. It should emphasize equal opportunity to learn in the entire teaching process, such as teaching media, team learning methods, assessment methods, or homework assignments. Wilson (2011) has mentioned that the study did not provide much support on the relationship, but also did not deny the option that such relations might happen. Dunn and Dunn (1993) noted that when teaching style is well-matched with learning style students will learn more attentively. However, only the learning style has been presented in many ways than the teaching style. Gilakjani (2012) said that the match between teaching styles and learning style motivates students to learn better and create a positive learning environment. When there is congruence or matching between teaching style and learning style it has a positive impact on achievement and satisfaction (Felder, Felder & Dietz, 2002).

5 CONCLUSION

Teaching and learning are the two most important processes in a classroom environment. The most effective learning environment happens when the pedagogy is based on the preferred ones. Most importantly the two-way communication between teacher and students must be effective. Each student holds a bit of every learning style. Preferably, one would have a stability of all the learning styles. Nevertheless, most people fall toward one or two of the learning style favorites. Learning preferences are possible to change as one meets new life and learning understandings. In fact, Grasha (1996) has proposed that specific teaching styles might inspire students to accept assured learning styles (p. 177). Consequently, teachers and students can change their teaching and learning style according to the situation; therefore, teachers and students are not directed or pushed to use only one style. Instead, they both can use multiple styles for a better teaching and learning environment. Many studies have been designed in this area, for example, by Baneshi, Karamdoushi and Hakimzadeh (2013), Hamidah, Sarina, and Jusoff (2009), Baykul et al. (2010).

REFERENCES

Baneshi, A., Karamdoust, N., & Hakimzadeh, R. (2013). Validity & reliability of the Persian version of Grasha-Riechmann student learning styles scale. *Journal of Advances in Medical Education & Professionalism, 1*(4), pp. 119–124. Retrieved from http://jamp.sums.ac.ir/index.php/JAMP/article/view/23.

Baykul, Y., Gürsel, M., Sulak, H., Ertekin, E., Yazıcı, E., Dülger, O., Aslan, Y., & Büyükkarcı, K. (2010). A Validity and reliability study of Grasha-Riechmann student learning style scale. International Journal of Human and Social Sciences, 5(3), 177–184.

Beck, C. T. (2001). Predictors of postpartum depression: An update. *Nursing Research, 50,* 275–285.

Bietenbeck, J. (2011). Teaching practices and student achievement: Evidence from TIMSS. *Yayimlanmamics y,uksek lisans tezi. CEMFI,* 114.

Boyd, R., & Apps, J. (1980). *Redefining the discipline of adult education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Branton, R. A. (2000). *The effects of teaching styles on student learning of DNA*. (B.S. thesis, University of Louisiana, Monroe). Retrieved from http://etd.lsu.edu/docs/available/etd-07102012–202739/unrestricted/BrantonThesis.pdf.

Brookfield, S. (1990). *The skillful teacher*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Caldwell, J. H., & Goldin, G. A. (1979). Variables affecting word problem difficulty in elementary school mathematics. *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education, 10*(5), pp. 323–336.

Caldwell, J. H., & Goldin, G. A. (1987). Variables affecting word problem difficulty in secondary school mathematics. *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education, 18*(3), pp. 187–196.

Cassidy, S. (2004). Learning styles: An overview of theories, models, and measures. *Educational Psychology, 24*(4), 419–444.

Claxton, C. S., & Murrell, P. H. (1987). Learning styles: Implications for Improving Educational Practice. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 4. Washington, DC: George Washington University

Damrongpanit, S., & Reungtragul, A. (2013). Matching of learning styles and teaching styles: Advantage and disadvantage on ninth-grade students academic achievements. *Educational Research and Reviews, 8*(20), pp. 1937–1947.

Damrongpanit, S., & Reungtragul, A. (2013). Matching of learning styles and teaching styles: Advantage and disadvantage on ninth-grade students academic achievements. *Educational Research and Reviews, 8*(20), pp.1937–1947.

Davis, F. D. (1993). User acceptance of information technology: system characteristics, user perceptions and behavioral impacts. *International Journal of Manmachine Studies, 38*(3), 475–487.

DeBello, T. (1990). Comparison of eleven major learning style models: Variables, appropriate populations, validity of instrumentation, and the research behind them. *Journal of Reading, Writing, and Learning Disabilities, 6,* 203–222.

Dede, C. (2011). Developing a research agenda for educational games and simulations. Computer games and instruction, pp. 233–250. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing

Duff, A., & Duffy, T. (2002): Psychometric Properties of Honey and Mumford's Learning Style Questionnaire (LSQ). *Personality and Individual Differences, 22,* pp. 147–163.

Dunn, R. S., & Dunn, K. J. (1993). Learning styles/teaching styles: Should they can they... be matched? *Educational Leadership, 36*(4), 238–244.

Ehrman, M. (1996). *Second language learning difficulties: Looking beneath the surface*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Ergür Derya, O., 2000. The Effect of Personal Characteristics of the Basic English Students on Their Learning Styles and Its Reflection on Teaching Process. *Hacettepe Universitesi Egitim Fakultesi Dergisi-Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, (39), 173–184.

Felder, R. M., Felder, G. N., & Dietz, E. J. (2002). The effects of personality type on engineering student performance and attitudes. *Journal of Engineering Education*, *91*(1), 3–17.

Felder, R., & Henriques, E. (1995). Learning and teaching styles in foreign and second language education. *Foreign Language Annals, 28*(1), pp. 21-–31.

Fischer, B., & Fischer, L. (1979). Styles in teaching and learning. *Educational Leadership, 37,* 245–254.

Gilakjani, A. (2012). A match or mismatch between learning styles of the learners and teaching styles of the teachers. *International Journal of Modern Education and Computer Science (IJMECS), 4*(11), p. 51.

Giuliani, E. (2005). Cluster absorptive capacity why do some clusters forge ahead and others lag behind? *European Urban and Regional Studies*, *12*(3),269–288.

Grasha, A. F. (1996). *Teaching with style: Practical guide to enhancing learning by understanding teaching and learning styles* (1st ed.). Pittsburgh, PA: Alliance Publishers.

Grasha, A. F. (1996). *Teaching with style: Practical guide to enhancing learning by understanding teaching and learning styles* (1st ed.). Pittsburgh, PA: Alliance Publishers.

Grasha, A. F. (2002). The dynamics of one-on-one teaching. *College Teaching*, *50*(4), 139–146.

Grasha, A. F., & Reichmann, S. W. (1974). A rational approach to developing and assessing the construct validity of a Student Learning Style Scales Instrument. *The Journal of Psychology, 87,* 213–223.

Haas, M. S. (2002). The Influence of Teaching Methods on Student Achievement on Virginia's End of Course Standards of Learning Test for Algebra I.*Retrieved from* http://scholar.lib.vt.edu/theses/available/etd-10062002–202857

Hamidah, J. S., Sarina, M. N., & Jusoff, K. (2009). The social interaction learning styles of science and social science students. *Asian Social Science, 5*(7), p. 58.

Honey, P., & Mumford, A. (1992). *The manual of learning styles*. Maidenhead: Peter Honey.

Hughes, G. B. (2009). Students' perceptions of teaching styles in mathematics learning Environments. Mathematics Teaching-Research Journal Online, 3(2), 1–12

Joaquin, M., Ganaden, M., & Ibe, M. (2010). Goal modification, learning styles, and achievement in Mathematics. *Education Quarterly*, *66*(1).

Jones, N.B. (1997). Applying learning styles research to improve writing instruction. RELC Seminar on Learners and Language Learning, Singapore, April 1997.

Kabadayi, A. (2007). Analyzing the cognitive teaching styles of preservice and cooperating preschool teachers in Turkey. *Early Child Development and Care. 177*(3), 275–293.

Keefe, J. W. (1991). *Learning style: Cognitive and thinking skills*. Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals

Kinshuk, M. C., Graf, S., & Yang, G. (2009). Adaptivity and personalization in mobile learning. *Technology, Instruction, Cognition and Learning (TICL), 8,* 163–174.

Kolb, D. A. (1984). Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development (Vol. 1). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Kopsovich, R. D. (2001). *A study of correlations between learning styles of students and their mathematics scores on the Texas Assessment of Academic Skills Test.* (Doctoral dissertation, University of North Texas).

Littlewood, W., Liu, N-F. & Yu, C. (1996). Hong Kong tertiary students' attitudes and proficiency in spoken English. RELC Journal, 27(1), 70–88.

Mares, J. (1998). Learning styles of students (1th. Ed.). Prague: Portal

McCarthy, B. (1987). *The 4MAT System: Teaching to learning styles with Right/Left mode techniques. Barrington*, IL: EXCEL.

Mosston, M. (1992). Tug-O-War, no more: Meeting teaching-learning objectives using the spectrum of teaching styles. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance, 63*(1), 27–56.

Naimie, Z., Lowrence, Siraj Saedah, & Shagholi, Reihaneh. (2009). Have you ever walked side by side with your students in learning road? (The impact of teaching styles and learning styles match and mismatch among Iranian students achievement). Presented in International Conference on Education (ACE2009) Oct 2009, Osaka. Japan.

Naimie, Z., Siraj, S., Abuzaid, R., & Shagholi, R. (2010). Hypothesized Learners' Technology Preferences Based on Learning Style Dimensions. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology, 9*(4).

Nichols, B. (1994). Moving and Learning. The Elementary School Physical Education Experience. USA: Mosby

Peker, M. (2003a). Öğrenme stilleri ve 4 MAT yönteminin öğrencilerin matematik tutum ve başarılarına etkisi, Gazi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü (Yayımlanmamış doktora tezi), Ankara.

Schwerdt, G., & Wuppermann, A. C. (2008). *Do Teaching Practices InfluenceStudent Achievement?* University of Munich.

Steinberg, L. (2001). We know these things: Parent adolescent relationships in retrospect and prospect. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 11,* 1–19.

Stewart, K. L., & Felicetti, L. A. (1992). Learning styles of marketing majors. *Educational Research Quarterly, 15*(2), 15–23.

Vaughn, L., & Baker, R. (2001). Teaching in the medical setting: balancing teaching styles, learning styles and teaching methods. *Medical Teacher, 23*(6), 610–612.

Wang, K., Wang, T., Wang, W., & Huang, S. (2006). Learning styles and formative assessment strategy: Enhancing student achievement in Webbased learning. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning, 22*(3), pp. 207–217.

Willing, K. (1988). Learning styles in adult migrant education. Adelaide: NCRC.

Wilson, M. L. (2011). *Students' learning style preferences and teachers' instructional strategies: Correlations between matched styles and academic achievement* (Doctoral dissertation, Liberty University).

Wirz, D. (2004). Students' learning styles vs. professors' teaching styles. Inquiry, 9(1), 1.

Yilmaz-Soylu, M., & Akkoyunlu, B. (2009). The Effect of Learning Styles on Achievement in Different Learning Environments. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology-TOJET*, *8*(4), 43–50.

Zhang, L. (2005). Does teaching for a balanced use of thinking styles enhance students' achievement? *Personality and Individual Differences, 38,*1135–1147.

This page intentionally left blank

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

Identifying motivation factors of the participation of local community in tourism industry in National Park, Pahang, Malaysia

M.R. Noorhayati, I. Mohd Hasmadi & H.Z. Pakhriazad
Faculty of Forestry, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia

A. Khairil Wahidin
Faculty of Economy and Management, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: This study attempts to identify and elaborate a motivation factor to influence participation of local community in tourism industry in Kuala Tahan National Park, Pahang, Malaysia. Using random stratified sampling techniques, a total of 400 respondents were selected from seven villages in Kuala Tahan National Park. A theory of push and pull factor were applied in this study. Results showed that most of the local communities were more motivated by pull factors. The motivation by pull factor is due to reasons that this tourism industries offer jobs to local people. They realize the tourism activities are one of fastest growing economy in their area and provide an employement in order to augment their socioeconomic.

Keywords: tourism industry; push and pull theory; local communities; National Park

1 INTRODUCTION

In 2014, Malaysia tourism is the sixth largest contributor to the Malaysian economy and the second largest foreign-exchange earner after goods manufacturing. In fact, Malaysian government recognized tourism as a part of their effort to diversify and expand the opportunities for economic growth in this country. Furthermore, tourism development affects the regional development and it interconnected with other industry. This ecotourism initiative represents national park, nature reserves and conservation area. Due to the location of tourism resources in this country, ecotourism encourages widespread of local community to participate in the industry.

National Park is one of the most popular ecotourism destinations in Malaysia. Local communities can be defined as groups of people with a common identity and who may be involved in an array of interrelated aspects of livelihoods (Scherl and Edwards, 2007). According to WHO (2002) it is a method where community participate and channel their voice opinions and get involved in the decision-making process. Community participation can be outlined as a form of action in which individuals confront the opportunities and responsibilities of citizenship (Tosun, 2000). Bronkhorst et al., (2010) said that, local community participation is a voluntary process in which the community will simply engage in destination planning and development when doing so is likely to benefit them. In the tourism context, community has been recognized as one component for understanding the development of the tourism industry and it's also important to appreciate how community affects local tourism development (Aref et al., 2010). One of the core elements of tourism development is to encourage local communities' participations, it is central to the sustainability of the tourism industry (Muganda et al., 2013). Telfer and Sharpley (2008) claimed that, local communities are increasingly being drawn into tourism not only from the demand side, as tourist actively seek out new destinations and communities to experience, but also from the supply side, as communities are becoming aware of the potential of the products they can offer to tourist and the economic gains that can be made.

Human motivation has been studied since the early 1900s (Silva and Franca, 2012). Guay et al., (2010) said motivation refers to "a reasons underlying behavior". Motivation requires a constellation of beliefs, perception, values, interest, and actions that are all closely related, as a result, various approaches to motivation can focus on cognitive behaviors (such as monitoring and strategy use), non-cognitive aspects (such as perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes), or both (Lai, 2011).

The concepts of push and pull are widely accepted for use in tourism research and marketing (Kim and Lee, 2002). Several studies empirically support significant connections between push and pull factors (Kim et al., 2003 and Kleosky, 2002) and one pull factor may correspond to multiple push factors. Push factors have been conceptualized as motivational factors or needs that arise due to a disequilibrium or tension in the motivational system (Kim et al., 2003).

Goossens (2000) defines the push factor as cause by people emotional needs. Ibrahim et al., (2013) agrees with the Goossens definition on push factors. He strongly believed that, the push factors are more related to internal or emotional aspects. Jamieson (2011) listed out 5 main reason that pushes influence community partiticipation in tourism industry namely poverty, lacks of jobs, loss of community control, unemployement and environmental degradation. Meanwhile pull factors is contrast to push factor (Ibrahim et al., 2013). Goossens (2000) claimed that they will engage in an exchange as long as they make a 'profit', namely as long as they receive more benefits from tourism. Overall, push and pull factors have generally been characterized as relating to two separate decisions made at two separate points in time-one focusing on whether to go, the other on where to go (Klenosky, 2002).

In Kuala Tahan National Park, the study on motivation and community involvement on tourism industry is lacking, thus the factors of the influence and participation are not well understood. Therefore, the objective of this study is to identify and elaborate a motivation factor influence participation of local community in tourism industry in Kuala Tahan National Park, Pahang, Malaysia.

2 METHODS

2.1 *Study area*

Kuala Tahan is one of the main entrants to a National Park, which located in Jerantut district, Pahang (Figure 1). National Park was established in 1939 and covers a total area of about 4,343 sq. km. The primary tropical rainforest estimated to be more than 130 million years old. The total population of Kuala Tahan is 2,166 residents and most of the residents were Malays communities. Due to location of Kuala Tahan as entrants to National Park, the tourism industry is a major industry that generates employment and income opportunities for the local communities in Kuala Tahan. Their participation in the tourism industry is more on services sector, which can divide into two main categories as employees and as employers. Most of the local

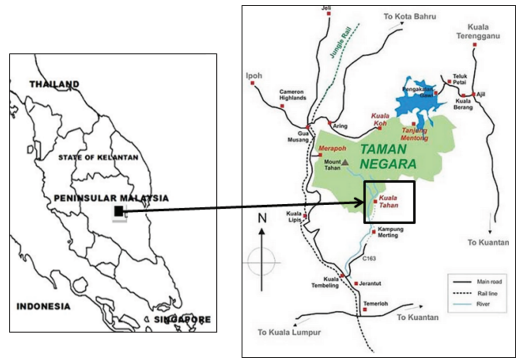

Figure 1. A map of Peninsular Malaysia showing the study area.

people work as boatman, nature tour guide, tourism agents, recreation facility operator, restaurant operator, accommodation operator and retailing.

2.2 *Data collections*

A multiple methods (structured questionnaire survey, structured interviews, document analysis, and field observations) were used. A total 400 respondents from 1,922 populations were selected by random stratified sampling techniques from 7 villages which are located near to Kuala Tahan. In order to gain a rich understanding the contents of this study, both qualitative and quantitative data were brought forth and analyzed and used to complement each other.

The respondents were male and female from the range 18–48 years old and above. The majority of the respondents were Malay (96.5%) and others belong to aborigines' people (3.5%). Most of the respondents attend secondary school (27.3%), primary school (23.3%), illiterate (21.8%), diploma (10.5%), degree (4.8%) and 12.5% were others type of education field. In-depth interviews were conducted with local villagers, local government officers and tourists in order have outstanding image about their opinion on linkage among local communities and tourism industry.

2.3 *Data analysis*

Descriptive analysis was run in SPSS software to analyze the quantitative data. Calculation of frequency distribution, mean and standard deviation provide descriptive statistical analysis of quantitative data collected by the questionnaire survey. Qualitative data from open questioner were treated purely as qualitative data, as they focused more on meaning drawn from the content of the data.

3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study indicates that most of the local communities were more motivated by "pull factors". The most significant reason for engaging in tourism are these industries offers jobs to local people (mean 4.26, SD 0.54). Local communities realized the potential of the National Park as tourism area due to the geological and biological attraction in this park. This finding can prove the statement on local community's knowledge of positive impact in the tourism industries which stated "The tourism industry offers job opportunities directly or indirectly to the local community" (Table 1). Local people realize that tourism industries are one fastest growing industry and can be one of employment options.

Second reasons for local people engaging in the tourism industry are personal satisfaction (mean 3.92, SD 0.83). Most of local people who work as a nature tour guide and boatman claimed that, working in this industry are more enjoying as they can more flexible in managing their own time (mean 3.29, SD 0.92), gain new experiences and challenges in the workplace.

Local boat driver, Ahmad (2013) agrees that, working in tourism industry give him a new experiences and challenges to posses his work. His claim that riding a boat in Kuala Tahan was one of challenging job for him, as he has to execute it as one of income sources to carry out his family. Usually he will gain net income around RM100 to RM200 a day. He was satisfied with his job as he can promote it by introducing the beauty of the national park to the tourists.

The third reason motivated the local community was the impact of tourism itself in improving the quality of life (mean 3.90, SD 0.82). Most of them have agreed that, tourism industry acts as catalyst in improving their quality of life. Participation in these industries that devote them a space to involve in planning and decision-making in tourism development to ensure the developers brings benefit to their socioeconomic.

Government officer, Noor Azin (2013) believed that, tourism industry brings many economic benefits to rural area such as job opportunities; provide goods; services and other economic benefits to local people. This will improve in living standards and increase quality of life among local communities.

Local communities also agree that, living close to the family (mean 3.80, SD 0.85) is one of the factors that prompted the local people's involvements, as more or less of them were promoted by their own family (mean 3.63, SD 1.01). They claim that, it's easy for them to work close to their family and well-known environment as they don't have to consider in getting any movement to another urban center and some of them are personally close to their kin.

Table 1. Local community knowledge of the positive impacts of tourism.

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements on local knowledge of positive impact in the tourism industries?	Mean[a]	SD
Tourism industry plays a role in the development of society through generating income.	3.81	0.68
Development of a rural area as a tourism zone, give a positive impact to the local socioeconomic.	3.54	0.71
The tourism industry offers job opportunities directly or indirectly to the local community.	3.68	0.82
Local communities have a role in the management of natural resources and the awareness of the importance of environmental concern.	3.49	0.73
Tourism is also promoting a variety of cultural activities of the local community.	3.51	0.90

[a]The higher the mean score, the stronger is the agreement.

One of local restaurant workers, Azman (2013) said that, some of his friends plan to move out of this area to another city, but they have to consider to switching jobs or getting another one, find a new house and other things as well.

The geographical location of Kuala Tahan as an entrant to National Park also gets one of motivational factors influence local community participating in this industry (mean 3.67, SD 0.90). Local communities realize the potency of this industry (mean 3.68, SD 0.84) in offering additional sources of income (mean 3.71, SD 0.69). This finding can prove the statement on local community's knowledge of positive impact in the tourism industries which stated "Tourism industry plays a role in the development of society through generating income" (Table 2). Participation in the tourism industry also makes a beneficial opportunity to local people gaining knowledge and experience in entrepreneurship (mean 3.51, SD 0.53) as it also helps local communities to market their manufactured product (mean 3.49, SD 0.71) to tourist. Retailing such stall, souvenir store, wash and gro-

Table 2. Motivation of local communities in tourism industries.

No.	Items	Mean	SD
Pull factors			
1.	The tourism industry offers jobs to the local community	4.26	0.54
2.	Personal satisfaction	3.92	0.83
3.	Improve the local community quality of life	3.90	0.82
4.	Living close to family	3.80	0.85
5.	Offering an additional source of income	3.71	0.69
6.	See the potential in this industry	3.68	0.84
7.	Tourism geography provides opportunities	3.67	0.90
8.	Encouraged by family	3.63	1.01
9.	More required skill	3.55	0.64
10.	Give a good opportunity to gain knowledge and experience in entrepreneurship	3.51	0.53
11.	Helps local community to market their manufactured product	3.49	0.71
12.	Support local government	3.41	0.65
13.	To prove own ability to be successful	3.34	0.90
14.	Doesn't require high qualification	3.31	1.03
15.	More flexible in managing own time	3.29	0.92
16.	Inspired by friend and other peoples' success	3.24	0.89
Push Factors			
17.	Lack of experience working in others sector	3.19	0.98
18.	Dissatisfaction with former jobs	3.14	0.97
19.	Unemployed	3.03	1.07

cery shop are an instance of economic activities that own by local people.

Local community claims that participation in tourism industry doesn't require high qualification (mean 3.31, SD 1.03) but more require technical skill (mean 3.55, SD 0.64). Most of local community involve in the nature tourist guide and boatman are more required for their mental strength and physical fitness.

Local people, who participated in the nature tourist guide, must attend nature tourist guide courses which is conducted approximately 2 weeks by Department of Wildlife and National Park before can guide tourists. Support from local government (mean 3.41, SD 0.65) in providing a good infrastructures, accommodations, transportation and services to Kuala Tahan also one factor which motivated the local people's participation in the tourism industry.

Under the push factor there are three main reasons that have been identified, such as lack of experience working in others sector (mean 3.19, SD 0.98), dissatisfaction with former job (mean 3.14, SD 0.97) and unemployed (mean 3.03, SD 1.07). They claim that, lack of experience working in other sector becomes one of the barrier to them in finding a job and unemployed. This problem occurs due to differences in skills, education level, and personal interest among local people. Lack of information, advice, and guidance has exposed them to another sector which is also why it's becoming one of the main reasons they are choosing tourism industries as their vocation, since this career was encouraged by family who are involved or inspired by friends and other people success (mean 3.24, SD 0.89) in this industry. Dissatisfaction with former jobs has also become one of the factors, that bear on the local people involvement in the tourism industry. They claim that, this ascribable to their unpleasant workplace and job stress. Realizing the potential of tourism industry make them believed that, tourism industries offered an alternative option for jobs and unemployment as the government is also concerned in giving support for development of tourism industries in planning, providing basic infrastructure and training programs which provide a positive contribution to the tourism sector, social, and economic well-being of local communities. One of strategic in order to improve the development in Kuala Tahan, local government has launched "Rancangan Kawasan Khas Kuala Tahan 2020" (RKK Kuala Tahan) on 20 December 2012. The principal aim of this action plan is to plan and reorganize the development of Kuala Tahan and the surrounding regions. RKK Kuala Tahan is also one of transformation platform to Kuala Tahan in creating a desirable environment to live and generating more economic activity, which will be capable to generate economic benefit to the local community by drawing more people and investors to the expanse, especially tourists who like to move and pass time visiting the National park by the year 2020.

Results showed that tourism industries and community participation have linkage as one factor in the development of the tourism industry through the involvement of local people. The participation which empowers the local community and the tourism industry so they can develop an appreciation and knowledge regarding local and individual

issues and costs associated with developing tourism personal factors such as motivation are one of the key factors, involving the participation of local people in this industry. Local communities were motivated by the benefit from the sustainability of the tourism industry through economic development in offering job, revenues and improving the quality of life among them. An intrinsic connection between tourism industry success and the availability of an appropriate labor supply (Liu and Wall, 2005), will improve services that will ensure increased revenues and quality of life among local communities.

A suitable skill and attribute have always been an important component of efficient and successful participation in the tourism workplaces (Wang, 2009). The personal interest qualities, skills, abilities and experiences in tourism are the main characteristic that can develop local person's career in this industry. The ecotourism destination like Kuala Tahan National Park promote and advertise an exemplify the challenge of these locations that had an attracting and retaining skilled workers (Solnet et al., 2014).

Government revenues from tourism industry also can be categorized as direct and indirect benefits gain from the tourism industry. In fact, government and other related agencies are playing a crucial role in the development of the country's tourism industry. The tourism industry is one of the sources of revenue (foreign exchange earnings, tax receipts) to the government and because of its multiplier effect, it also provides opportunities for local economic development by the direct upstream, and downstream industries involved in tourism activities which bear the potential for creating sectorial linkages and economic opportunities in the localities (Javier and Elazigue, 2011). Therefore, both the protected area manager and the tourist provider have a special responsibility in such circumstances to ensure that the community is listened to, and its views allowed to help shape the form of tourism that takes place in a sustainability way (Figgis and Bushell, 2007).

4 CONCLUSION

This study identified that, one of the factors that influences participation of local communities was more motivated by pull factors. There three main reasons enlisting for engaging in this tourism industry are the industry offers jobs to local people, personal satisfaction and improvement of the local community quality life. The tourism industry can be seen as an opportunity for local community to display their region distinct. Local people realize that tourism industries are one of the fastest growing economic activities, which can be one of profi` industries in contributing to the socioeconomic developments. By understanding factors that influence the local community in the tourism industry, it is believed that the tourism industry has a bigger impact in community development as tourism is closely related to local communities. Local government plays a major role in tourism and it engaged in the tourism industry in many ways. Perhaps, support from government and other related agencies in developing more program/plan and fund to encourage more participation of local communities in the tourism industry.

REFERENCES

Ahmah, N. (2013). Challenges as boat driver in Kuala Tahan. Interviewed by Noorhayati Mohd Rashidi [in person] Kuala Tahan, June 26, 2013.

Azman, A. (2013). Local people view on the migration of the local community in Kuala Tahan. Interviewed by Noorhayati Mohd Rashidi [in person] Kuala Tahan, June 28, 2013.

Aref, F., Gril, S. S. and Farshid, A. (2010). Tourism development in local communities: As a community development approach. *Journal of American Science, 6,* 155–161.

Bronkhorst, T., Ritchie, J. R. B. & Sheehan, L. (2010). Determinants of tourism success for DMOs & destinations: an empirical examination of stakeholders' perspectives. *Tourism Management*, 31.

Figgis, P. & Bushell, R. (2007). Tourism as a tool for community-based conservation and development. In Bushell, R. & Agles, P. F. J. (Ed.), *Tourism and protected areas: benefits beyond boundaries* (pp. 101–114). United Kingdom: Athenaeum Press, Gateshead.

Goossens, C. (2000). Tourism information and pleasure motivation. *Annals of tourism research. vol. 27, issue 2,* 301–321.

Guay, F., Chanal, J., Ratelle, C. F., March, H. W., Larose, S. and Boivin, M. (2010). Intrinsic, identified, and controlled types of motivation for school subjects and young elementary school children. *British Journal of educational psychology, 80 (4),* 711–735. doi: 10.1348/000709910X499084.

Ibrahim, M., Rahim, R. C. and Nor, N. M. I. M. (2013). Push and pull factors towards intention to engage in "Pondok Tourism". *Paper presented at International Conference of Social Science Research, ICSSR 2013*. Penang: WorldConferences.net.

Jamieson, W.(2011). *The Role of community—based tourism in ensring responsible and sustainable development*. Retrieved June 15, 2014 from http://www.toyo.ac.jp/uploaded/attachment/4776.pdf.

Javier, A. B. & Elazigue, D. B. (2011). Opportunities and challenges in tourism development role local government unit in the Philippines. *Paper presented at the 3th Annual Conference of the Academic Network of Development Studies in Asia (ANDA)*. Nagoya.

Kim, S. and Lee, C. (2002). Push and pull relationships. *Annals of tourism research, 29(1),* 257–260.

Kim, S. S., Lee, C. K. and Klenosky, D. B. (2003). The influence of push and pull factors at Korean national parks. *Tourism management. 24,* 169–180.

Klenosky, D. B. (2002). The pull of tourism destinations: A means-end investigation. *Journal of travel research, 40 (4),* 385–395.

Lai, E. R. 2011. *Motivation: A literature review*. Pearson's research reports, 1–43. Retrived June 15, (2014) from http://images.pearsonassessments.com/images/tmrs/motivation_review_final.pdf.

Liu, A. and Wall, G. (2005). Human resources development in China. *Annals of tourism research. vol. 32,* 689–710.

Muganda, M. Sirina, A. and Ezra, P. M. (2013). The role local communities in tourism development: Grassroots Perspectives on Tanzania. *Journal human ecology, 41 (1),* 553–66.

Noor Azin. (2013). Benefit of tourism industry and contribution to local community in Kuala Tahan. Interviewed by Noorhayati Mohd Rashidi [in person] Kuala Tahan, June 27, 2013.

Silva, F. B. D. & Franca, A. C. C. (2012). Toward understanding the underlying structure of motivational factors for software engineers to guide the definition of motivational programs. *Journal system and software. vol. 85, issue 2,* 216–226.

Scherl, L. M. and Edward, S. (2007). Tourism, indigenous and local communities and protected areas in developing nations. In Bushell, R. & Agles, P. F. J. (Ed.), *Tourism and protected areas: benefits beyond boundaries* (pp. 71–88). United Kingdom: Athenaeum Press, Gateshead.

Solnet, D. J., Ford, R. C., Robinson, R. N. S., Ritchie, B. W. & Olsen, M. (2014). Modeling location factors for tourism employment. *Annals of tourism research. vol. 45,* 30–45.

Telfer, D. J. and Sharpley, R. (2008). *Tourism and development in the developing world.* Abingdon (Oxon) and New York: Routledge.

Tosun, C. (2000). Limits to community participation in tourism development process in developing countries. *Tourism management, 21,* 613–633.

Wang, J. (2009). Job Ready Graduates: A Tourism industry perspective. *Journal of hospitality and tourism management. vol. 16, issue 1,* 62–72.

World Health Organization.(2002). Community participation in local health and sustainable development: approaches and techniques. European sustainable and health series 4. Retrieved June 13, 2014, from www.health.vic.gov.au/localgov/downloads/who_book4.pdf.

Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality – Lumban Gaol et al. (Eds)
© 2016 Taylor & Francis Group, London, ISBN 978-1-138-02920-0

Best practices with revenue sharing authentic assessment of preschool students' learning problems

Rashidah Mohd Rasul & Madhya Zagan
Department of Educational Psychology and Counseling, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: This study aims to develop a list of best practices in sharing authentic assessment outcome with family members as a guide to parents and pre-school teachers in the Malaysian Integrated Preschool Program. Data were collected using three iteration rounds of the Delphi technique. In the First Iteration Round, interviews were conducted with 9 education experts. Meanwhile the second and third iteration round, questionnaires were distributed to the same experts. Interview data were analyzed using thematic analysis. Data for the second and third iteration rounds of data were analyzed using descriptive statistics such as median scores and inter-quartile range. Results found that there are 23 elements of best practices in sharing authentic assessment outcome with family members who have preschoolers with learning disabilities. This research suggested that preschool teacher's integration of special education program implement the best practices in order to ensure transparency in assessing children with special needs.

Keywords: best practices, authentic assessment; preschool

1 INTRODUCTION

Authentic assessment is the process of gathering information about the development and progress of students using a variety of methods. It is part of the learning and teaching process that is carried out continuously (Curriculum Development Centre, 2010). In the Malaysian context, the purpose of the assessment was made which is to track student growth in line with the age, intelligence, and identify potential students to strengthen and enhance their overall development, identify strengths and weaknesses in student learning over time, provide feedback on student progress in all the aspects contained in the National Preschool Curriculum Standard (DSS) and track the effectiveness of teaching (Curriculum Development Centre, 2010).

Assessment results are analyzed to help teachers plan a proper follow-up action to develop the potential of students to an optimal level in the domain of cognitive, affective, and psychomotor recovery can also be created and the quality of learning and teaching can be improved and enhanced through the results of the assessment.

According to Meisels et al., 2002, assessment of quality can not only provide information about learning each individual can even be used as a resource in making decisions for the improvement of services in high-quality assessment of education program was also said to be forming school policy, teacher, and to determine the factors that affect student achievement incidentals such as health, counseling parents at home and the services provided in schools (Meisels et al., 2002).

In 2010, the Ministry of Education (MOE) has formulated the National Preschool Curriculum Standard (DSS) to replace the National Preschool Curriculum (KPK), which was implemented from 2003 to 2009 with the aim of ensuring that potential students can be developed in a comprehensive, balanced, and integrated compliance with the level of functionality of students aged 4 to 6 years. The curriculum also aims to ensure that special needs students master basic skills to foster positive attitudes and behaviors and adapt to the school environment in preparation for primary school (Jamie, 2012). For meeting the needs of individuals, learning and teaching in the Special Education Program is made flexible and coincides with the Regulations of Education (Special Education) Act 1997, which states that "teachers can modify the methods and techniques of teaching or learning, the timing of activities and the set of activities, subjects and teaching aids in order to achieve the objectives and goals of Special Education." Students with special needs have different learning abilities due to a variety of disabilities suffered. Academic achievement of pupils is too low and most often left behind in the teaching and learning because they could not follow the curriculum *Perdana. Artikel* 28 of the

Persons with Disabilities Malaysia 2008 confirms that students with special needs should be given support to help them achieve equality in education (Jamie, 2012). Accordingly, such a student would suggest using an initial curriculum modified by their achievement levels of students with learning disabilities or curriculum modified by the learning needs of each. The development of their learning assessed through Individual Education Plan (RPI) and several other methods of assessment standards set by the Ministry of Education. Assessment should be carried out on the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that are included in the Standard Curriculum Preschool Special Education Learning Issues.

Appraisal practice has become an integrated part of early intervention and early education of children with special needs. Throughout the history of the study of early childhood education, special education, focusing on assessment practices have been given. This study aims to develop best practice strategies that can be implemented by teachers in sharing assessment results with parents or family members so that it becomes a guide for teachers in Special Education Preschool Program integrated throughout Malaysia.

2 OBJECTIVE OF STUDY

This study aims to develop a list of best practices that can be implemented by teachers in sharing the results with family members Authentic Assessment preschool students with learning disabilities. This is a list of best practices specific to guide pre-school teachers of Special Education Integration Program in the implementation of Authentic Assessment efficiently and effectively.

3 METHODOLOGY

This study used the Delphi technique & Barrutia three around. According Landeta (2011), this technique is suitable to be used if the researcher to get more information.

Delphi study is to achieve a high level of consensus among experts about best practices that can be implemented by teachers in sharing the results with family members Authentic Assessment preschool students with learning disabilities to efficiently and effective. Accordingly Weaver (1971) Delphi technique is an approach to balancing views a group of experts to reach an agreement that seeks to build, rehabilitate and find solutions on problems and issues within future. According Martino (1983), the Delphi technique is a technique that is designed with a systematic approach to gather information or opinions from professionals or experts.

The first stage aims to design Delphi interview protocol to be used in the first round Delphi study. Interview questions based on previous studies of the main features of Authentic Assessment Authentic assessment and implementation strategies for assessing students with learning disabilities to efficiently and effectively. The next item is reviewed by three individuals who have expertise in the field of special education and has over 10 years of experience in this area to test the validity and reliability of the instruments. Gay and Airasian (2006) propose the selection of a qualitative study, at least one and no maximum limit for the number of fixed and their views have been supported by Miller and Salkind in the selection of a qualitative study participants. In this study, researchers chose 9 panel with experience in Preschool Special Education and Assessment to be interviewed.

Delphi study session of the second round and third place to develop questionnaire items. In the second round of sessions, study participants interact with the questionnaires that have been developed from the findings of the interview. Data analysis session the first round Delphi study found a total of 23 practices related to assessment revenue sharing with parents. The second round of data was analyzed using descriptive statistical measure of central tendency (UKB), a median, and interquartile range (JAK). Median scores were able to show individual views of experts compared the use of balanced mode (Martino, 1972) while Inter Quartile Range score (JAK) also determine the relationship of each item with study participants. Guided surgery and Paris Saleh (2008), the level of agreement between the experts of the items specified as in Table 1.

A second round of Delphi has also received several suggestions as additional items and improvement of existing item of specialists 9. There were 2 new items added in the questionnaire and 4 items were dropped based on the recommendations of the expert panel. This brings the total number of items contained in the questionnaire to 23 items in total. For the third round of sessions, set the questionnaire that had been purified after taking into account the views of the expert panel, administered to all of the experts involved with the aim of bridging the gap between expert evaluations.

Table 1. Determination based expert level agreement between Quartile Range Value (QRV).

Value of QRV	Level of Agreement
0.00 to 1.00	High
1.01 to 1.99	Moderate
2 above	None

Delphi round session ended in the third round after all the items showed the highest median score of 5 and the high level of agreement among experts (QRV value are 0.00 to 1.00).

4 FINDINGS

A total of five elements have received high approval by experts as an element to be factored into share assessment results with family members. A total of 23 practice agreed at the highest level by all experts as a best practice revenue sharing with family members authentic assessment Preschool Students with learning disabilities.

Here is a list of the practices by the respective elements:

Element 1: Effective strategies that can be performed by teachers in the assessment of sharing with parents

1. Teachers need to show the results of the assessment reports to parents in the form of easy to understand and not only the score counts.
2. Definition of terms should be included in the assessment report should involve technical words and elusive.
3. Teachers report student strengths and needs in a transparent manner.
4. The teacher told limitations encountered during the assessment. For example; language students.
5. Families are given sufficient time during assessments revenue sharing to exchange views before a decision is taken to follow up.
6. Teachers need to report in detail the steps taken if a student is not able to master a skill due to its inability and the steps taken to resolve the issue.
7. The teacher sums up the overall development of children annually (summative) for the preparation of the annual meetings of the revised RPI / IFSP
8. Teachers can suggest the involvement of additional family members or anyone who is meeting with students while sharing the results of the assessment

Element 2: Items that could be shared by the teacher in the student's performance report

9. The level of proficiency in a skill.
10. Report on the development of Preschool Students with Learning Disabilities in detail by month.
11. Proposed Learning and next Teaching Strategy.
12. The challenges faced by teachers in the learning and teaching of students.
13. The challenges faced by students in the implementation of the Learning and Teaching or activities
14. The ways parents can help improve students' interest or inclination.

Element 3: Purpose and limitations of information to parents

15. Limitations must be cleared to ensure no unexpected expectations expected by the parents.
16. Limitations must be described in a positive form that can give confidence to parents

Element 4: What parents can do after obtaining the assessment results

17. Upon the report of the assessment, parents can talk to the teacher or therapist related reports and follow-up actions can be taken by parents in helping their children.
18. Parents should discuss with the teacher if there are any statements or information that are unclear.
19. Parents are supposed to cooperate with teachers in planning and implementing learning strategies.
20. Parents need to help students, particularly after the RPI was formed and began learning and teaching.

Element 5: Revenue sharing pays to the student assessment special needs

21. If the collaboration between parents and teachers is well done, Preschool Students with Learning Disabilities to benefit through Authentic Assessment as they are given attention at school and home to the identified weak and needs help
22. The process of learning and teaching will be smooth and according to the requirements, needs, and abilities Preschool Students with Learning Disabilities can provide input to parents, therapists, and teachers regarding interventions continued to do as well as improvements in the implementation of these interventions.

5 DISCUSSION

Score assessment results, can not explain in detail the weaknesses of students. In this study, the majority of the panel's view, the teacher should show the results of the assessment to the parents in a form that is easily understood and not simply by counting the score, and this view is in line with Sandall & Smith (2000), which states the report assessment should be viewed as understood by parents because there are several factors that play a role

unnoticed. The definition of the terms should be included in the assessment report should involve technical words and elusive.

Teachers are responsible for reporting the strengths and needs of students in a transparent manner. Teachers told limitations encountered during the assessment. For example, limitations in terms of the language students. Restrictions and limitations should be explained to the parents to ensure that no unexpected expectations are to be expected by the parents. Limitations should be described in a positive form that can give confidence to parents. To avoid the limitations, the assessment should be carried out in a controlled environment that is at least equal to the actual environment of the child in accordance with the standard have been standardized. Assessment should be administered in a quiet, and relatively free environment. If the assessment is often interrupted or if the child's attention is attracted to other things, an inaccurate result will be obtained. Creating this environment is quite challenging because the space in the preschool integration of special education program relatively small and limited. Teachers also must report in detail the steps taken if a student is not able to master a skill due to ineligibility and steps taken to resolve the issue.

According to Sandall & Smith (2000), teachers or professionals should take the initiative to help students with special needs have the potential to do a task on its own without help. Once reported, the parents should be given a period of time sufficient to exchange views before a decision is taken to follow up. Teachers can also suggest the involvement of additional family members or anyone else who is close to MBK while sharing the results of the assessment. This view is in line with the recommendations Bagnato (2005), confirming the involvement of other individuals who recognize students with special needs are encouraged to ensure that no information is left behind. Teacher sums up the overall development of children annually (summative) for the annual meeting of the revised integration lesson plan. Teachers must report to a level of skill. When reporting student achievement, teachers can tell the next PDP reserves. Teachers may also discuss ways parents can help improve students' interest or inclination. This view is consistent with Brown & Snell (2000), which states that the interest and the positive affirmation of children with special needs should be identified in order to reduce unwanted behavior and increasing concentration of children with special needs to complete their assignment.

After obtaining the results of the assessment, parents can talk to the teacher or therapist related reports and follow-up actions that can be implemented by parents in helping their children. Parents need to cooperate with teachers in planning and implementing the next PDP strategy. Parents should guide their children, especially after the RPI was formed and after the PDP is started. Vygotsky emphasized the role of adults and children in the development of an individual. According to Vygotsky children born with the ability to understand the outside world and concentrate on something. However, they do not have much high level mental functions such as thinking skills and problem solving skills high. If the collaboration between parents and teachers is well done, MBK benefit because they are given attention in school and at home against weak aspects identified. In addition, the PDP process will be smooth and according to the requirements, needs and abilities MBK.

6 CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Through this study we can conclude that the field of early childhood education and early intervention has become an agenda in the national education system. Authentic assessment plays a key role in the design, delivery and evaluation of an early intervention program for children. Conventional test is not suitable for pre-school students with learning disabilities. It should be replaced with Authentic Assessment. Observation and reporting actual achievements provide real evidence of children's progress and impact of a program. Co-operation between parents, teachers, and therapists and community is essential in documenting the capabilities and potential of the students holistically.

The average teacher in integration of special education program Preschool education degree and majored in special education. However, the field of authentic assessment is a rather complex field where skilled teachers are not properly applied to students with learning disabilities. Preschool teachers' integration of special education program have the opportunity to give a significant impact on pupils' learning. teachers need to be trained in a way teacher hands on the handles Authentic Assessment. As there is no detailed guidance in assessing students with learning disabilities in preschool authentic, the practices proposed in this study can serve as a guide for teachers Preschool Special Education in particular for new Teacher who taught in preschool integration of special education program.

REFERENCES

BPK (2010). *Kurikulum Standard Prasekolah Pendidikan Khas (Masalah Pembelajaran)*, Kementerian Pendidikan Malaysia.

Bagnato, S. J. (2005). The authentic alternative for assessment in early intervention: An emerging evidence-based practice. *Journal of Early Intervention, 28(1)*.

Gay, L. R., Mills, G. E. dan Airasian, P. (2006). Educational Research (8th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Jamila K.A. Mohamed.(2012).*Penerapan Kemahiran Literasi Bagi Murid Prasekolah Bermasalah Pendengaran di Sekolah Kebangsaan Pendidikan Khas*. Tesis DR. Falsafah Fakulti Pendidikan Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.

Landeta, J. y Barrutia, J. (2011). *People consultation to construct the future: A Delphi application*. *International Journal of Forecasting*.

Martha E. Snell, Fredda Brown (2000). Instruction of students with severe disabilities. Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Merrill.

Martino, J. P. (1983). Technological forecasting for decision making. New York: North-Holland.

Meisels, S.J., Atkins Burnett, S., Xue, Y., Nicholson, J., Bickel, D., & Sons, S. (2002). *Creating A System Of Accountability: The Impact Of InstructionalAssessment On Elementary Children's Achievement Test Scores*. American Educational Research Journal, 39(1),3–25.

Saedah dan Mohd Paris Saleh (2008), Jangkaan Masa Depan Terhadap Aplikasi Teknologi dalam Pengajaran dan Pembelajaran Peringkat Sekolah Menengah: Pandangan Pakar. Fakulti Pendidikan, Universiti Malaya, Kuala Lumpur.

Sandall, S., Mc Lean, M.e., & Smith, B.J (2000). DEC Recommend Practices in early intervention/early childhood special education, Longmont, CO: Sporis West.

Weaver, W. T. (1971). The Delphi forecasting method. Phi Delta Kappan, 52 (5), 267–273.

This page intentionally left blank

References

Education & social behaviour

Ahmad, N., Yaakub, R. & Megat Abdul Rahim, P. R.

(2004). Towards learner autonomy in teaching English

in Malaysia. A conference paper presented at the 4 th International Symposium on ELT in China, Beijing (21-25 May 2004). Al-Asmari, A. R. (2013). Practices and prospects of learner autonomy: teachers' perceptions. English Language Teaching, 6(3), Online journal. Benson, P. (2001). Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning. London: Longman. Benson, P. (2011). Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning (2nd ed., first published, 2001). London: Pearson Education. Benson, P. (2011a). What's new in autonomy?. The Language Teacher, 35(4), 15-18. Borg, S. & Al-Busaidi, S. (2012). Learner autonomy: English language teachers' beliefs and practices. ELT Research Paper. 12-07. London: British Council. Castle, K. (2004). The meaning of autonomy in early childhood teacher education. Journal of Early Childhood Teacher Education, 25(1), 3-10. Dam, L., Eriksson, R., Little, D., Miliander, J., & Trebbi, T. (1990). Towards a definition of autonomy. In T. Trebbi (Ed.), Third Nordic workshop on developing autonomous learning in the FL classroom (pp. 102- 103). Bergen: University of Bergen. Holec, H. (1979). Autonomy and foreign language learning. Oxford: Pergamon Press. Kaur, N. (2013). The need for autonomous vocabulary learners in the Malaysian ESL classroom. GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies, 13(3). http:// ejournal.ukm.my/gema/article/view/4216 Little, D. (1991). Learner autonomy: Definitions, issues and problems. Dublin: Authentik. Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025. (2013). Putrajaya, Malaysia: Ministry of Education. Ministry of Education. (2015). Brief history on education policy. http://www.moe.gov.my/v/imbasan-sejarah. Accessed on: 2 February 2015. McGarry, D. (1995). Learner autonomy 4: The role of authentic texts. Dublin: Authentik. Oguz, A. (2013). Developing a scale for learner autonomy support. Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice, 13(4), 2187-2194. doi:10.12738/estp.2013.4.1870. Ozturk, I. H. (2011). Curriculum reform and teacher autonomy in Turkey: The case of the history teaching. International Journal of Instruction, 4(2), 113-128. Wang, P. (2011). Constructivism and learner autonomy in foreign language teaching and learning: to what extent does theory inform practice?. Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 1(3), pp.237-277.

Mother tongue education and ethnic identity of Malaysian Chinese secondary school students

Pei Yao Ho

Department of Chinese Studies, Faculty of Art and Social Science, University of Malaya,

Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Fong Peng Chew

Department of Language and Literacy Education, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya,

Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Ker Pong Thock

Department of Chinese Studies, Faculty of Art and Social Science, University of Malaya,

Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: Education and ethnic identity are two contentious issues in multi-ethnic society that need

more subtle researches. In Malaysia, the mother tongue education for Chinese is intertwined historically

with their identity maintenance but short of current empirical findings. This study aims to find out the

relationship between mother tongue education and ethnic identity of Malaysian Chinese students from

Independent Chinese Secondary Schools (ICSS). The study focuses first on students' ethnic identity, then

demographic factors and factors pertaining education. The educational factors are language proficiency,

language usage, school environment and school activities. Data will be collected through survey question

naire with items rated on 5-point Likert scale. Data analysis will make use of the Statistical Package for

Social Sciences (SPSS). Further development of mother tongue education can be revised with regard to

the understanding of its relation to Malaysian Chinese ethnic identity.

Keywords: mother tongue education; ethnic identity; Malaysian Chinese; secondary school students & Santhiram, 2010). In other words, mother tongue language and cultures are important substances where the life and soul of an ethnic group rooted. Mother tongue education is seen as the heart of life for ethnic Chinese, as declared by Lim Lian Geok, the soul of Malaysian Chinese: “Mother tongue education and human life are equally important.” Mother tongue language is regarded as a symbol of heritage and ethnicity and education is the platform for the transmission of the language, culture and values. Malaysia Chinese make every effort to maintain education in their mother tongue. The usage and recognition of the mother tongue language in the national education system is a prerequisite for ethnic minority to preserve culture and ethnic identity (Tan, 2007; Watson, 2007). Thus, the maintenance of Chinese language is thought to be associated with the maintenance of Chinese values and the continuity of Chinese ethnic identity. A complete mother tongue education system is regarded the most accessible and effective weapon to disseminate and preserve Chinese language, as well as establish Chinese culture and worldview (Hou, 2006). Chinese primary school has emerged to be the first

1 INTRODUCTION

Malaysian Chinese as Chinese overseas migrated

from China in substantial number especially dur

ing the 19th century British colonialism. During

the post-colonialism period, a great number of

Chinese in Malaysia chose to stay and more Chi

nese are born locally to become Malaysia citizens.

Malaysian Chinese today is an ethnic group with

total population of 24.6% in year 2010 (Depart

ment of Statistics Malaysia, 2011). They are sig

nificant minority in numbers as compared to 67.4% Malays, 7.3% Indians and 0.7% other ethnics. Malaysian Chinese together with other ethnic groups framed the multi-ethnic society.

Malaysian Chinese are well-known of the most comprehensive mother tongue education up until tertiary level. Mother tongue language, Chinese Mandarin is used as the language of instruction concurrently with the learning of the language. Mother tongue language is vital for the reproduction and maintenance of culture—that is, the system of beliefs, values, norms, practice, symbols and ideas, also, “the quintessential symbol of a culture” (Tan enrolment choice for Chinese parents. It is a trend in Chinese community to undergo Chinese education nowadays with more than 90% Chinese parents who sent their children to Chinese primary schools (Vernacular Schools Report, 2012). The majority of the young generation of Chinese undergo at least 6 years of Chinese primary education with trilingual ability. Chinese language is the medium of instruction at primary schools but Malay and English language are taught as language subjects.

At secondary level education, a small minority of 10% students opt for independent Chinese secondary

schools (ICSS) (Sin Chew, 2013). ICSS is a product consequently from the enactment of the 1957 Education Ordinance and 1961 Education Act (Lee, 2011). ICSS are not assisted financially by the government and employed Chinese as the language of instruction. The existence of ICSS is meaningful for protecting mother tongue language and disseminating Chinese culture among Chinese students. Although minority, there is a constant increase of the total enrolment for ICSS students in the recent years.

2 RESEARCH FOCUS

The construct of ethnic identity originated from social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Ethnic identity is an aspect of a person's social identity as part of an individual's self-concept that derives from his or her knowledge of membership in a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership (Tajfel, 1981). It is determined by the individual's subjective identification with regard to the understanding and feelings as an ethnic group member within a social context. A number of studies showed that education is a contributing contextual factor affecting ethnic identity (Feliciano, 2009; French, Seidman, Allen & Aber, 2006; Maramba & Ve-lasquez,

2012). Mother tongue education is able to transmit and cultivate the ethnic values of the stu-dents. The learning of the mother tongue language and being educated in the mother tongue language environ ment is a pathway to foster ethnic identity.

In a longitudinal research, Trudell (2005) found the effectiveness of the teaching and learning through mother tongue language and its relevance to culture and identity. Before the implementation of mother tongue program (PROPELCA), the language and culture of the Bafut, Kom and Nso' ethnic groups of Northwest Province of Cameroon are excluded in the formal education. School experiences due to the ignorance of mother tongue language fail to build up their identity but prompt academic failures. Findings in this research suggest the inclusion of the mother tongue language and culture within the formal educational contexts brings about a maintenance of identity and academic success. Schools are important contexts in which the process of values and cultural transmission takes place. Hoon (2011) summarized in a study through a thorough profiling of Christian schools that schools serve as a site for the maintenance of boundaries and for the construction of religious, ethnic, and class identities. In this study, Chinese Christian schools in Jakarta, Indonesia play an active role in students' character building through the inculcation of Christian values and by engaging them in religious activities. Students' religious identity is constructed in the process of participation as a member in the school environment. Education provides the well-planned strategies for the learning of language in its written and spoken form. The perpetuation of a language depends on the continuous learning and practicing by at least a group of people. Language proficiency has a close relationship with ethnic identity. Language proficiency is indicated by how well adolescents under-stand, speak, read, and write. A survey was carried out to investigate the role of language on ethnic identity among adolescents from 81 Armenians, 47 Vietnamese and 88 Mexicans (Phinney, Romero, Nava & Huang, 2001). Research findings demonstrated that the

adolescents' ethnic language proficiency is significantly positively related to their ethnic identity across all 3 different ethnic groups. In another case study conducted on 387 Vietnamese high school students in New Orleans, United States showed that ethnic identification and ethnic language skills are two interlinked aspects of ethnic group membership (Bankston & Zhou, 1995). The ability of the Vietnamese high schools students to read and write in mother tongue language is strongly related to their Vietnamese identity. Michel, Titzmann & Silbereisen (2012) demonstrated a predictive relationship between language usage and identity in examining language shift among ethnic German immigrants from Russian. Language usage is measured by asking how often the adolescents spoke German with their parents, spoke German with their friends and how often they read books or other written materials in German. Ethnic German adolescents have an increasing orientation as a German and decreasing self-identification as Russian in the process of increasing intensity of time spent speaking and interacting with their German peers in German language.

Table 1. Total enrolment of ICSS students from 2010

to 2013.

Year 2010 2011 2012 2013

Enrolment 63,765 66,968 70,266 75,923

(Adapted and re-arranged from UCSCA, 2014).

On the other hand, most of the study on ethnic

identity focuses on the adolescence stage, secondary

school level in other words (Kim & Chao, 2009;

Umana-Taylor & Fine, 2004). Adolescence is a cru

cial stage of life that individuals explore and con

struct their sense of self, the identity. The searching

of a sense of self-conscious becomes a predominant

subject at this period of life particularly when con

flicts appear. Adolescents experience identity crisis

to a different extent, trying to figure out the meaning of being a member to an ethnic group and when they did, they have an identity achieved (Phinney, 1993). These empirical findings showed the dependent relationship between education and ethnic iden tity, from a variety of educational aspects such as mother tongue language, the structure of education being implemented and social environment of the schools. Chinese students, at their adolescence stage, who undergo mother tongue education in ICSS have a custom-made environment for the cultiva tion process of everything being, feeling and acting as “Chinese” (Chen, 2011). Therefore, the search of the construct of ethnic identity is considerable in Malaysian Chinese mother tongue education.

Apart from that, demographic information is found to be important factors to influence ethnic identity. Straszer (2012) conducted a survey study among 50 Swedish-Hungarian and 38 Finnish-Hun garian immigrants to compare some socio-cultural and demographic factors on the issues of language choice, culture and identity. Findings from this research demonstrated an association between demo graphic factors such as family historical back-ground and the maintenance of Hungarian identity and lan

guage in both countries. Moreover, family socioeco
nomic status which comprises of household income,
parents' level of education and occupation is often
found to be related to the maintenance of mother
tongue language and ethnic identity (Ong, Phinney &
Dennis, 2006).

In line with these findings, the diversified demo
graphic backgrounds that exist among the Chinese
students ought to be given attention in the research.
Religious learning (Chiang, 2014), programs and
activities of curriculum in different streams (Chan,
2007), family's teaching resulted from different
level of socioeconomic status (Contini, & Maturo,
2011; Ong, Phinney, & Dennis, 2006) such as fam
ily income, parents' highest level of education and
parents' occupation are among the possible factors
which are related to the differences of what students
pick up as education receivers. These segments of
differences form their way of life together with the
formal school education in mother tongue, which
in turn influence their ethnic identity.

The study on the Malaysian Chinese ethnic iden
tity as a social psychological construct has not been
found in the scholarly writings. Previous researches have focused on general Chinese identity from the historical, socio-historical or anthropological perspectives (Ku, 2003; Tang, 2007; Tong, 2010). The concept of Chinese ethnic

identity was first proposed by Wang (1988) to refer to the identity of race and culture. Tan (2004) on the other hand emphasized that ethnic identity refers to ethnic identification with a particular ethnic category. Thence, ethnic identity is subjectively perceived as belonging to an ethnic group and with common culture. Shigeo Arai (2007) attempted to analyze the Chinese identity by drawing on the quantitative data about the language life of ethnic Chinese in Malaysia. The survey contained questions on the language competency and preferred education, language usage in daily communication and working language usage. Respondents from a group of adults with diverse age and occupation and a group of college students were asked to choose from Malaysia, China or Singapore by means to identify their cultural, historical and political identity. He concluded that most Malaysian Chinese identified themselves in Chinese cultural and economic sphere, but concurrently as Malaysians who contribute to the country's development. This research provide the statistical data of the Chinese' choice of language and education, but the concept of Chinese identity is rigidly based on the analysis of Chinese multiple identities by Wang (1988). Furthermore, the relationship between education and Chinese identity is unclear. In survey study, Chen (2011) examined students' perspectives about the relationship between Chinese awareness and the role of ICSS. A total of 1115 ICSS students participated in the research with aver-age 18 years. From the research findings, students from ICSS agreed in general that ICSS are able to inculcate sense of "Chineseness", maintain Chinese characteristics and passionate on culture dissemination. The research emphasized on the impact of school in conserving and passing down Chinese identity rather than student's sense of being Chinese. Again, there is no empirical findings focus specifically on Malaysian Chinese ethnic identity and its relationship with mother tongue education. Studies above have showed the complexity of the linkage between education and ethnic identity. Malaysian Chinese secondary school students are at their crucial age to seek for their identity within an educational context. This process of learning and establishing self-identification is especially significant to ethnic Chinese who live in a multiethnic country. Mother tongue education and the society's diversification, to a certain extent, are offering two different systems of thoughts on the basis of identity. Thence, the current research which is looking into ethnic identity of Malaysian Chinese secondary school students and its relation specifically to mother tongue education is meaningful to educational reformation and success.

3 PURPOSES OF THE STUDY

This study aims to examine the construct of eth

nic identity from a socio-psychological perspective

which is able to contribute to scholarly findings.

The research purposes are set to draw out a clear

understanding of the relationship between ethnic

identity and mother tongue education in a broad

sense, and factors pertaining education in particu

lar among Malaysian Chinese secondary school

students who are studying in a mother tongue

environment. In addition, demographic factors

such as gender, religion, stream of study and fam

ily socioeconomic status are highlighted to unravel

the complexity of the research problems.

The research objectives are as the following:

1. To identify the level of ethnic identity among Malaysian Chinese secondary school students.

2. To examine whether there is any relationship between Malaysian Chinese secondary school students' ethnic identity and mother tongue education.

3. To examine whether there is any relationship between Malaysian Chinese secondary school students' ethnic identity and educational factors.

4. To examine whether there is any relationship between Malaysian Chinese secondary school students' ethnic identity and demographic factors.

4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Ethnic identity is often conceptualized as an abstract,

situational, and context-bounded construct. It is an important self-identification in relation to the social environment where a person experiences on daily basis. It is the cornerstone of the person in constructing a meaningful identity and way of life in a multi-ethnic society. The construct of ethnic identity is examined in a socio-psychological per spective by looking into social identity theory and theory of identity development.

4.1 Social identity theory

Social identity theory initiates the foundation of a social context in the search of an identity. Social identity is a type of group identity that is central to the self-concept of members of the group (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). It is determined by the individual's categorization with regard to the understanding and affective bonds to the social group within a social context. The search for identity is only mean ingful with reference to the social context because people live in a sociable community. Social groups in which people categorize themselves are parts of a structured society and exist only in relation to other contrasting categories (Hogg, & Abrams, 1988). The individual self is influenced by the cultures, values and ethics which exist in the society. People learn about themselves through social contact and environment. They eventually identify with certain cultures and values and attach to people who have the same worldviews with them. Social groups are formed in the constant process of meaning making of who they are within the social context.

Ethnic identity is a self-concept depending on people's knowledge and comprehension about their ethnic group. People identify their ethnic group with reference to the shared ethnic traits among the ethnic group members. An ethnic group is formed in the process of comparison with others who live in the same society. For instance, Malaysian Chinese identify themselves according to characteristics that mark their "Chineseness". They are aware of the group commonness and the differences by comparing to others. They distinguish themselves to form an ethnic group in comparison to Malays mainstream. They are mentally and emotionally self-identified as belonging to Malaysian Chinese, an ethnic group. 4.2 Theory of identity development Identity is a self-concept that varies at different period in our life. Erikson (1968) categorized eight stages of identity development from infancy throughout the lifespan. Ego identity, a sense of self-conscious, is actually shaped by the growing life experiences and daily encounters within the individual's social context. Based on the works of identity development, Phinney (1993) proposed a three-stage model of ethnic identity development in adolescence. Stage one is unexamined ethnic identity where individuals lack of exploration of ethnicity. The next stage is ethnic identity search or moratorium. This is a critical turning point for adolescents to encounter identity crisis and try to figure out the meaning of being a member to an ethnic group. Stage three is the ideal outcome of identity achieved in which they have a clear understanding and belonging to their own ethnic membership. As secondary school students are at the adolescence stage of actively understanding about themselves, they are unavoidable constructing their ethnic identity at the same time. According to social identity theory and theory of identity development, ethnic identity is formed within a social context. Thus, the immediate social environment pertaining language and school is framed as the social context, ICSS specifically in this research. The construct of Malaysian Chinese students' ethnic identity is examined by means of a phenomenon that is formed through the process of in mother tongue education.

5 METHODOLOGY

This research makes use of quantitative survey

method by collecting numerical data via structured

questionnaires. Survey questionnaires are used to

obtain direct information and responses about ethnic identity and their educational experiences. Simple random sampling will be employed according to the convenience of the administration of the school. However, only students who are studying in upper secondary will be recruited because they have experienced more school years at secondary schools. This implies that they are the group of students who have more experiences within the mother tongue education context.

In social science, an instrument is a mechanism for measuring phenomena, which is used to gather and record information for assessment, decision making, and ultimately understanding (Colton, & Covert, 2007). Items in the survey questionnaire are adapted and constructed based on the previous studies and past literatures.

The survey questionnaire is constructed in English. Careful translation is followed and it will be administered to the respondents in Chinese language. Items in each section are constructed on the variables in this research. The independent variables are students' demography, educational factors, and mother tongue education while the dependent variable is Malaysian Chinese secondary school students'

ethnic identity. Ethnic identity is measured by the ethnic identity score adapted from Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM). The MEIM instrument was developed by Jean Phinney (1992). The original scale consists of 14 items to assess three factors of ethnic identity: affirmation and belonging (5 items); achievement (7 items), including exploration and commitment; and ethnic behaviors (2 items).

Chan, E. 2007. Student experiences of a culturally-sensitive curriculum: ethnic identity development amid conflicting stories to live by. Journal of Curriculum Studies, Vol. 39, No. 2, 177-194.

Chiang, W.F. 2014. Speaking in (whose) tongue: Heritage language maintenance and ritual practices in Singapore. Pragmatics and Society, 5:1, 22-49.

Chen, M.F. 2011. The attitudes of Malaysian Chinese new generations towards Chinese education. In Z.P. Liu (ed). Interaction and Creation: Chinese people under multidimensional view. (Chinese language) Guilin: Guangxi Normal University Press.

Colton, D. & Covert, R.W. 2007. Designing and Constructing Instruments for Social Research and Evaluation. John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Contini, R.M. & Maturo, A. 2011 A statistical survey on the multi-ethnic school in Abruzzo, a region in central

Italy: perspectives on intercultural approach to inte
gration. Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences 30,
1452–1456.

Department of Statistics Malaysia. 2011. Population Distri
bution and Basic Demographic Characteristics 2010.

Erikson, E.H. 1968. Identity, Youth, and Crisis. 1st Ed.
New York: Norton.

Feliciano, C. 2009. Education and ethnic identity forma
tion among children of Latin American and Carib
bean immigrants. Sociological Perspectives, 52(2),
135–158.

French, S.E., Seidman, E., Allen, L.-R. & Aber, J.L.
2006. The development of ethnic identity during ado
lescence. Developmental Psychology, 42(1), 1–10.

Hogg, M.A. & Abrams, D. 1988. Social Identifications: A
Social Psychology of Intergroup Relations and Group
Processes. Routledge.

Hoon, C.Y. 2011. Mapping ‘Chinese’ Christian schools
in Indonesia: ethnicity, class and religion. Asia Pacific
Education Review, 12, 403–411.

Hou, K.C. 2006. Malaysian Chinese: Identity, Culture and
Ethnic Conflict. Centre for Malaysian Chinese Studies.

Kim, S.Y. & Chao, R.K. 2009. Heritage language flu
ency, ethnic identity and school effort of immigrant
Chinese and Mexican adolescents. Cultural Diversity

and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 15(1), 27-37.

Ku, H.T. 2003. Education and Identity: A Study on Chi
nese Secondary Education in Malaysia (1945-2000).
(Chinese language) Xiamen University Press.

Lee, T.H. 2011. Chinese Schools in Peninsular Malaysia:
The Struggle for Survival. ISEAS. Singapore.

Maramba, D.C. & Velasquez, P. 2012. Influences of the
campus experience on the ethnic identity development
of students of color. Education and Urban Society,
44(3), 294-317.

Michel, A., Titzmann, P.F. & Silbereisen, R.K. 2012.
Language shift among adolescent ethnic German
immigrants: predictors of increasing use of German
over time. International Journal of Intercultural Rela
tions, 36, 248-259.

Ong, A.D., Phinney, J.S. & Dennis, J. 2006. Competence
under challenge: exploring the protective influence of
parental support and ethnic identity in Latino college
students. Journal of Adolescence, 29, 961-979.

Phinney, J.S. 1992. The multigroup ethnic identity meas
ure, a new scale for use with diverse group. Journal of
Adolescent Research, 7(2), 156-176.

Phinney, J.S. 1993. Three-stage model of ethnic iden
tity development in adolescence. In M.E. Bernal & G.P.
Knight (eds). Ethnic Identity: Formation and Transmission
among Hispanics and Other Minorities. State University of
New York Press, Albany. Phinney, J.S., Romero, I, Nava, M.

& Huang, D. 2001. The Role of language, parents, and peers in ethnic identity among adolescents in immigrant families. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 30(2), 135–153. Shigeo, A. 2007. On the language life and identity of ethnic Chinese in Malaysia: An analysis based on questionnaire. Overseas Chinese History Studies, 6(2). Straszer, B. 2012. Hungarians in Finland and Sweden: Comparison of some sociocultural and demographic factors on language choice, culture and identity. Finnish Yearbook of Population Research XLVII, 5–30. Tajfel, H. 1981. Human Groups and Social Categories: Studies in Social Psychology. Cambridge University Press. Tajfel, H. & Turner, J.C. 1979. An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W.G. Austin & S. Worchel (eds), The Social Psychology of Intergroup Relations, 22–47. Monterey, CA: Books/Cole. Tajfel, H. & Turner, J.C. 1986. The social identity theory of intergroup behaviour. In W.G. Austin & S. Worchel (eds), The Social Psychology of Intergroup Relations, pp. 7–24. Chicago: Nelson-Hall. Tan, C.B. 2004. Chinese Overseas Comparative Cultural Issues. Hong Kong University Press. Tan, Y.S. 2007. Transition of Bilingual Education of Ethnic Chinese in Peninsular Malaysia. (Malay language) University Science Malaysia Publisher. Tan, Y.S. & Santhiram, R. 2010. The Education of Ethnic Minorities: The Case of the Malaysian Chinese. SIRD. Tang, N.F. 2007. Rethinking of the concept: Chinese overseas and Malaysian Chinese. In K.C. Hou (ed). China and Malaysia in the Discourse of Globalization. (Chinese language) Centre for Malaysian Chinese Studies. The massive increase of National-type Secondary School Students: The Stress of Lacking Teachers and Over Budget (Chinese language). 2013. Sin Chew Jit Poh, downloaded on Dec, 5, 2014 from http://news.sinchew.com.my/node/273739. Tong, C.K. 2010. Identity and Ethnic Relations in Southeast Asia. Springer. Trudell, B. 2005. Language choice, education and community identity. International Journal of Educational Development 25 (2005), 237–251. UCSCA. 2014. 2013 Statistic. (Chinese language) United Chinese School Committees' Association. Umana-Taylor, A.J. & Fine, M.A. 2004. Examining ethnic identity among Mexican-origin adolescents living in United States. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 26(1), 36–59. Vernacular Schools Report. 2012. Vernacular Schools in Malaysia: "A Heritage to be celebrated or a hindrance to nation building?" Centre for Public Policy Studies, Kuala Lumpur. Wang, G.W. 1988. The study of Chinese identities in Southeast Asia. In J.W. Cushman & G.W. Wang (eds). Changing Identities of the Southeast Asian Chinese since World War II. Hong Kong University Press. Watson, K. 2007. Language, education and ethnicity: Whose rights will prevail in an age of globalisation? International Journal

of Education Development, 27, 252-265.

The acquisitions of knowledge in Chinese classical literature and

academic achievement among the secondary schools' students

Chew Fong Peng & Pang Swee Fong

Department of Language and Literacy Education, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya,

Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: This study was designed to determine the acquisition of Chinese classical literature knowl

edge, and the relationship between the acquisition of Chinese classical literature knowledge and academic

achievement. This study was done in two National-Type Schools (NTSS) in the city of Klang, Selan

gor, and Malaysia. The instrument consists of a set of acquisition test with demographic variables. The

respondents were 104 form four students, consisting of 52 students randomly chosen from two schools. The

findings showed that the mean value of form four students' level of acquisition of Chinese classical litera

ture knowledge was only 39.56. There was a significant positive correlation between acquisition test scores

of classical Chinese literary knowledge (M = 39.56, SD = 11.66) and the grades obtained by the students

in the Chinese subject in the Lower Secondary Assessment Examination (M = 3.77, SD = 1.27), r = 0.686,

p <0.01). The results show that actions should be taken to raise students' interest in classical literature

and to improve students' acquisition of Chinese classical literature knowledge as well as to ensure that the

Chinese syllabus is implemented effectively.

Keywords: acquisition; chinese classical literature;

national-type secondary school; Malaysia; Chinese

language Education, Malaysia, Chinese language is an elective subject that is offered to secondary school students. Many students did not choose to study Chinese language at secondary school level even though they have studied six years of Chinese primary education. This phenomenon is clearly shown in Table 2 where the number of students who take the Chinese language paper at the Lower Secondary Assessment (LSA) examination and Malaysia Certificate of Education (MCE) examinations have decreased. As shown in Table 1 above, on average, there was a reduction of about 15,000 candidates registering for the Chinese language subject at the LSA and the number of candidates registering Chinese MCE two years thereafter. This could explain the findings of Chia (2005) on 30 respondents in a national secondary school in Selangor, where there was a drop of 73.3% in terms of the number of students taking Chinese Language as an elective subject at the secondary Form Four level. The main reason for this drop is the perceived level of difficulty of the Chinese classical texts. There is a relationship between the ability to master Chinese classical literature texts and desire to take Chinese Language as a subject in the Malaysia Certificate of Education (MCE).

1 INTRODUCTION

In Malaysia, the learning of Chinese language in

the Integrated Curriculum for Secondary Schools

(ICSS) was implemented in 1988. The Chinese lan

guage syllabus was reviewed in 2000, and continued

to be used until today. Chiah (2005) concluded that

Chinese literature education is an important element

in the ICSS as Chinese literature also incorporates

the teaching of the famous core elements (mingju

jinghua) besides the teaching of classical Chinese

prose and poetry. Zhang (2009) also believes that

Chinese famous core element is an important ele

ment in Chinese language education and functions as a medium to develop Chinese culture.

In Malaysian secondary schools, Chinese classical literature textbooks include classic prose and poetry. This showed the importance of classical literature in the Chinese language curriculum. In addition, 98% of Chinese famous core element content taught in each level is taken from the works of classical literature.

2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEMS

According to the categorization of secondary school subjects in the website of the Ministry of Mastery of literature in the end will help to improve students' reading and writing ability in a particular language (Abdul Aziz, 2000). This would have implications for increasing students' skills in mastering the modern language. Regarding this, Lee (2004) observed that the majority of post MCE students pursued the Malaysian Teaching Diploma Course (MTDC) to become future teachers has little knowledge of literature and they have difficulty in learning literature. This phenomenon is unexpected and worrying because these teachers are responsible to educate and sow the interest of the students in Chinese language including

Chinese classical literature.

In Chinese classical literature component in Chinese Language at MCE, famous core element is important to be learnt and mastered. Zhang's findings in 2009 involving 600 students from five secondary schools in the district of Johor Bahru, Johor, reported that a total of 88.33% of the students were of the view that Chinese famous core element is very important in the teaching and learning of the Chinese language. Zhang's findings also showed that the lack of literary background has disadvantages and it affects the learning of Chinese famous core element. This is unexpected because the element of Chinese classical literature is a vital component in the curriculum of Chinese Language. If sufficient learning of Chinese classical literature were achieved, why was the level of students' acquisition of Chinese literature still not satisfactory? Furthermore, there is a lack of research to examine the level of acquisition of Chinese classical literature knowledge among Form Four students in NTSS in Malaysia; hence this study was designed to meet this need. In addition, a study done by Rita, Raj, & Shubhangna (2006) on 100 children between the ages of 6 to 18 years in India

have shown that female prefer the works of art and

literature than male. Does this mean that female

perform better in literature than male? Some stud

ies have also indicated that male generally have a lower of achievement in language than female (Van de gaer, Pustjens, Van Damme, & De Munter, 2007). The female also showed a more positive learning attitude than male at the school who speak Dutch (Van de gaer, Pustjens, Van Damme, & De Munter, 2009). This raises the need to explore the extent of differences in the level of acquisition of classical literature knowledge between male and female students and how this is related to academic achievement. This study is designed to determine the level of the acquisition of knowledge in Chinese classical literature among Form Four male and female students in NTSSs, and the relationship between the level of acquisition of Chinese classical literature knowledge and their academic achievement. This study is aimed at answering the following research questions: i. What is the level of students' acquisition of knowledge in Chinese classical literature in two national-type secondary schools? ii. Is there any relationship between the level of acquisition of knowledge in Chinese classical literature and academic achievement among the students? 3 THEORY OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION Language acquisition is the process by which humans acquire the capacity to perceive and comprehend language, as well as to produce and use words and sentences to communicate. Language acquisition usually refers to first-language acquisition, which studies infants' acquisition of their native language. Language proficiency is an issue of interest to researchers in the field of linguistics. Various theories from different disciplines have been submitted to explain this issue. In general, the theory of language acquisition or language proficiency can be divided into two types: the cognitive theory that emphasizes the biological effect and theories asserting behaviorism experience and environmental impact. Cognitive theory was pioneered by Jean Piaget in his famous Theory of Cognitive Development. Piaget (1959) stressed that children's language development is closely related to mental development. This theory was agreed upon by Noam Chomsky, a psycholinguist from the United States. He submitted that man is born with the ability to master the language at a certain time (Santrock, 2003). In other words, the potential of human language is the natural utterance and language can occur without formal teaching in schools (Abdul Talib, 2000). For example, according to

Chomsky, although an adult never spoke to her baby under

Table 1. Number of Candidates Taking Chinese in LSA

and MCE.

LSA Candidates (year)	MCE Candidates (year)
60,585 (2004)	48,380 (2006)
68,045 (2005)	55,335 (2007)
66,170 (2006)	53,439 (2008)
68,794 (2007)	54,609 (2009)
71,455 (2008)	54,947 (2010)
71,533 (2009)	53,799 (2011)
69,650 (2010)	53,298 (2012)
68,325 (2011)	51,685 (2013)

Source: sinchew-i.com, 2007–2014.

the age of one year, this baby is still able to master

the language.

In contrast, psychologists believed that language

proficiency is determined by nature, this group of

behaviorism theorists asserted that behaviorist lan

guage abilities of a person are related to environ

mental factors. According to a famous theorist of

behaviorism, B.F. Skinner, language is a behavior

that can be learned through experience and rein

forcement (Santrock, 2003). In other words, the

child’s mastery of a language takes place because

the adults around him or her provide reinforcement

or reward while teaching the child to speak. This theory was later improved upon by Albert Bandura who highlighted the view that language proficiency is related to imitation and the reinforcement from adults around them (Theresia, 2006).

This study applied the theoy developed by Skinner due to the respondents of the study con sisted of secondary school students who are more influenced by their peers and parents besides the environment factor. Study by Chan et al. (2013) showed higher quality relationships between high school students with parents and teachers were sig nificantly associated with better youth outcomes, including self-esteem, academic attitudes, proso cial behaviors, and misconduct.

A major question in understanding language acquisition is how these capacities are picked up by infants from the linguistic input. Input in the linguistic context is defined as “all words, contexts, and other forms of language to which a learner is exposed, relative to acquired proficiency in first or second languages” (Sakai, 2005). Nativists find it difficult to believe, considering the hugely com plex nature of human languages, and the relatively limited cognitive abilities of an infant, that infants

are able to acquire most aspects of language with

out being explicitly taught. Children, within a few

years of birth, understand the grammatical rules

of their native language without being explicitly

taught, as one learns grammar in school (Sakai,

2005). A range of theories of language acquisi

tion have been proposed in order to explain this

apparent problem. These theories, championed by

the likes of Noam Chomsky and others, include

innatism and Psychological nativism, in which a

child is born prepared in some manner with these

capacities, as opposed to other theories in which

language is simply learned as other cognitive skills,

including such mundane motor skills as learning

to ride a bike. The conflict between the theories

assuming humans are born with syntactic knowl

edge and those that claim all such knowledge is

the product of learning from one's environment

is often referred to as the "Nature vs. Nurture"

debate. Some think that there are some qualities

of language acquisition that the human brain is automatically wired for (a "nature" component) and some think that human brain are shaped by the particular language environment in which a person is raised (a "nurture" component). Classical literature is found harder to be acquisited compare to language due to the classical language which bring ambiguity meaning. Therefore, most of the students scored low in the component in school. Hence forth, the below methodology was developed to find out the level of knowledge level of students' acquisition of

knowledge in Chinese classical literature, besides investigate the relationship between the level of acquisition of knowledge and their academic achievement in Chinese language. 3.1 Research instrument The data pertinent to this study was collected by administering a set of questions testing students' achievement in Chinese classical literature. The instrument was used to determine students' level of mastery of Chinese classical literature. This instrument consists of 50 items with 25 examination-oriented items and 25 items testing basic knowledge of Chinese classical literature. Content validity of these instruments was confirmed by getting agreement from a group of experts on the construction of each item in the test paper. They consists of the Head of Chinese Language, Ms.T, principal trainer for Chinese language in Selangor, Ms. W, and LSA assistant chief examiner, Mr. T, who have more than 10 years experience in teaching Chinese language. Before the data collection, the questionnaire was tested for reliability. The pilot study was done among 50 Form Four students at a secondary school in Klang. Results of the analysis showed that the questionnaire has the consistency or Cronbach alpha value 85. This means the instrument was robust and can be implemented in the study. 3.2 Respondents of the study In this study, the sample size was 104 in the two schools. Convenient random sampling method was employed. Due to the regulation of the schools, only one class from each school was chosen in this study. Most of the students have obtained good result in the Chinese language subject during the LSA examination in 2011. A total of 26 (25%) of the respondents achieved grade A, 12 (11.5%) students obtained grade B, 7 (6.7%) students scored grade C, 6 (5.8%) students got grade D and only 1 (1%) student scored grade E. About 64.1% of the respondents' father had education up to junior high school or high school level only. Most of them join the business world or work

as skilled labors, salesmen, mechanics, taxi drivers,

and carpenter. A similar situation was observed

in the level of education among the respondents'

mother. A total of 74.1% or 77 respondents com

pleted secondary school education only. In addi

tion, only 14.4% (15 people) of the respondents'

mother were educated at the tertiary level. This cer

tainly would explain why the study showed 65.4%

(68 people) of the respondents' mother work as a

housewife.

4 FINDINGS

4.1 Research Question 1: What is the level of students' acquisition of knowledge in Chinese classical literature in two national-type secondary schools?

The students' proficiency in Chinese Classical

Literature was determined by using a set of tests

designed by the researchers and reviewed by Chi

nese language specialists. The results of the test are

reported in percentage, mean, median, and standard

deviation. The results for the mastery of Chinese

classical literature and comparison of students in

the two schools in this study are shown in Table 2.

Table 2 shows the mean score of the respond

ents in this study, that is 39.56 out of 100 marks

in the classical Chinese literature test. The achieve

ment of the respondents in NTSS 1 (M = 43.12,

SD = 11.90) is better than that of NTSS 2

(M = 36.00, SD = 10.35). The achievement of

the respondents in the exam-oriented compo

nents (M = 23:27, SD = 6.79) on average is higher

than the questions that test basic knowledge of

literature (M = 16:29, SD = 6.60), amounting to

50 marks per sheet. When comparison was made

between the two schools, the performance of respondents from NTSS 1 in exam-oriented questions (M = 25.46, SD = 7.11) and literary knowledge questions (M = 17.65, SD = 6.88) was better than that of respondents from NTSS 2 in examoriented questions (M = 21.08, SD = 5.72) and literary knowledge questions (M = 14.92, SD = 6:08). Therefore, a summary can be made that the level of the proficiency among the students in Chinese Classical Literature was low. 4.2 Research Question 2: Is there any relationship between the level of acquisition of knowledge in Chinese classical literature and academic achievement among the students? To find out if there is a significant correlation between the level of acquisition of Chinese classical literature knowledge and academic achievement of students in Chinese language, Pearson-r correlation test was used. Correlation between the grades in Chinese language obtained. The level of acquisition of knowledge of Chinese classical literature in exam-oriented question (MFE) and the questions on basic knowledge of Chinese classical literature (MFK) was also carried out in the study. Table 3 shows the correlation statistics. The study showed that there was a significant positive correlation between the test scores of Chinese classical literature (M = 39.56, SD = 11.66) and grades in Chinese language obtained in the LSA examination (M = 3.77, SD = 1.27) with a value of $r = 0.686$; $p < 0.01$. There is also significant correlation between the grades in Chinese language in exam-oriented question scores ($r = 0.633$; $p < 0.01$), and basic literature knowledge question scores ($r = 0.561$; $p < 0.01$). This means that the better the grades in Chinese language, the higher the scores in the acquisition of Chinese classical literature knowledge in the acquisition tests.

Table 2. Level of Acquisition of Classical Chinese Literature in Two Schools. Level of Acquisition of Chinese Classical Literary Knowledge MFE* (50%) MFK** (50%) Full Marks (100%) NTSS 1 NTSS 2 Σ NTSS 1 NTSS 2 Σ NTSS 1 NTSS 2 Σ

M 25.46 21.08 23.27 17.65 14.92 16.29 43.12 36.00 39.56

Med 26.00 20.00 22.00 18.00 14.00 16.00 41.00 34.00 38.00

SD 7.11 5.72 6.79 6.88 6.08 6.60 11.90 10.35 11.66

Min 12.00 10.00 10.00 6.00 4.00 4.00 22.00 18.00 18.00

Max 42.00 36.00 42.00 32.00 28.00 32.00 72.00 54.00 72.00

25% 20.00 16.5 18.00 12.00 10.00 12.00 36.00 28.00 30.00

50% 26.00 20.0 22.00 18.00 14.00 16.00 41.00 34.00 38.00

75% 30.00 25.5 28.00 22.00 20.00 20.00 53.50 46.00 48.00

Guidance: *MFE: Exam-oriented Questions Marks; *MFK: Basic Literature Knowledge Questions Marks.

M = Mean, Med = Median, SD = Standard Deviation, Min = Minimum Marks, Max = Maximum Marks.

Similarly, the higher the level of the acquisition of

classical Chinese literature among the respondents

showed the higher the grade obtained by them in

the Chinese language subject.

5 DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION

This study finds that the acquisition of Chinese

classical literature among the respondents is low,

with the mean score of 39.56 out of 100, and a

standard deviation of 11.66. This shows a poor

D grade. According to Chiah (2005), there were

a large number of MCE students who have very

little knowledge of literature and their mastery

of basic literary knowledge was unsatisfactory.

Therefore, a weak performance in Chinese classical

literature is related with the examination questions

of the subject. The difficulties of the classic Chi

nese Literature and its comprehension questions

in the MCE caused the negative perception of the

students towards classic Chinese Literature. As a

result, the students decided not to register for the Chinese Language subject in the MCE (Sinchew Daily, 23/4/2011).

The findings are found similar to the study con ducted by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA, 2012) that measure students' responses to specific literary texts and their level of comprehension. The target populations were 14-year-old students and students in the final year of secondary schools in Belgium (Flemish), Belgium (French), Chile, England, Finland, Iran, Italy, New Zealand, Swe den, and United States. The result of the study showed that the patterns of students' responses to literature were influenced by the literary nature of the selections that students were given to read. Dif ferent literary samples elicited different responses from students, with some consistency across cul tures and school systems.

Previous studies have shown that students who have negative attitude on a subject may influence the student's learning outcome (Mickelson, 1990; Hudley, Daoud, Hershberg, Wright-Castro, & Polanco, 2002; Chan, 2003; Lee, 2004). For example, the study of Chan (2003) showed that a positive attitude help to improve the performance of students in two subjects,

that is Modern Chinese Language and Mathematics. It is noted that the scores for the exam-oriented questions (23:27% from 50%) is higher than the questions that characterized the basic knowledge (16:29% from 50%), which is usually not emphasized in teaching and learning Chinese literature. These results suggested that current schools' students were taught by the "exam-oriented" thinking approach. As such, the material related to the examination will be emphasized by the teachers and students. On the other hand, if the material taught only a component of additional knowledge that will not be tested in a formal examination, the student will take for granted for the component, then the achievement of students in the study of basic knowledge is very disappointing. Lack of proficiency in basic knowledge of this have an impact on the academic achievement of their Chinese language (Eng, 2005; Zhang, 2009). This fact should be disclosed to the students so that they are more concerned with the mastery of classical Chinese literature. The result of this study shows an emphasis on passing examination due to the examination oriented education system. All materials related to examination are taken care of by the students, hence they will obtain a more satisfactory examination oriented scores. Conversely, if the material being taught is for the sake of knowledge only and will not be set in a formal examination, the students tend to neglect the components, the achievement of students in the area of basic literature knowledge this study is very disappointing. Lack of proficiency in basic knowledge has impact on their performance in Chinese language (Eng, 2005; Zhang, 2009). This fact should be disclosed to the students so that they would put more effort in acquiring knowledge of Chinese classical literature. Next, Pearson r analysis was done to determine the relationship between the acquisition of knowledge in Chinese classical literature and an academic subject, which is Chinese language. The results of this study showed that there was a significant relationship between the acquisition of knowledge in Chinese classical literature and academic achievement in Chinese with the Pearson-r value 0.686 and $p < 0.05$. This means that a high level of acquisition of Chinese classical literature knowledge will help them in their learning of the Chinese language as well. The findings are in line with findings of Mohamad (2003) and Ibrahim (2006) in Malaysia that found students who can master Malay literature would perform better in the Malay Language examination. This finding is also consistent with some overseas studies, such as the studies by McClellan

Table 3. Pearson-r Correlation for Test Mastery of

Classical Chinese Literature and LSA Chinese Grade. N = 104
MFE* MFK**

LSA

Chinese

Grade Value Pearson-r 0.686 0.633 0.561 Sig (2-tailed) p
0.000 0.000 0.000

* MFE: exam-oriented question scores; **MFK: basic

literature knowledge question scores.

and Fields (2004), Konrad, Helf, and Itoi (2007)

and Kinniburgh and Byrd (2008), which have con

cluded that the use of children's literature in lan

guage teaching can improve students' academic

achievement. This means that students who like

literature will have a better academic achievement

than those who do not like literature (Bozorgi,

2009; Stevens, 2006; Su, 2009).

Furthermore, the students who sit for Chinese

language subject in MCE should master the Chi

nese traditional literature that need special reading

skills to help them comprehend the text better, and

sow the interest to learn. Study done by Kim and

Kim (2014) revealed that the three groups differed

from one another with respect to their understand

ing of literal, intended, and implied meanings in

reading. The findings provide pedagogical implica

tions for teaching Chinese language learners with

different reading proficiency levels. Therefore, the Chinese language teachers in secondary schools should apply different teaching methods to teach the subject especially Chinese traditional literature that require different reading skills.

This finding is found important to support the education system in Malaysia that literature com ponent, include classical literature is important to be taught and be learnt by the students. The rela tionship between language and literature like songs and rhythms that cannot be separated and inter dependent in the process of teaching and learning to produce good generation who inherited the rich culture and linguistic of their own language.

6 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study showed that the acquisi tion of the students in Chinese classical literature was at the average low level. It also showed that there was a significant positive correlation between the test scores of Chinese classical and grades in Chinese language. In other words, good acquisi tion of Chinese classical literature will ensure excel lent language achievement. Therefore, effective measures should be taken to prevent this problem from becoming more widespread. The researchers

believes that with the cooperation from the top management at the ministry of education to the teachers, the younger generation will learn more about the Chinese culture and ensure the continua tion of Chinese education in Malaysia.

CORRESPONDING AUTHOR

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Chew Fong Peng, Department

Konrad, M., Helf, S. & Itoi, M. 2007. More bang for the book: Using children's literature to promote self-de termination and literacy skills. Teaching Exceptional Children, 40(1), 64-71.

Lee, K.H. (2004). Teaching and Learning of literature in KDPM Chinese studies syllabus. Downloaded Febru ary, 7, 2015 from http://www.ipbl.edu.my/inter/penye lidikan/seminarpapers/.../leeMPRM.pdf.

LSA successes: 28,188 people received general A. Sin chew Daily. (24/12/2009). Downloaded January, 21, 2015 from http://tech.sinchew-i.com/sc/node/119706.

McClellan, S. & Evelyn F.M. 2004. Using African Amer ican children's literature to support literacy develop ment. YC Young Children, 59(3), 50-54.

Mickelson, R.A. 1990. The attitude-achievement para dox among black adolescents. Sociology of Education, 63, 44-61.

Piaget, J 1959. The language and thought of the child (M.

Grabain, Trans.). New York: Humanities Press.

Rita R., Raj P. & Shubhangna S. 2006. Gender differ

entials in reading behaviour among children. Journal

Social Science, 12(2), 125-127.

Sakai, K.L. (2005). Language Acquisition and Brain

Development. Science, 310 (5749): 815-819.

Santrock, J.W. 2003. Psychology essentials (2nd ed.). New

York, NY: McGraw-Hill. Stevens, R.J. 2006. Integrated middle school literacy instruction. Middle School Journal, 38(1), 13-19. The students do not sit for the examination of Chinese Language, who's fault? (23/4/2011). Sinchew Daily. (Chinese language) Downloaded May 15 2013 from http://www.sinchew.com.my/node/201983. Theresia K. 2006. Behaviorism Theoretical insights about first language acquisition (Malay language). Journal of Education Sower, 6, 28-33. Van de Gaer, E., Pustjens, H., Van Damme, J. & De Munter, A. 2007. Impact of attitudes of peers on language achievement: Gender differences. The Journal of Educational Research, 101(2), 78-90. Van de Gaer, E., Pustjens, H., Van Damme, J. & De Munter, A. 2009. School engagement and language achievement: A longitudinal study of gender differences across secondary school. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 55(4), 373-405. Wan Yusof, A.S. & Zainura, W. 2010. The influence of academic advising system for students' academic achievement. (Malay language) Johor Bahru, Malaysia Universiti of Teknologi. Zhang, B.Y. 2009. Malaysian junior high school students to learn the essence of Chinese famous Difficulties and Solutions. (Chinese language) Unpublished Dissertation of Master in Arts. Beijing University of Languages. This page intentionally left blank

Implementation of the LINUS program in Malaysian primary schools

Chew Fong Peng

Department of Language and Literacy Education, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya,

Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Chin Hai Leng

Department of Curriculum and Instructional Technology,
Faculty of Education, University of Malaya,

Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Fonny Hutagalung

Department of Educational Psychology and Counseling,
Faculty of Education, University of Malaya,

Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: LINUS is a program implemented by the Ministry of Education in primary schools across

the country to raise the level of literacy and numeracy skills of students in 1 to 3 since 2010. This study

aimed to investigate the implementation of LINUS program since 2010. The theory of Piaget (1936) was

applied in this study. Survey was conducted on 120 students from three different types of schools, namely

national primary schools, Chinese schools and Tamil national-type primary schools. Research showed

that the LINUS teachers taught them in interesting ways and used language that is easily understood;

LINUS class allows students to master the skills of reading and writing; LINUS teachers tend to apply

the group activities and games in teaching and learning; In addition, teachers prefer to use computer,

pictures, and video in the LINUS classroom. In other words, the implementation of the LINUS program

yielded results with positive responses from the students. Therefore, LINUS program should be continued

with strong support from parents and the community so that its effectiveness to be more prominent in

order to produce young generation who become information

literate.

Keywords: LINUS; national schools; national-type schools;
ICT beyond. Reading and writing are implicit in the basic right to education. Without these abilities, it is nearly impossible for students to attain higher education and survive in modern society. Literacy skills are crucial to a person’s ability to develop fully as an individual, to live a satisfying and rewarding life and to participate fully in our society. In response to this demand, the transition class was conducted by remedial teachers in schools. This remedial education is a special program in the form of teaching and learning activities to help students with learning problems such as lack of basic literacy skills in the classroom. After realizing the problems that occur cannot be resolved through remedial classes alone, the Ministry of Education has introduced the program of KIA2M or Intervention Class on Early Reading and Writing. The program is designed to help the low performing students, especially the students in Year One to master the basic skills of reading and writing. The program was implemented full-time based by the Malay language teachers at Year One nationwide in both National Primary Schools and National-type Primary Schools

1 INTRODUCTION

The education system in Malaysia strides rapidly

over the development of the country in the present

millennium. The Government, through the Min

istry of Education has designed and implemented

various sustainable changes towards realizing the

aspirations of being a developed country by year

2020. Changes in the educational arena in the coun

try are beginning to show the results in policies, acts,

or reports such as the National Education Policy,

Razak Report 1956, Rahman Talib Report 1960, the

National Language Act 1967, the Cabinet Commit

tee Report 1979, and the New Education Act 1996.

2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEMS

According to the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 (2013), the numbers of students who performed below minimum score of TIMSS assess ment in the skill of reading was more than dou ble that of the OECD countries. Literacy laid the foundation for learning in primary education and (Concept Paper on Implementation of Interven tion Class on Early Reading and Writing, 2005). In Malaysia the National schools have Malay lan guage as the medium of instruction while Nation al-type schools use an ethnic group mother tongue (Chinese or Tamil) as the medium of instruction. Data of the remedial students in the school who ‘recovered’ after the intervention program of KIA2M indicated that this program had not man aged to put all the students who followed the class into the right track. Out of 53,544 primary school children who followed the intervention program, only 28,801students or 53.8% had been restored and can master the skills of reading, writing and arithmetic (Planning and Researching on Educa tion Policy Division (BPPDP, MOE, 2002). The latest data show that 105,255 (23%) of the total 463,990 students have not mastered reading skills

in July, 2008 (BPPDP, MOE, 2008).

After that, since 2010, this program was replaced by the LINUS program. LINUS is an acronym of the Literacy and Numeracy Screening Program and useful to help the students in primary schools, in Phase One starting from Year One to Year Three who drop off in the mastery of basic skills of read ing, writing, and arithmetic. All Year One teachers who teach Malay language are required to attend the courses of instruction and learning of the module of LINUS beginning in 2010 conducted by the Teacher Education Division, Ministry of Education. This program was implemented in all National Primary Schools, National-type Chinese Schools and National-type Tamil Schools. There are three stages of the Filters, namely Filter 1 (in Year One), Filter 2 (in Year Two), and Filter 3 (in Year Three).

Thus, the literacy education in Malaysia, espe cially in Malay Language is becoming an impor tant subject in school because the literacy program has been programmed formally under the LINUS program and also became the government’s strat egy in the National Key Result Area (NKRA). Its mission is to develop high literacy skills among

the students, namely the literate youths with com

petitive and dedicate as the frontier of year 2020

(Khairuddin, 2011).

To avoid wastage in education, early exploration

of the LINUS program is needed to investigate the

implementation of this program in the school and

students response thereto. This can help detect

strengths and weaknesses of the program, thus

enhancing its implementation to allow students

with weak literacy rate could be addressed and

dealt with so that they can become useful citizens

in the future. So this study will also be looking for

answers about the extent of the effective imple

mentation of the LINUS program in three streams

of different primary schools. This study is aimed at answering the following research questions: i. How much do the students know about the LINUS program? ii. What are the students' evaluation about teaching and learning methods and environment of LINUS class? iii. How far do the teaching aids and technology application by the LINUS teachers? 3 THEORY OF THE STUDY There are a lot of studies that have been carried out by the process of learning and teaching of early childhood literacy. This study will apply the theory of cognitive development Piaget (1936; 1959) to review the development of reading skills and the mastery of writing skills. According to Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development (1936), children going through the same stages of cognitive development only at different ages. He believes that the environment does not constitute a child's cognitive, otherwise children build knowledge to understand their environment to solve problems. To Piaget, cognitive development was a progressive reorganization of mental processes as a result of biological maturation and environmental experience. Children construct an understanding of the world around

them, then experience discrepancies between what they already know and what they discover in their environment. Thus, Piaget (1959) has introduced three basic components to describe the process, namely the schemas, adaptation processes that enable the transition from one stage to another (equilibrium, assimilation, and accommodation), and stages of development. When children acquire knowledge, they will save and organize them in mind and developed a system called the schemas. Children will use the schemas to solve the problems and the schemes are typically formed from simple to complex. For example, children build schemas to recognize letters. After the children recognize letters, children will learn to compose letters to form syllables and then words. This process is known as absorption or assimilation. This absorption occurs when children try to understand the syllables and words and try to adapt this knowledge with schemas of existing letters that have been identified. Next, modification or accommodation will happen when children have managed to change the old schemas to the new schemas recognizing letters that identify syllables and words. Based on Piaget's theory, equilibrium will be reached after the child through the process of absorption and

modification. To achieve this balance, the child can

recognize letters, syllables, words, and sentences if

exposed to writing skills. Therefore, a child must

master reading skills before he/she manages to

write letters, syllables and words by absorption

and renovation, children will continue to adapt by

building new schemas.

Piaget (1959) believed that children think differ

ently than adults and stated they go through four

universal stages of cognitive development. Devel

opment is therefore biologically based and changes

as the child matures. Cognition therefore develops

in all children in the same sequence of stages. Piaget

(1959) believed that these stages are universal—i.e. that the same sequence of development occurs in children all over the world, whatever their culture as shown in Table 1.

3.1 Research insrument

The researcher modified the questionnaire of the Ministry Of Education (MOE) according to the requirements of this study. The questionnaire consisted of two parts, A and B. There were five demographic that included gender, ethnic, type of schools, school location, and family income in part A. Part B was the aspects of students' opinions that consisting of three aspects. The first aspect was the knowledge of students on LINUS (11 ques tions), the second aspect regarding the teaching and learning methods and environment of LINUS (8 questions), and third aspect was the application of teaching aids and technology in teaching and learning (7 questions).

Data obtained through questionnaires were analyzed by quantitative methods using SPSS ver sion 21. Descriptive method such as frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation was processed in data analysis based on the number of respondents who answered to scale agreement

three points (1- disagree; 2- not sure; 3- agree) to identify students' perceptions on LINUS. Findings of research question 1 and 2 will be displayed in table form while chart will be used to answer the research question 3. A pilot test was done among 30 year four students in a national primary school in Negeri Sembilan, showed Cronbach alpha value at 0.82, a level that meant consistent and can be implemented in the study. 3.2 Respondents of the study In this study, the sample size was 120. Stratified random sampling method was employed in this study. The number of male was 56 (46.7%) compared to 64 (53.3%) female students. The distribution according to ethnic showed that most respondents were Chinese with 51students (42.5%); followed by Indian with a total of 46 students (38.3%); Malay only consisted of 20 students (16.7%), only 3 students (2.5%) were from other ethnic groups. There were three schools involved in the study, namely National Schools (NS), National-Type Chinese School (NTCS) and National-Type Tamil Schools (NTTS). Each school involved 40 respondents (33.33%) respectively. In terms of family income, it was found that the parents of 34 students (28.3%) had a total monthly income of between RM1,000-RM2,500. Parents who receive a monthly income of RM2501- RM5000 were represented by 56 students (46.7%), while parents who achieved a total of income exceeding RM5001 were represented by 30 students (25.0%). The findings showed that overall; respondents in this study came from low-income and intermediate-income families. 4 FINDINGS 4.1 Research question 1: How much do the students know about the LINUS program? It was found that the highest mean fell to item 6 (LINUS makes me able to read) at M 2.53, SP.58, followed by item 1 (I know that LINUS related to reading) with M 2:52, SP.70; otherwise the lowest mean fell to item 9 (Class LINUS is different from other classes), only at M 2.14, SP 0.75. This means that LINUS can help in improving the reading skills of the students. However, the students can not differentiate between the LINUS class with other class. In this context, other class refers to the Malay language class. It also is argued that when it comes to reading skills, the students assumed that it is both taught in LINUS class or Malay language.

Table 1. Stages of Development.

Stage of

Development Key Feature Research Study

Sensorimotor

0–2 yrs. Object Permanence Blanket & Ball Study

Preoperational

2–7 yrs. Egocentrism Three Mountains

Concrete

Operational

7–11 yrs. Conservation Conservation of Number

Formal

Operational

11 yrs + Manipulate ideas in head, e.g. Abstract Reasoning Pendulum Task

In addition, writing skills can also be improved

(M 2.33, SP 0.74) although not as high as the

reading skills. In other words, teaching and learn

ing in the LINUS classroom emphasis reading

skills more than writing skills as reading skills are

the basic skills in Malay language before the stu

dent master the writing skills.

4.2 Research question 2: What are the students' evaluation about teaching and learning methods and environment of LINUS class?

Based on the Table 3, it is noted that the highest

mean fell in item 2 (Teachers use the group tech

nique in LINUS) with the M 2:52, SP 0.72,; oth

erwise lowest mean fell to item 4 (LINUS teachers

taught me individually) with M 2:18, SP 0.76. This

means that the students were of the opinions that

the teaching methods and environment in LINUS

involving more group activities. This was coincident

with the lowest mean score involving individual

teaching techniques. Therefore, it can be illustrated

that most teachers LINUS at the three schools

tend to use group methods in teaching compared

with the individual methods. Therefore, the over

all students gave positive opinion on the teaching

methods and environment in LINUS class.

Table 2. Knowledge of the Students about the LINUS Program.

No Items 1 2 3 M SD

1 I know that LINUS related to reading 14(11.7) 30(25.0)
76(63.3) 2.52 0.70

2 I know that LINUS related to writing 13(10.8) 43(35.8)
64(53.3) 2.43 0.68

3 I know that LINUS related to calculating 22(18.3)
35(29.2) 63(52.5) 2.34 0.77

4 My attendance in the LINUS class is compulsory 19(15.8)
53(44.2) 48(40.0) 2.24 0.71

5 LINUS improve my language skills 15(12.5) 37(30.8)
68(56.7) 2.44 0.71

6 LINUS class make me can read 5(4.2) 46(38.3) 69(57.5)
2.53 0.58

7 LINUS class make me can write 19(15.8) 43(35.8) 58(48.3)
2.33 0.74

8 I shall pass the LINUS test 25(20.8) 45(37.5) 50(41.7)
2.21 0.77

9 LINUS class is different from other classes 26(21.7)
51(42.5) 43(35.8) 2.14 0.75

10 I gained a lot of knowledge from the LINUS 22(18.3)
46(38.3) 52(43.3) 2.25 0.75

11 My parents also know about the LINUS 12(10.0) 41(34.2) 67(55.8) 2.46 0.67

Table 3. Students' Evaluation on the Teaching and Learning Methods and Environment of LINUS Class.

No Items 1 2 3 M SD

1 Teachers always give compliments in teaching 23(19.2) 35(29.2) 62(51.7) 2.33 0.78

2 Teachers use the group technique in LINUS 16(13.3) 26(21.7) 78(65.0) 2.52 0.72

3 Teachers taught me individually 25(20.8) 48(40.0) 47(39.2) 2.18 0.76

4 The teaching of my LINUS teachers is very good 18(15.0) 50(41.7) 52(43.3) 2.28 0.71

5 Induction set of my LINUS teachers are very good 22(18.3) 40(33.3) 58(48.3) 2.30 0.76

6 I communicate very well with LINUS teachers 15(12.5) 45(37.5) 60(50.0) 2.38 0.70

7 The LINUS class atmosphere is encouraging 22(18.3) 47(39.2) 51(42.5) 2.24 0.74

8 My teachers are skilled in teaching methods in LINUS 20(16.7) 43(35.8) 57(47.5) 2.31 0.74 Chart 1. Mean and Standard Deviation of the Teaching Aids and Technology Application by the LINUS Teachers.

4.3 Research question 3: How far do the teaching aids and technology application by the LINUS teachers?

Chart 1 shows that the highest mean fell to item

7 (teaching aids of the LINUS teachers very inter

esting), followed by item 6 (teachers use games);

item 1 (Teachers use computers in LINUS class)

and item 5 (Teachers use pictures and video); other

wise the lowest mean fell to two items, namely item

2 (teachers uses reading cards) and item 3 (Teacher use music), respectively with M 2:13 and SD 0.76 and 0.78 respectively. This means that the average application of teaching aids and technology by the LINUS teachers were very interesting. However, fewer teachers use reading cards and also music in the LINUS class. This showed that the teaching aids used by the LINUS teachers involved more on computers, images and video, as well as games compared to reading cards and music. However, the application of teaching aids and technology by the LINUS teachers as a whole is very attractive to the students.

5 DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION

The results obtained showed that the students favored the LINUS program implemented at their schools. Students' opinion of the LINUS class rooms showed an impact on their learning. From the aspect of students' knowledge of LINUS, they understand that the LINUS class is very important for them to improve their learn ing process. General knowledge available in the minds of the students was that they know that LINUS class is related closely to reading. Teaching approach that emphasizes repeated reading of the

LINUS teachers help the students to master the proficiency of reading effectively. This means that equilibrium is reached by the students through the process of absorption and modification according to Piaget's theory (1936). By achieving this bal ance, students have recognized the letters, syllables, words and sentences if exposed to writing skills. Through the LINUS program as well, it helped in improving the writing skills of the students. The respondent students in this study were aged 10 years and entered the Concrete Operational stage according to Piaget (1959). The child is now mature enough to use logical thought or opera tions (i.e. rules). Their thinking is more organized and rational. Therefore, they can master the writ ing skills in a logical fashion.

Juriah (2012) stated that the diversity approach has assisted students in writing and one of the effec tive approaches was the process approach which emphasized the writing process, namely prewriting, writing and revising drafts. Through this approach, the students will engage actively in small groups in order to realize the writing process and it resulted in improved writing proficiency especially for the students who attend the LINUS class. According to Hasnalee (2012), LINUS teachers must possess the expertise to determine student readiness, besides being clear about the level of guidance needed to be delivered to the LINUS students. Studies conducted by Abdul Jalil et al. (2011) stated that teachers should use effective teaching strategies and plans to attract the students. This condition also made students willing to

follow the LINUS class that helped them increase their potential and gain knowledge from the LINUS teachers. Students' opinion regarding the teaching and learning methods and environment of LINUS teachers was also positive. This was because the creativity that exists among the LINUS teachers, have had helped them to attract the attention of the students in learning the Malay language, especially the group activities that are students-centered. Johnson (2013) who stated that student-centered learning requires students to be active, responsible participants in their own learning and with their own pace of learning. The compliments and encouragement given by the teacher compatible with the Theory of Behaviorism that stated that the compliments, encouragement and rewards are given when a student performs or performed well in learning. This will lead to attract the students to learn something deeper. The various teaching techniques have evolved to give new impetus to the students to attend the LINUS class. The diversity of the technique reflected the wise teacher controlling the class and draws the attention of the students by meeting their tastes. In face of a world filled with modern and advanced technology and the latest teaching aids application, the usage of the existing technology can improve the understanding of the students in the LINUS classes. However the problems encountered in implementing the LINUS program are most of the rural schools are facing the facility and finance problems including ICT equipment especially the Tamil National-type Primary Schools that located at the estate areas. Although the conditions in National Primary Schools and Chinese National-type Primary Schools are better, the facilities are yet limited and conditioned for pre-booking of the teachers before the class starts. These constraints caused the shortage using of modern teaching aids and technology among the LINUS teachers. However, teachers who have knowledge in the application of various technologies helped the students to find various types of information to be

given to them. Therefore, the researchers mean to

find out whether the improved knowledge of the

LINUS teachers in the usage of technology leads

to the increment of knowledge acquisition among

the students. “Teaching aids of the LINUS teach

ers are very interesting" gained the highest per centage at 55.8%. This illustrated that the students liked the LINUS teachers who apply the different teaching aids.

The findings also showed that the respondent students have constructed an understanding of the LINUS environment and world around them, then experienced discrepancies between what they already known (reading skills) and what they dis cover in their environment (teaching and learning methods and environment). From that, they devel oped their writing skills in rational ways, accord ing to the cognitive stages illustrated by Piaget (1959).

6 CONCLUSION

To achieve the targets set in the NKRA, education is largely dependent on the cooperation between government, school administrators, teachers, and parents. Parents and community play an impor tant role in early childhood education. Early child hood education is a fundamental pillar for the children to acquire knowledge and skills in reading and writing literacy. Emerging literacy among chil dren will achieve success in the future that trans form the educational system to ensure the quality

of national education improve constantly in order to produce knowledgeable and skilled human capital. Implementation of the Malaysia Education Blueprint (2013-2025) will make Malaysia achieve international education standards besides turning the students of Malaysia into global players. The role of literature in strengthening the culture of a nation cannot be overstated. Given today's students' lack of interest in learning Chinese classical literature, effective measures should be taken to prevent this problem from becoming more widespread. This study shows that a good acquisition of Chinese classical literature will ensure excellent language achievement. Government's policy on examination subject selection, management of schools' principal in Chinese language time table setting, encouragement from schools principal and parents in teaching and learning Chinese language influence the students' interest and enthusiasm to

Librarians' knowledge sharing behaviour

Mohd Zool Hilmie Mohamed Sawal, Nazni Noordin, Raja Alwi Raja Omar,

Abd Latif Abdul Rahman & Zaherawati Zakaria

Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM) Kedah, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: Knowledge can be defined as facts, information, description, or skill, which an individual

has acquired through experience or education. The uniqueness of knowledge makes it a valuable asset for

any organization. In order to investigate the willingness of knowledge sharing behaviour among librar

ians, this study explored the role of Big Five Personality factor, among librarians towards knowledge

sharing behaviour. It focuses on librarians in the Northern Peninsular of Malaysia. The main objective

is to examine the factors influencing knowledge sharing behaviour among librarians. The result of this

study can contribute to the development of a new knowledge sharing model and, offer new perspective on

understanding of human personality and behaviour towards knowledge, especially among librarians. Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism (OCEAN). It has been empirically confirmed that Big Five Personality Traits can effectively predict human key behavior in various conditions. The Big Five taxonomy is well accepted by many researcher and scholars as one of the most reliable taxonomies in identifying personal traits. The use of the Big Five Personality model has the advantage of providing a strong prediction toward knowledge sharing behavior. Under psychological mechanism, personalities play a vital role that directs the behavior. Meanwhile, other researchers who did evaluation of research on knowledge sharing and personality indicated that individuals with relatively stable personality profile are more likely to share their knowledge with others. Knowledge sharing behavior could be described as “behavior” of individuals in the process of transferring and sharing their possessed knowledge. This behavior is influence by the combination of personalities such as attitude, and subjective norm toward behaviour, in order to create the intention of whether to share or not to share their knowledge. It can be seen that knowledge sharing and knowledge exchange involve a resources transaction process, or a communication process between two or more participants engaging in two processes, namely acquisitions and provision of knowledge, or what we could callas knowledge collection and knowledge donation. 2 FRAMEWORK MODEL Figure 1 show the framework model used in identifying the Big Five Personality toward knowledge

1 INTRODUCTION

Knowledge can be defined as facts, information, description, or skill that an individual has acquired through experience or education. It is unique, sub jective to describe, and intangible to see, but this resource is profitable to an organization or com pany. An individual is considered to be sharing his or her knowledge once he or she exchanges his or her idea and knowledge through communication and discussion with others. The main obstacle in knowledge sharing is the “behavior” of a particu lar person, as not all people are willing to share the knowledge that they possess. Knowledge sharing behavior refers to the personality, attitude and inten tion toward the behavior of either willing to share or not to share their knowledge. Knowledge sharing behavior among individual was assumed to be influ enced by their personality trait. Personality trait is a theory created to identify and measure personality, which influences individual behavior. Others stated that personality trait is a psychological mechanism guiding an individual behavior. In order to measure an individual’s personality trait, the big five person ality traits model proposed by costa and mccrae (1992) was used to measure the relationship with knowledge sharing behavior. This model consists

of five types of personality traits, namely; openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. This model is widely used to measure and to determine an individual's personality. Big five personality and knowledge sharing behaviour.

The Big Five Factors Model is used in order to measure the personality trait of an individ ual. Those five types of personality trait factors are classified as Openness, Conscientiousness, sharing behaviour among librarian in Northern Peninsular Malaysia. Five elements were taken into consideration as the independent variables, namely; extraversion, agreeableness, conscientious ness, neuroticism and openness, while the depend ent variables consist of knowledge donation and knowledge collection which represent the knowl edge sharing behavior.

3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

The research objectives of this study are to identify the personality factors that may influence behav ior among librarians; determine which personality trait possesses higher influence toward knowledge sharing behavior among librarians; and to identify reasons for sharing knowledge.

4 RESEARCH FINDING AND DISCUSSION

The data was collected from librarians from North

ern Malaysia, namely; Perlis, Kedah, Pulau Pinang

and Perak. A total of 70 sets of questionnaires

were distributed and 61 sets of questionnaires were

returned back (87 percent respondent responded).

The questionnaire was designed based on catego

ries or variables using a Likert scale from 1-7. A

Likert scale of 1stands for strongly agree and 7 for

strongly disagree.

4.1 Extraversion

Table 1 shows the feedback from librarians regard

ing the extraversion personality trait. A majority of the librarians gave their feedback under scale number 3 on the questionnaire except for question number 3 and 4. For question number 3, 24 librarians or 39.3 percent agreed on scale 2 and for question number 4, 18 librarians or 26.2 percent agreed on scale 4. 4.2 Agreeableness Table 2 show the feedbacks for the agreeableness personality trait, and for the question “I see myself as someone who tends to find fault with others” indicated that 19 librarians or 31.1 percent were on scale 6. The question “I see myself as someone who starts quarrels with others” indicated that 24 librarians or 39.3 percent were on scale 7. A similar response was also recorded in the question “I see myself as someone who is sometimes rude to others” which indicated that 20 librarians or 32.8 percent on scale 7. Other questions showed that the majority of feedbacks are on scale 2 that indicated a tendency to strongly agree. 4.3 Conscientiousness The feedbacks for conscientiousness are in Table 3. The question “I see myself as someone who tends to be lazy” indicated that 22 or 36.1 percent of the librarians strongly disagreed. The question “I see myself as someone who makes plans and follows through with them” indicated that 21 librarians gave the feedbacks on scale 2 and scale 3, which is around 42 or 68.8 percent of the librarians. 4.4 Neuroticism Neuroticism personality trait as shown in Table 4 indicated that a majority of the feedbacks are on scale 4. For the question “I see myself

as someone who is depressed, blue” the feedback is on scale 5 and 6 which make the majority of 28 or 46 percent of the librarians. The question “I see myself as someone who remains calm in tense situations” received a feedback of scale 2 by 19 librarians. 4.5 Openness Table 5 show the feedbacks from librarian regarding openness as a personality trait. The majority of the feedbacks given is on scale 3 except for question number 2, question number 6 and question number 7. Question number 2 “I see myself as someone who is curious about many different things” 20 librarian gave their feedback on scale 2, question number 6 “I see myself as someone who values artistic, aesthetic experiences” 16 librarians gave their feedbacks on scale 2 and question number 7 “I see myself as someone who is sophisticated in art,

Figure 1. Framework Model.

Table 1. Extraversion personality trait.

No Questions Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 Strongly Disagree 7

1 I see myself as someone who is talkative 5 12 22 16 4 2

2 I see myself as someone who is full of energy 9 18 25 6 2 1

3 I see myself as someone who generates a lot of enthusiasm 10 24 19 5 2 1

4 I see myself as someone who tends to be quiet 2 6 16 18 8 5 6

5 I see myself as someone who has an assertive personality 4 15 25 11 3 1 2

6 I see myself as someone who is sometimes shy, inhibited 1 5 20 12 11 4 7

7 I see myself as someone who is outgoing, sociable 10 15 17 15 1 2 1

Table 2. Agreeableness personality trait.

No Questions Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 Strongly Disagree 7

1 I see myself as someone who tends to find fault with

others 1 1 7 8 7 19 18

2 I see myself as someone who is helpful and unselfish with others 16 33 6 5 1

3 I see myself as someone who starts quarrels with others 4 7 4 6 4 12 24

4 I see myself as someone who has a forgiving nature 12 28 8 9 2 2

5 I see myself as someone who is generally trusting 13 25 10 9 4

6 I see myself as someone who is considerate and kind to almost everyone 13 28 14 3 3

7 I see myself as someone who is sometimes rude to others 5 6 9 4 4 13 20

8 I see myself as someone who likes to cooperate with others 17 6 9 4 4 13 20

Table 3. Conscientiousness personality trait.

No Questions Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 Strongly Disagree 7

1 I see myself as someone who does a thorough job 10 27 14 6 2 2

2 I see myself as someone who can be somewhat careless 1 10 6 18 5 13 8

3 I see myself as someone who is a reliable worker 11 23 12 5 1 4 5

4 I see myself as someone who tends to be disorganized 1 8 3 12 10 15 12

5 I see myself as someone who tends to be lazy 2 3 5 9 2 18 22

6 I see myself as someone who perseveres until die task is finished. 4 19 10 15 1 8 4

7 I see myself as someone who does things efficiently 6 22 18 12 3

8 I see myself as someone who makes plans and follows

through with them 5 21 21 11 1 2

9 I see myself as someone who is easily distracted 1 7 11 19 7 10 6

music, or literature" 21 librarians gave their feed

backs on scale 2.

4.6 Knowledge sharing

Knowledge sharing refers to the provision of

task information and know-how to help others

and to collaborate with others to solve problems,

develop new ideas, or implement policies or pro

cedures (Cummings, 2004). Table 6 shows the

feedback from librarians on knowledge sharing. The question "I am willing to share knowledge with peers in the department" received 43 feedbacks from librarians on scale 1. Question "When I have learned something new, I tell my Peers in the department about it" received 34 feedbacks from librarian on scale 1. For question "If I share my online knowledge with other members, I feel very pleasant" and question "If I share my online knowledge with other members, I feel very beneficial" received the majority of feedbacks by 48 and 50 librarian.

Table 4. Neuroticism personality trait.

No Questions Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 Strongly Disagree 7

1 I see myself as someone who is depressed, blue 1 3 7 10 14 14 12

2 I see myself as someone who is relaxed, handles stress well 6 13 14 15 4 5 4

3 I see myself as someone who worries a lot 1 9 7 17 7 14 6

4 I see myself as someone who is emotionally stable, not easily upset 6 16 11 17 3 4 4

5 I see myself as someone who can be moody 3 7 8 10 12

10 11

6 I see myself as someone who remains calm in tense situations 5 19 16 10 4 1 6

7 I see myself as someone who gets nervous easily 8 12 21 9 9 2

Table 5. Openness personality trait.

No Questions Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 Strongly Disagree 7

1 I see myself as someone who is original, comes up with new ideas 4 14 24 14 1 3 1

2 I see myself as someone who is curious about many different things 7 20 18 13 2 1

3 I see myself as someone who is ingenious, a deep thinker 9 17 21 8 4 2

4 I see myself as someone who has an active imagination 4 14 16 10 6 3 8

5 I see myself as someone who is inventive 5 12 23 10 7 2 2

6 I see myself as someone who values artistic, aesthetic experiences 8 16 15 19 3

7 I see myself as someone who is sophisticated in art, music, or literature 2 21 5 18 9 3 3

Table 6. Knowledge sharing.

No Questions Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 Strongly Disagree 7

1 I am willing to share knowledge with peers in the department 43 17 1

2 When I have learned something new, I tell my peers in the department about it. 34 22 4 1

3 When they have learned something new, my peers in the department tell me about it. 17 25 9 8 1 1

4 Knowledge sharing amongst peers is considered normal in my department 20 23 11 6 1

5 I am willing to share organization knowledge with librarians in other 23 28 9 1

6 When I have learned something new, I tell librarians in other organizations. 11 15 19 14 1 1

7 When they have learned something new, librarians in other organizations will tell me about it. 8 12 14 17 4 4 2

8 Knowledge sharing amongst librarian between different organization is considered normal 12 14 15 14 6

9 I will instantly share knowledge related to my personal career development 13 22 14 8 4

10 I always plan to share knowledge related to my personal career development 14 24 16 3 4

11 I will share knowledge related to my personal career development 16 24 11 6 4

12 I intent to share knowledge related to my personal career development. 18 23 14 4 2

13 It is a wise move if I share my online knowledge with other members 23 24 11 2 1

14 If I share my online knowledge with other members, I feel very meaningful 23 26 10 1 1

15 If I share my online knowledge with other members, I feel very pleasant 24 24 10 1 2

16 If I share my online knowledge with other members, I feel very beneficial 25 25 9 1 1

5 RESEARCH DISCUSSIONS

This study looks at the influence of the Big

Five Personality traits comprising the traits of

Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion,

Agreeableness, and Neuroticism (OCEAN) as

factors influencing knowledge sharing behavior

among librarians. It was based on the Theory

of Planned Behavior (TPB) proposed by Ajzen (1985). It is believed that the knowledge sharing behavior is influenced by the personality traits and this research try to study the relationship between these elements. The findings from the questionnaires returned by the respondents found that three personality traits; agreeableness, extraversion, and openness recorded a high percentage of respondents, implicating the personality possessed by an average of 80% of

the total respondents. The high percentage of

respondents indicated that they possess charac

teristics such as helpfulness, unselfish, forgiving,

considerate, kind and cooperativeness, talkative,

outgoing, sociable, energetic, assertive, original,

deep thinker, inventive, aesthetic, task oriented,

organized, efficient, thorough, and playful.

These are all characteristics contained in the

openness, extraversion, conscientiousness, and

agreeableness personality traits. These traits are

then turned into behavior and this is shown by

the facts that almost 85% of the respondents

agreeing to share knowledge between librar

ians, as indicated by the questionnaires' findings.

Sharing depicts kindness, generosity, unselfish

ness, and also sacrifice. Individuals with agreea

bleness personality is at ease with this concept as

the act of sharing corresponds with their natural

characteristic such as courteous, helpful, gener

ous, considerate, trusting and cooperative. A study by Matzler, Renz, Muller, Herting, and Mooradian (2008) on the relationship between three personality traits and knowledge sharing in international engineering company personnel found that agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness personality traits does influence knowledge sharing. The findings in this study also indicated a similar pattern where respondents with characters as above coincide with the percentage of respondents leaning towards possessing the knowledge sharing behavior. According to the questionnaires' responses, they are willing to share knowledge whether related to their professional duties, or their personal career development. This is probably because they do not see the sharing as a threat to their career; instead it may become a way for them to build their network and enhance professionalism among them. The study also found that librarians' with a high level of extraversion personality trait to be more favorable or having positive intention towards knowledge sharing behavior. Extrovert individuals has friendly characters and likes to talk, communicate and also likes to be among friends.

Other characters include expressiveness and eagerness and all of these combinations facilitate the sharing process and could make it a conven ient experience. Another study by Wang, Noe, and Wang (2011) revealed that extrovert indi viduals tend to share knowledge whether or not they would be held accountable and rewarded for it, and this supported the findings of this study. Perhaps, companionship and appreciation are more expected by those having this quality. Reciprocal relationship also influence attitude towards knowledge sharing (Zahra & Mohamad, 2011) as sharing involves knowledge donating

Peabody, D. & Goldberg, L. (1989). Some determinants of factor structures from personality-trait descrip tions. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 57, 552-567.

Petrides, K.V., Vernon, P.A Schermer, J.A., Ligthrat, L., Boomsma, D.I. & Veselka, L. (2010). Relationships between trait emotional intelligent and the big five in the Nertherlands. Personality and Individual Differ ences, 48(8), 906-910.

Schaffer, D.R. (2005). Social and personality develop ment. CA: Thomson Wadsworth.

Ten Tsai, M. & Chang Cheng, N. (2010). Programmer

perceptions of knowledge-sharing behavior under social cognitive theory. Expert Systems with Applications, 37(12), 8479-8485. Usoro, A., Sharratt, M.W., Tsui, E. & Shekhar, S. (2007). Trust as an antecedent to knowledge sharing in virtual communities of practice. Knowledge Management Research & Practice 5(3), 199-212. Wang, S., Noe, R.A.,& Wang, Z.M. (July, 2011). Motivating knowledge sharing in knowledge management systems: A quasi-field experiment. Journal of Management, 37(4). doi: 10.1177/0149206311412192. This page intentionally left blank

Cross-racial supervision: Case conceptualization of

supervisee-supervisor relationship

Noor Aishah Rosli

University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: This is a case conceptualized paper that consists of sharing information by the supervisor

who are from Asian country and has an experience supervision a supervisee from the Western country.

This paper will highlight the background of the supervisee, purpose of supervision, a theoretical model

that was used in supervision process, ethical issues, multicultural, the relationship between the supervi

see with site supervisor and mentor, supervisee impression of the supervision process, the strength and

weaknesses of supervisee, the analysis of supervision process, and the factor that can be learned from the

supervision process.

Keywords: supervision; supervisor; supervisee; cross-racial; multicultural (UNC) which provides clinical services mostly to a Hispanic population with drug problems. 2 PURPOSE OF SUPERVISION The purpose of the supervision is to demonstrate an understanding of supervision skills through providing supervision to a master level student every week. Daniella said that she would like to take this advantage to receive extra clinical supervision which is helping her to develop her competence in counseling setting. Her personal goals and

plans in her practicum learning agreement are to learn the intake process, develop confidence in applying counseling skills and be able to do a case conceptualization of client. As long as the supervisor has known her, she looked motivated to achieve her personal goals. Furthermore, this supervision was very interesting because the supervisor have an opportunity to work with a cross-racial supervisee. The supervisors have learned a lot from the supervision process; cross-racial supervisee have different view, character, and different problem solving style that opposite to the supervisee. However, there are also similarities between the supervisor and the supervisee especially regarding the both interest in multicultural issues. A Developmental Conceptualization of the Supervisee Based on the Integrated Developmental Model of Supervision (IDM) (Stoltenberg, McNeil, & Delworth, 1998). Along her work with Daniella, the supervisors always refer to the Integrated Developmental

1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Daniella Duca is a Latina woman. Her father

is from Puerto Rico and her mother is from the

Dominican Republic. She described herself as a

Latina—who has Hispanic origin. She said she felt

guilty to admit herself as a Latina because she is

not a Latina. She said sometimes she felt confused

to describe her origin and ethnicity. Both of her

parents were divorced when she was very young.

Now, her mother lives in Georgia and she always

talks with her mother over the phone. According to

Daniella, the phone conversation between her and

her mother always sound stressful and not happy.

The reason their relationship is not really good is

because Daniella is still contact with her biologi

cal father, which makes her mother unsatisfied.

Daniella said her mother has been suffering from depression since she was 13 years old. Her mother blames her father as the cause for her depression. Daniella married long time ago and now has been divorced. They have no child. Currently, Daniella lives with her boyfriend, who is a few years older than her, and his family at New Diamond, Wis consin. Her boyfriend's parents support some of her living expenses. Moreover, Daniella has a part time job. She works with her boyfriend's father who has a store in their neighborhood. Although she has personal problems, the problems never affect her emotionally and mentally and she was able to perform well in the supervisory process. Regard ing her education, Daniella is a master student at Star University, Wisconsin and currently doing her practicum at the United Nation of Community Model (IDM) as her foundation in analyzing the progress of her supervisee. To the supervisor, the IDM is unique because it assesses supervisee from two dimensions which are vertical and horizontal. Vertical development consists of advancement from one stage of development to another stage, across three stages, while horizontal development consists of change within three key "structure:"

self and other awareness, motivation, and auton
omy (Stoltenberg & McNeil, 1997). By referring to
IDM, the supervisor evaluated Daniella's develop
mental in her clinical skills and experiences. Based
from this model also the supervisor was able to
identify Daniella's growth for each structure and
specific domain, which is very clear and easy to
understand. Moreover, IDM is able to identify
skills and tasks to be learned and any problems that
emerge during the clinical training must be resolved
as the supervisee in the process of developing her
identity as a counselor (Cummings, 2004).
According to IDM, counselors progress
through three primary developmental levels (Lev
els 1, 2, 3). Daniella is at Level 1, since she just
started her practicum 11 weeks ago. At Level 1, a
trainee initial anxiety despite being highly moti
vated, lacks an understanding of the complexities
of counseling and depend upon supervisor guid
ance (Leach, Stoltenberg, McNeill, & Eichenfield,
1997). The supervisor actually saw these trait
characteristics while supervising Daniella. As the
supervisor mentioned above, Daniella is still in the
beginning of the first stage in her development of
clinical skills competency. The supervisor see Dan

iella’s high level of motivation and at the same time notice that she is also has anxiety. In the same line, Daniella always share that she is able to control her anxiety, but at the same time she feels unsure about something and afraid if the site supervisor and her mentor complain about her. Daniella also said that she is worried if she does something inappropriate when conducting counseling with a client or in a group therapy. For example, asking questions that make clients angry, etc. Daniella shows her aware ness about her responsibility at the UNC and is highly self-focused to perform well with her client. The supervisee frequently plans what to do every time she comes to the UNC. She always thinks of the consequences if she does something wrong or if the site supervisor and mentor disagree with her. The supervisor also found that Daniella is able to show her empathy towards clients. She can understand client’s problem. She prepares resources for client and seems she understand the client’s needs. However, she show some lack of autonomy. She always depends upon her site supervisor and mentor. Nevertheless, it is not her fault. It is normal to show less autonomy because she just started her practicum and is still at the first

level of development. She frequently asks them what to do every time she comes to the site. And from the conversation between the supervisor and Daniella, she prefers to receive structure from her site mentor about what to do next. She feels safe if she knows what the site supervisor and the mentor plan for her. Overall, to the supervisor, the supervisee (Daniella) is very concerned about her competency in counseling skills, highly motivated; she values structure, and shows ability to understand client needs. 3 PROFESSIONAL ETHICS The supervisee showed her professional ethics when she mentioned that she always took care of client's personal file. She have mentioned that she has never put the file on her table but always puts the file at a safe place and puts the file back in the private room after she finishes reading the file. Daniella is aware of confidentiality of the client's information and never has conversations about the client in front of other people; instead, she talks about the client in the site supervisor or mentor's office. 4 MULTICULTURAL Daniella works mostly with Hispanic clients. She can speak Spanish, but sometimes she has difficulty understanding some of the words during interaction with her clients. However, she shows motivation because she always refers to the dictionary to get clarification of the words. Daniella feels that clients in her group session are comfortable with her because they look at Daniella the same as themselves. Some of them communicate in Spanish with Daniella and some of them will communicate in English. During the supervision hours, the supervisor recognized that talking about multicultural issue was a main interest. The supervisor and the supervisee have similar opinions about multicultural issues, especially about understanding one's culture, languages, and minority issues. The supervisor really likes working with her supervisee because both of them have a lot in common, including experiences with family, as well as their experience with the community. 5 RELATIONSHIP WITH SUPERVISOR AND MENTOR AT THE SITE This is the part that the supervisor found the supervisee always struggles with and feels disappointed with her condition at the UNC. Her

situation become worse when her mentor always

"forgot" to invite her to be in the counseling room

with her; even though her site mentor knew that

Daniella needed more hours on individual ther

apy. According to the supervisee, her mentor can give her more hours but her mentor always for got to call her to join in the counseling session. For example, last week her mentor had a lot of clients and did not call the supervisee to be in the room. Even though the supervisee heard her men tor talking with the client (when they passed in the hallway), the supervisee thought it was inap propriate for her to disturb her mentor and the client. She also did not want her mentor to think she was pushy.

The supervisee also mentioned that she actually feels that a site supervisor is just a person for her to ask any information that she wants to know and nothing more than that. She sometimes felt awk ward with him because he did not supervise Dan iella as he supposed to do. She only meets with the supervisor who is actually a psychiatrist once a week usually for 15 minutes. She actually hopes that she will have a supervisor who is eligible to provide her with skills that she wants to improve. Having two persons, a mentor and a site supervisor makes her feel confused sometime when a problem occurs at the site. In other words, she hopes to have only one qualified supervisor who can monitor her

progress in providing counseling services to clients. According to that, Daniella is more comfortable to have open discussion with the supervisor rather than her site supervisor or mentor. When I asked the reason, she said that because both of them are too busy. She shared with the supervisor that she feels lucky because she has the third supervisor (the supervisor) to give her guidance and opinion when she has something come up at the clinical setting. Even though she has problems at the site, Daniella always shows her respect to both site supervisor and mentor. She only cares more about the hours than anything.

6 SUPERVISEE IMPRESSION

The supervisee expressed her anxiety if her mentor will criticize her in front of the client if she makes any mistakes. She is worried that she will be una ble to solve client's problems, will ask the wrong questions to the client, and will not understand the client's need. That was at the beginning of her practical training. After a few weeks, the supervisor found that she is a strong person and also able to receive feedback from her site supervisor and men tor. She works very hard to develop competency in counseling skills. She has a good personality. Dan

iella is so polite and a compliant person. 7 STRENGTH AND WEAKNESSES OF SUPERVISEE The supervisee's strengths are that she is a very hard-working person. She constantly shows her interest to meet her clients and be involved in group therapy. Daniella also is very perseverant person. Even though she has problems at the UNC and also personal problem with her mom, but she still shows a positive attitude to overcome all those problems. Her weakness is over nine weeks with Daniella, the supervisor found that her selfconfidence is like a wave, sometimes is high, and sometimes is low. Therefore, the supervisor always motivated her by increasing her spirit to think positively and learn to perceive any problem as a challenge in her life. The supervisor also has advised her not to take comments from people personally. 8 ANALYSIS OF THE SUPERVISION PROCESS Supervisors are expected to provide leadership, mentorship, and directional support towards supervisee (Roberts & Morotti, 2001). However, many beginner trainees think that the supervisors' task is to tell the trainees what to do. This is what happened in the supervisor early relationship with the supervisee. During the first meeting, the supervisor realized that Daniella seemed to seek answers directly from the supervisor. The supervisor realized that as a practical student at the first level stage, she might think that the supervisor is the place where she can get direct answers for her problems. Here, the supervisor is educated the supervisee to make her own decision for her problems. The supervisor always encourages the supervisee to think by herself and make a decision according to her comfort if the problem is about her, and make a decision according to the client's need if the problems is about her client. Gradually, the supervisee understands about the supervisor-supervisee relationship and that she should have her own stand to what have been discussed in supervision hour. What the supervisor really admires about the supervisee is she is so sincere to the supervisor. The supervisee will tell everything to the supervisor in term of what she felt and experienced without covering anything. Open communication between the supervisor and the supervisee is the key of successful to the supervisory relationship. If the supervisor can use her power as the supervisee third supervisor, the supervisor wish that she could have personal conversation with her site mentor to make sure that the supervisee will be invited to attend the counseling session with the site mentor. Also the supervisor would suggest to

the site mentor to provide the supervisee with 2 or

3 clients that she thinks the supervisee can handle.

In the same line, the supervisors wish to talk to the

site supervisor (psychiatrist) about how to be fair

to the supervisee. The site supervisor should seri

ously play his roles as a supervisor by consulting

with the supervisee to get to know her needs and

problems at the site.

9 A DISCUSSION OF WHAT THE SUPERVISOR HAVE LEARNED ABOUT SUPERVISION AS A RESULT OF HER WORKS WITH THIS STUDENTSUPERVISEE.

There are lots of things that the supervisors have

learned from her experience as a supervisor to

student-supervisee. First thing is that, to be a

supervisor it is not an easy task. The supervisors

have a supervisee who is very new in this field and

she needs the supervisors guidance to teach her

in some areas. Therefore, the supervisor should

prepare herself to know about all aspects of

supervision including the aspects that the student

supervisee will highlight such as confidentiality,

ethnics issues, boundary of supervisor and super

visee, and supervisor issues at the site. Also the

student-supervisee always shared with the supervi

sor about her dissatisfaction at the site, especially

about her opportunity to collect clinical hours. In

this case, the supervisors have to be able to respond

to the student-supervisee’s feeling. The supervisors

have to ensure that the student-supervisee’s level of

confidence and motivation are stable and are not

Self-reflection: Self-assessment of supervision related

to knowledge and skills

Noor Aishah Rosli

University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: This paper is about self-assessment of the supervisor that has been conducted in the

United States. The self-assessment that has been used in this paper was adapted from Handbook of

Counseling Supervision (ACA) by Borders and Leddick (1987). The supervisor will share her assessment

related to knowledge and skill. In this paper, the supervisor also named the Integrated Developmental

Model of Supervision (IDM) as the best supervision model for her. The style of supervision also will be

discussed in this paper.

Keywords: supervisor; self-assessment; Integrated Developmental Model of Supervision (IDM) model are really clear for the supervisor to match to the supervisee’s progress week by week. By using this model, the supervisor can easily evaluate her supervisee performance by assessing the supervisee’s performance in motivation, autonomy, and awareness. 2 THE STYLE AS A SUPERVISOR The supervisor’s style in supervisory relationship is warmth, friendly, empathy, and open communication. The supervisor knows what a supervisee need from his/her supervisor. In fact, to some extent, a supervisor may not always know the need of supervisee. Therefore, a supervisor have to be open to learning about or from his/her supervisee. That is what the supervisor gives to her supervisee. The supervisor does not want to be too rigid because it will gap the relationship with her supervisee. It does not mean the supervisor is not professional. The supervisor just wants her supervisee to feel comfortable when she works with her. At the same time, the supervisor’s culture, which is

one of the collective countries in Asia shapes the supervisor to be sharing and showing her understanding towards the supervisee. The supervisor always supports her supervisee by showing her empathy especially when the supervisee has problems with her site supervisor and her mentor. At the same time, the supervisor's style helps increase both relationship and develop the supervisee trust to the supervisor.

1 INTRODUCTION

Supervision practice is a good experience to develop professionalism style when working with an early trainee. The supervisor was really like the weekly supervision task because the training was able to increase her knowledge and skills in supervisory relationship. Moreover, based on this experience, the supervisor has the opportunity to develop her own style in supervision. Being a supervisor to a supervisee-student is not an easy task. There was a responsibility that the supervisor have to consider to provide the supervisory services that can fulfill the supervisee's desire for counseling skills such as intake process and interventions. From the begin ning of the session, the supervisor already devel oped her goals that she wants to give the best to her supervisee. Moreover, the supervisor wants the supervisee to feel satisfied working with her. In the same line, the supervisor also wants her supervisee to think that having one hour face to face supervi sion was worth it.

Applying on Integrated Developmental Model

of Supervision (IDM).

Since the supervisor learned about the Inte

grated Developmental Model of Supervision

(IDM) developed by Stoltenberg, McNeill,

Delworth (1997), the supervisor set in her mind

that she will use this model as a foundation of her

work in supervisory process. The supervisor found

that the IDM is a concrete model to be used to

assess her supervisee's development in her clinical

work. The stages and domains provided by this

Open communication also creates positive

atmosphere between the supervisor and supervisee.

The supervisor believes that she is too firm or too

rigid, it will cause the supervisee to be afraid of the

supervisor rather than to respect the supervisor.

The supervisor wants her supervisee to respect her

not to be afraid to her. Sometimes, the supervisor

offered direction to the supervisee when she strug

gled with her anxiety to conduct counseling session

with clients or when the supervisee talking about

her site supervisor and mentor. The supervisor

has questioned the supervisee about the supervisee

readiness to conduct counseling and talk to her

client. One might see that the supervisor's style is

clear and easy to follow by the supervisee.

3 RATING THE SUPERVISOR'S KNOWLEDGE AND SUPERVISION SKILLS

The supervisor would like to rate her knowledge and supervision skills in several domains; teaching skills, counseling skills, consultation skills, and research skills. In teaching skills, the supervisor has to be able to identify needs of supervisee, write learning goals and objectives, and give construction feedback to supervisee are at the expertise level. During the supervision hour, the supervisor also has evaluated the effectiveness of her supervisee and taught the supervisee to conduct effective session with the clients. However, the researcher found the lacking of the ability to devise instructional strategies to accomplish needs and learning style of supervisee, which is rated at the moderate level. The supervisor realizes that she has to work hard to increase her ability in that area. Counseling skills is the supervisors main concern rather than in any areas. The supervisor shows her expertise in the ability to develop rapport and working relationship with her supervisee. The supervisor also developed proficiency in facilitating skills such as warmth and empathy towards her supervisee. In reference to other counseling skills such as self-disclosure,

ability to facilitate supervisee self-exploration of strengths and limitations, ability to help the supervisee explore feelings about supervision was at the expertise level. Consequently, the supervisor put rate herself at the below average level in helping her supervisee explore feeling of her client. The supervisor obtained low scoring because the supervisor did not know exactly about the supervisee's client.

In addition, the supervisor also lacks the knowledge in drug problems, which most of the clients at the supervisee's site have problems with. Hopefully, the supervisor will have a chance to increase her knowledge in drug issues among clients. In consultation skills, the ability to assess problem situation, ability to function in a more peer-like with supervisee, ability to encourage supervisee to make own decision, choices, take responsibility for decisions concerning clients, counseling and issue between supervisee with the supervisor and mentor at site were under above average level. In research skills ability, the supervisor writes case notes for her supervisee. However, the supervisee does not have the opportunity to evaluate audiotape and videotape, which by having that chance, the supervisor can help herself increase her skill to identify her supervisee work. As a peer supervisor, the supervisor also has the ability to express suggestions and opinions with respect, ability to receive feedback from peers, ability to critique peer counselor's work, which the supervisor place it at the above average level. 4 MULTICULTURAL COMPETENCY The supervisor did not hesitate to say that the supervisor competent in multicultural context. The supervisor admits that because she has been in the United State since four years ago, so the supervisor can adjust herself with diversity environment. It is not difficult because Malaysia also rich with

diversity. The supervisor enjoy learning about different culture. The supervisor loves all this cultural differences. In terms of supervisor relationship with her supervisee, the supervisor is so lucky because her supervisee is a Latina. The supervisor likes Hispanic people because she finds their cultures are almost similar especially about their family relationship and shyness. Some cultures think shyness is weak, but to some culture shy is one of the good behaviors. If you have a shy nature you can control yourself from doing something bad that may cause you and your family shame. It is also part of religion where the follower should feel shame to do bad behavior such as sex before marriage and talk bad about people. At the same time, the supervisor attended Spanish classes and still learn this language by herself. Spanish language even though it is different but it has a similar root with Bahasa Malaysia language which is the supervisor's original language. Because the supervisee is a Latina, the supervisor feel very comfortable with her. The supervisee's thinking style, behavior, and humbleness has really made the supervisor easy to work with her. The supervisor believes that the Hispanic culture shapes the supervisee's behavior and the way the supervisee is thinking. Maybe the supervisor is biased but the supervisor only telling what she really feels with her supervisee. Sharing about culture was one of the most fascinating experiences that the supervisor and supervisee ever had.

5 GREATEST SUCCESSES IN SUPERVISION AND PART THAT THE SUPERVISOR STRUGGLE WITH SUPERVISEE

The greatest success that the supervisor achieves

in this supervisory relationship is that the super

visor was able to work with her supervisee effec

tively. The supervisor's supervision style helps their

work more effective. Her supervisee also gives

good cooperation to her supervisor in their rela

tionship. Since the supervisor and the supervisee

know each other in supervision setting, the super

visor knows about her supervisee's secret and she

never tells anybody. The supervisor appreciates her

and the supervisor will never share that secret with

anybody and will keep the secret forever. However,

there was a part that the supervisor struggles with

which the supervisor sometimes felt that for some

situation and problems, her supervisee needs her to

make a decision for her. The supervisor cannot do

that because it is not professional and also because

the supervisor afraid if the supervisee will blame

her if the result is not as she expected it.

6 THE STRENGTH AND LIMITATION AS A SUPERVISOR

The supervisor strength in this supervision experi

ence was her empathy to her supervisee. The super

visor understood her problems with her supervisor

and mentor. The supervisor knew her personal

problem with her family, especially her mother. The

Asian supervisor-western supervisee: Personal approach to supervision

Noor Aishah Rosli

University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: This paper is about the supervision process between the Asian supervisor and a Western

supervisee. In other words, this is a personal experience that was gained by the supervisor when she was

working with her supervisee in the United States. The supervisor has gathered all of her experience to

share it with the readers. To the supervisor, there is lack of article about sharing the supervision experience

especially in cross cultural context. The paper will highlight about the setting up the supervision experience,

ethical issues, contracting for supervision, evaluation, multicultural context of supervision, supervisory

relationship, supervision technique, and theoretical approach. The supervisor also will discuss about her

personal approach and experience in conducting supervision in the United States of America.

Keywords: supervisor; supervisee; multicultural; integrated developmental model; life-span development

model; and cognitive behavior to many different personalities and cultural backgrounds of the supervisees and their uniqueness of handling tasks at the clinical setting. 2 ETHICAL ISSUES In supervising, as a professional one should behave in a legal, ethical, and moral manner while conducting professional work (ACES, 2010). The supervisor always keeps in mind that there is a set of code of ethics to be followed. All aspects at the clinical setting is under certain code of conduct as listed in The American Psychological Association's (APA) Ethical Principles of Psychologist and Code of Conduct, The American Counseling Association Code of Ethics, and The American Counselor Education and Supervision Ethics Code. The supervisor is responsible to keep all of the supervisees' information confidential and supervisee's problem could not be discussed with other supervisee or subordinate. The supervisor will make her future supervisees aware of the ethical issues and code of ethics when meeting with the actual client. The supervisor will remind her future supervisee to read and understand the code of ethics. The supervisor will also review some aspects of the code of ethics with the future supervisee. This process is very important as guidance in psychology and counseling professional work. In the same line, future supervisees will be reminded that all the clinical work that they do is under a specific code of ethics. Confidentiality is the most important ethic which should be followed. Supervisees should be aware that they have

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Setting up the supervision experience

Personally, supervision is a clinical observation by

someone who is an expert in specific knowledge towards someone who is in the beginning stage of the same field. Supervisee will practice the clinical skill with the aid of expert supervisor or mentor (Nasiff, Schulenberg, Hutzell, & Rogina, 2010). Supervising is not a new task to the supervisor since the supervisor already has the supervision experience in her original country, Malaysia. In Malaysia, the supervisor had supervised university students who were trained to be teachers in kinder garten and preschool. The supervisor also super vised counseling students that receive counseling training at the university counseling center, school, and hospital. From the supervisor's experience of supervision in the United Sates and Malaysia, there is no different in roles and functions of supervision between the two countries, except for the culture in which we practice supervision, which is differ ent. The supervisor has a multiple role of function where supervisors can be a teacher, mentor, and also an evaluator (Pearson, 2006). The imperative role as a supervisor is monitoring clinical perform ance and professional development of supervisee. Then, from supervisee's performance, supervisors evaluate and then give feedback. Indeed, the super

visor's supervision experience in the United States and Malaysia is very interesting. In fact, in the United States, the supervisor has an opportunity to expose many things that she never knew, relating to protect the client's information and background. Normally, there will be a discussion between the supervisor and supervisee about client's issues. Therefore, the supervisor will remind the supervisee to inform his/her clients about the recording coun seling session and also explain to the client that the session will be taped for educational purposes and will only be reviewed by the supervisor.

As a professional in a clinical setting, supervisory is under the Standard 1.22 Delegation and Supervi sion of Subordinates (ACES, 2010). According to this standard, psychologists/supervisors delegate to their employees, supervisees, and research assist ants only those responsibilities that such persons can reasonably be expected to perform compe tently, on the basis of their education, training, or experience, either independently, or with the level of supervision being provided. Thus, supervisee is still developing his/her competency in clinical task, so the supervisee might harm the client without supervision. Therefore, the supervisor cannot let

the supervisee do any clinical tasks without super
vision present. Moreover, in ethical standard also
mentions that the psychologists/supervisors should
provide proper training and supervision to their
employees or supervisees and take reasonable steps
to see that such persons perform services respon
sibly, competently, and ethically. To develop com
petency in clinical work, the supervisor will teach
supervisees how to handle clients and how to do
proper documentation about client's information.

3 CONTRACTING FOR SUPERVISION

Informed consent is important to be prepared
between supervisor and supervisee. It shows that
the supervisor is willing to supervise and give his/
her clinical feedback to the supervisee. In the inform
consent it also states that the supervisor should meet
regularly face to face with the supervisees. This is also
one of the requirements that have been stated in the
American Counselor Education and Supervision
(ACES, 2010) ethical standard code. Supervisors
should give verbal and written feedback and evalu
ation to the supervisees. This supervision is also an
important part to the supervisee as it is part of the
requirement of the state, and is especially necessary
when the supervisee wants to apply for the licensure.

Thus, the supervisor have prepared the inform con

sent documentation for her supervisee.

4 EVALUATION

A supervisor is an important person to the super

visee because supervisors will evaluate supervisees'

clinical work including supervisee basic skills, ethical awareness and conduct, knowledge and learning, response and supervision and interaction with clients. In the American Psychological Association (2010) ethical code, there is a code of conduct under Standard 6.05 Assessing Student and Supervisee Performance. The Standard 6.05 Assessing Student and Supervisee Performance mention supervisory relationships and appropriate process for providing feedback to students and supervisees. Supervisee will be evaluated based on their actual performance. When the supervisor does evaluations on her student-supervisee, the aspects that she will evaluate are; level of competency, level of self-confidence, and interaction with clients. These three aspects are more important to the supervisor to be highlighted to the beginner students in counseling. The supervisee that is discussed in this paper is the beginner student and this is her first experience doing counseling with actual clients. This is the time when the beginner student in counseling will develop his/her own identity as a counselor. Most likely studentsupervisee will have difficulty during this new process. So, it is necessary for the supervisor to evaluate the student-supervisee/beginner students' weaknesses and strengths during each session. At the same time, the supervisor will emphasize the importance of clients' confidentiality. Confidentiality is a serious aspect and should be addressed to keep clienteles information secret and harmless. The supervisor met face to face with the supervisee during the evaluation. So that the supervisee will know her strengths and weaknesses. 5 DEVELOPING THE SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE 5.1 Multicultural context of supervision Multicultural issue is part of counseling development. Supervisor and supervisee should have good understanding about multicultural issues at the clinical setting. Moreover, supervisor and supervisee should have discussion about multicultural issues, so that the supervisee will understand how culture influences his/her clinical practices (Hird, Cavalieri, Dulko, Felicia, & Ho, 2001). ACES counseling supervision Standard 4 (1990) addresses the knowledge and skills related to the

supervisory relationship. Only one substandard of nine (Standard 4.1) directly addresses multicultural issues, noting the “supervisor demonstrates knowledge of individual differences with respect to gender, race, ethnicity, culture, and age and understands the importance of these characteristics in supervisory relationship” (p. 30). In other words, a supervisor should realize that he/she would be working with

different backgrounds and identities of supervi

sees; so, he/she should develop cultural competency

and respect to people’s differences. According to

Inman (2006), when supervisees perceive that the

supervisor is multicultural competent, they also

will develop strong working alliance and feel satis

fied working with the supervisor. When both par

ties have a clear understanding about multicultural

issues, so that positive relationships will be built

and sincere feedback and evaluation can be made

between the supervisor and the supervisees.

The supervisor awareness of culture began

when the supervisor came to the United States 3

years ago. A few minutes after she stepped into the

first class in the United States, she began to see her

own culture as very distinct. Before that, she sim

ply regarded it as the way things are in life. In fact,

when she was doing practicum, she was always

having an open discussion with her supervisors

about multicultural issues. As stated in Schroeder

et al. (2009), less acculturated supervisees will have

more discussion with their supervisor to develop more understanding and competance in multicul tural issues. It is true. Culture is deeply embedded in us. It influences our thinking, our beliefs, and our actions whenever we go. Since the supervisor started pursuing study in the U.S., she has learned more and more about the challenges of cross-cul tural interactions, especially in educational, clini cal, and supervising settings. It was then that the implications of culture came into her awareness. During the course of studying and practicing counseling psychology, the supervisor was some what confused by the drastic difference in values between her Malay-Eastern heritage and Amer ican-European Western traditions. For instance, understanding the meaning of self-concept in two cultures. The different emphasis on self-concept in these two cultures is dramatic; one emphasizes we self and the other emphasizes I-self. Within Eastern culture, one’s relationship to others or the com munity is considered important, whereas, within Western culture, one’s autonomy is highly valued. Culture shapes much of our experiences of oth ers and greatly affects our norms and expectations with regards to interpersonal behavior. As Estrella

(2001) point out, “If culture influences the way we see ourselves, experience emotions, define health and problems, and construct our worldview, then clearly culture must come into play as we assess, diagnose, plan treatment, and engage with our cli ents” (p. 42). In other words, culture will affect and influence our judgment about something.

The supervisor feels curiosity about how oth ers experience cross-cultural supervision increased greatly as the supervisor began to supervise master students with diverse cultural backgrounds. Many issues and questions arose. For instance, a Hmong student who expressed his opinion about his intervention in solving family problems is different with a Caucasian student when he/she relates to the norm of a family. When the supervisor heard the conversation, the supervisor had her own judgment in handling family problems, according to the supervisor own culture compared with both students. Therefore, it is important to supervisors to have cultural competence, so, there is no conflict occurring during the relationship with the supervisee. Personally, the supervisor was thinking that even though she is from a different culture and identity, in the supervisory task, she is always developing an intention to help her supervisee to be competent in their clinical work and respect their own differences. The supervisor believes if any cultural differences exist between her and her supervisee and among other supervisees, she will be open and discuss it with them. Furthermore, supervisee satisfaction working with supervisor is related to degree of self-disclosure in the supervisory relationship and the perceived positive attitudes towards each other (Schroeder, Andrews, & Hindes, 2009). Therefore, there is not an issues in supervising supervisees from different cultures and values because the supervisor’s task as a supervisor is still the same with her supervision task in Malaysia, where she gave genuine feedback and evaluation to her supervisees and made sure they developed competency

in counseling skill. Consequently, both parties are avoided from any harm and stress. Needless to say, cultural misunderstandings between the supervisee and the supervisor can affect the dynamics of interpersonal relationship, especially in the beginning of the supervision. Cultural differences in supervision could lead to ethical issues. Specifically, cultural differences can have a negative impact on the supervisee's selfesteem and self-confidence, which, in turn, can affect his/her effectiveness in working with clients. Ethical issues arise concerning verbal communication and nonverbal cues which vary depending upon the culture. It was stated that people were impacted by their individual social cultural beliefs, and as a result, developed their different viewpoint of life as well as social behavioral patterns (Huang & Chen, 2005). Hung and Chen (2005) pointed out that the characteristics of individual-centeredness, independent view of self, and self-contained individualism were used to describe Western culture, whereas, the traits of situation-centeredness, interdependent view of self, and ensemble individualism were used to specify Eastern culture. As a whole, the concept of individualism empathizing individual centeredness, individual right and welfare, individual competition, self-expression, and criticism and reform was used to describe Western

culture, especially the culture in the United States.

The concept of collectivism that considers an

individual as the one part of a group, in harmony

within interpersonal relationship, social order and

ethics was used to describe Eastern culture.

6 SUPERVISORY RELATIONSHIP

A strong working alliance is very important in

supervision and it helps reducing ambiguity for

supervisees (Schroeder et al. 2009). The supervisor

found that it is quite intriguing to consider what

is required of the student-supervisor relationship

to ensure a satisfying outcome for both parties.

The supervisor keenly observed and consciously noted how the supervisors at the practicum sites approached their supervisory relationships. The supervisor believes that understanding, profession alism, and dual communication between supervi sors and supervisee will create good supervisory relationships.

The supervisor realizes that the supervisory process changes according to needs of the indi vidual supervisory. Every supervisor has different visions and goals that underpin all aspects of the supervisory relationship. The supervisor thinks it is the quality of personal relationships that have become her own most cherished personal value.

Since the supervisor supervised student in Malaysia and continue to supervise students every semester, the supervisor has witnessed many students show nervousness when they have to face with the actual clients. The supervisor always helps her supervisee to avoid this awful feeling. The supervisor wants her supervisees to know that someone cares and that she was there to help and guide them. The supervisor also wants the supervisee to realize that counseling is a challenging field but they have sup port system. The supervisor also wants her super

visees to know that someone is encouraging them to achieve what they initially did not know was possible and the supervisor wants them to com prehend that someone is encouraging them to seek excitement in doing the clinical work especially when meeting with clients. According to Nas sif et al. (2010), supervisor should approach the supervisee with warmth and support. This charac teristic will help the supervisees have confidence to develop their personal and professional growth in their career.

When the supervisor reflects on her own experi ence as a supervisee, the supervisor will ask this ques tion to herself, “What were my needs as a student in being supervised?” and “Was I able to commu nicate these to my supervisor?” During the super vision, the supervisor has to imagine herself in her student’s shoes. The supervisor was thinking what a supervisee wants and expects from his/her supervisor. The supervisor wants to be the best reference to her supervisee and knowledgeable in providing feedback to the supervisee. From the supervisor observation, most supervisees may seek subtle feedback concerning aspects of their counseling skills. The supervisor believes that she can provide feedback to her supervisee and developing mechanism by which expectations of both can be regularly expressed in an honest and trustful feedback. The supervisor will initiate a strategy to resolve any problems that might occur. The supervisory process sometimes can be frustrating and emotional. Thus, it is important to supervisors to create a positive atmosphere in communication and giving feedback to the supervisees in order to avoid any fear and hesitation among supervisees.

7 CONDUCTING SUPERVISION 7.1 Supervision technique Every supervisor develops his/her own unique technique and style of supervision. Supervision techniques should be focused in helping supervisee to understand their roles at the clinical settings. To the supervisor, she develops her supervision technique based from her experience in supervision in Malaysia. Several techniques have been emphasized in her supervision process including live supervision, audiotape review, and video tape review case note review, and consultation during the session but out of the therapy room. In live supervision, the supervisor will listen to the supervisee. Being a good listener to supervisees is important to understand what supervisees seek in the counseling process. This does not always respond directly to supervisees' questions. Let the supervisee think what he/ she should do in certain conditions when with a client. Let them decide what they will do and will not do. Taking notes is also important especially when doing direct supervision with the supervisee. So, after the session the supervisor can discuss it with the supervisee about any concerns during the session. Once the session is finished, then the supervisor will give feedback during face to face supervision. It is very important to the supervisor to give feedback about the areas that the supervisees should improve. The strengths of the supervisee should also be mentioned in the face to face supervision. This is done so that the supervisee will have a chance to see which areas he/she has to improve in and which areas they have to maintain competency. The using of video and audiotape recorder in counseling sessions is also important as a tool to identify weaknesses and strengths of the

supervisee in the counseling session. So that super

visor and supervisee will have the opportunity to

discuss it and improve any area that is needed.

Among all technique that the researcher men

tioned above, there is a technique which the

researcher thinks as a basic technique to all of the

technique above. Cognitive Behavioral technique

is imperative in supervisory process especially to

the beginner counseling student. This technique

may help them change their view about counseling process. According to Flitch and Marshall (2002), cognitive behavioral technique is able to minimize supervisees' anxiety. Moreover, cognitive tech nique is a tool to facilitate supervisee development (Kindsvatter, Granello & Duba, 2008). According to Kindsvatter, Granello and Duba, (2008), there are three phases of cognitive technique. There are socialization, focus, and modification phases. In socialization phases there is thinking and share, in which the supervisor will ask supervisee to focus on his or her thinking and share his or her prob lem in supervision. Focus phase explains about the supervisee's focus on his or her own experience, emotion, and thought, and shares it with supervi sor. It is important to reduce any confusion that the supervisee going through. In the modification phase, supervisor and supervisee will identify a specific thought or feeling and develops a plan to modify that thought or feeling. To the supervisor, cognitive behavioral technique is a solid technique that the supervisor already uses and will continue to use in the future. In other words, cognitive behavioral technique also encourages the super visor and supervisee to develop a two way com

munication, which it really helps to eliminate any ambiguity between both parties.

8 THEORETICAL APPROACHES

At the beginning of the supervisor exposure to supervision, the supervisor had no specific theoret ical framework when she supervised the students in Malaysia. Her approach in supervising was rather ad hoc, and lacking a firm theoretical framework. Developing such a framework for the supervision relationship was a challenging but rewarding expe rience that enabled the supervisor to better under stand how one can learn. The supervisor style changed when she starting supervising master stu dent in the U. S., where she develops a loose frame work that she uses to guide student and herself in doing the clinical setting. The supervisor plan on further developing her own theoretical framework in supervising after the supervisor exposed to dif ferent models of supervision.

The supervisors are very interested in two the

Fitch, T.J. & Marshall, J.L. (2002). Using cognitive interventions with counseling practicum students during group supervision. Counselor Education and Supervision, 41, 335-342.

Hird, J.S. Cavalieri, C.E., Dulko, J.P. Felice, A.A., & Ho,

T.A. (2001). Vision and realities: Supervisee prospec

tive of multicultural supervision. Journal of Multicul

tural Counseling and Development, 29, 114-128

Hung, L.C., & Chen, P.H (2005). Cultural shock in

counseling: the experience of Taiwanese counselor.

Bulletin of Educational Psychology, 37(1), 79-98.

Inman, A.G. (2006). Supervisor multicultural competence

and its relation to supervision process and outcome.

Journal of Marital and Family Therapy, 32, 73-85.

Kindsvatter, A, Granello, D.H & Dub, J. (2008).

Counselor Education and Supervision, 473, 179-192.

Nassif, C., Schulenberg, S.E Hutzell, R.R & Rogina,

J.M. (2010). Clinical supervision and logothe

raphy: Discovery meaning in the supervisory

relationship. Journal of Contemporary Psychotherapy,

40, 21-29. Nelson, M.D. Johnson, P. Thorngren, J.M. (2000) Integrated approach for supervising mental health counseling interns. Journal of Mental Health Counseling, 22(1), 45-59. Pearson, Q.M. (2006). Psychotherapy-driven supervision: Integrated counseling theories into role-based supervision. Journal of Mental Health Counseling, 28, 241-252. Schroeder, M., Andrews, J.J.W., & Hindes, Y.L. (2009). Cross racial supervision: Critical issues in the supervisory relationship. Canadian Journal of Counseling, 433(4), 295-310. The American Psychological Association. Retrieved, December 4, 2010 from http://www.apa.org/ethics/ code/index.aspx. The American Counselor Education and Supervision. Retrieved, December 4, 2010 from http://www.acesonline.net.

Parental involvement in students' academic achievement:

A preliminary study

Jamuna Kandasamy, Fonny Hutagalung, Mohd Rushdan Abdul Razak & Zulkifli Md Isa

University of Malaya, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: The objective of this research is to provide information on what teachers think regarding

parents playing a role in educating their children, to find out the teachers' perception and parents'

response on how much time is spent by the parents in helping their children academically and to finding

out how the teachers of this school perceive parental help in assisting them (the teachers) improve the

students academically. The research method used for this study is the quantitative method involving

both parents and teachers. The quantitative method uses a questionnaire which will be distributed to 150

respondents in schools of similar academic performance. The questionnaire for this research was adapted

by using this questionnaire from Teachers Involving Parents (TIP) in service program, as reported Hoover

Dempsey, Walker, Jones & Reed (2002) and Teacher Beliefs About Parental Involvement: reported in

Hoover-Dempsey et al. (2002); adapted from Epstein, Salinas & Horsey, 1994.

Keywords: parental involvement; academic achievement the most effective approaches to enhance student achievement is for parents to be actively involved in the education of their children (Judith, 2004). In short, it clearly shows that there are needs to study the relationship between the parental involvement in children's school work and children's academic success. The reason being the western countries such as America and Britain already have research that shows positive effect of parental involvement towards students' academic achievement (Henderson & Berla, 1994). Based on this, studies on this issue need to be carried out in Malaysia, as Malaysia is a developing nation and parents are still unclear of their role in involving themselves in guiding their children academically. Majority of the Malaysian parents mostly

have minimum level of involvement. A lot of parents in Malaysia place the responsibility to teach their children upon the teachers. On top of that, Malaysian parents feel that by sending their children to school and providing them with pocket money is enough to make them believe that they have fulfilled their duty and responsibility as parents (Kertas Kerja Kajian Sistem Pendidikan Kebangsaan, 2005). The objective of this research is to provide information on what teachers think regarding parents playing a role in educating their children and also to find out the teacher's perception and parents' response on how much time is spent by the parents in helping their children academically. Besides that,

1 INTRODUCTION

In today's world, education is very vital and almost every parent's wish is to ensure their off-springs excel in their education. As early as the 1980s, parental involvement in schools has somehow become a core educational issue. Various concerned parties began to show concern about the quality of education received by their children. According to Cotton (2009), parents want their children to get adequate knowledge to lead successful future lives.

Parents, being the locus of a family, play an important role in the social and cognitive development of their child. Basically, by placing high expectations on their child, they try very much to meet their child's needs and demands throughout the process of development. Needless to say, parents also place great importance on their child's

academic achievement as well and this phenomena is not something new (Miretzky, 2004).

Parental involvement in the lives of children is definitely not a new concept. For decades, there have been countless opinions regarding parental involvement and today in the 21st century, proac tive parents are considered to be a vital component of education by all—meaning the teachers, admin istrators and society. The importance of parental involvement in schools is well documented with over 30 years of research which showed that one of this research also to find out how the teachers per ceive parental help in assisting them (the teachers) improve academically.

2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Both school and home are traditionally seen as two differing systems with roles and responsibilities which are totally different in educating children (Marti & The Conjoint Behavioral Consultation (CBC) Research Group, 2000). It is a totally differ ent scenario now as schools cannot exist independ ently because it involves many parties which include students, teachers, parents and last but not least society. Hence, both these two institutions should collaboratively work hand—in—hand in ensuring

the students get the best deal in education.

Our former Education Minister, Dato' Seri Hishamuddin Tun Hussein Onn (2004), has stated that there has to be cooperation between the three main parties that is parents, school and society in handling the discipline problem which is drasti cally on the rise. Apart from helping to curb disci pline problem, parents can play an effective role in increasing the academic achievement of students (Rosenthal & Sawyers, 2006). They also found that by working together, both parents and teachers can achieve positive results rather than working alone. Parental involvement should not only be con fined to Parent/Teachers Association or also known as PTA activities but also be invited to involve themselves in classroom activities if they are able to do so. The school sector (Bahagian Sekolah) of the Ministry of Education in Malaysia (2008) reported that more than 95.000 primary school students had problems in reading, writ ing and counting which the basic skills a child should have. This problem might be able to be solved if the school allows parents to be involved. In the West, importance is given to children even in the kindergarten level where parents are much

involved. Nord (2001) says children benefit a lot

if parents are involved in their education from the

beginning. This includes academic benefits where

children are able to read, write and count fast if

the parents are very active in school programs

(Faires et al., 2000)

Razi (1998) in his study finds that parental

involvement in Malaysian schools is given less

emphasis as schools are regarded as exclusive

domains which are solely under the teachers' juris

diction. Many Malaysian parents still entrust the

responsibility of educating their children wholly to

the school authorities without realizing the impor

tance of their presence in aiding the school achieve

their objectives, mainly academically. Hence, there

is a large number of parents who are still in the dark about how they can be involved in school activities (Razak, 2002). The most accurate predictor of the students' achievement in school is not the income or the social status, but the extent to which families are able to create a home environment that supports learning, communicates high and reasonable expectations for their children's achievement and becomes involved in their children's school (Henderson and Berla (1994), Thus, parental involvement is very essential in the children's educational and academic success. However, it is still a sad situation in Malaysia, as parental involvement in children's education is still at the minimum level. A lot of parents almost fully trust and place the responsibility to teach their children and ensure their children's education upon the teachers. Besides that, they think that by sending their children to school and providing money when needed is enough to make them believe that they have fulfilled their responsibilities as parents. (Kertas Kerja Kajian Sistem Pendidikan Kebangsaan, 2005). Furthermore,

according to Faridah et al. (2005), in Malaysia, the reason why the students' results are poor is because of their parents and families who give less support in their education, lack of supervision in the students' improvement in schools, not checking the students' homework and pass the hassle of assisting the children's homework to the older siblings. Therefore, it is clearly showed that parental involvement plays an important role in the children's education and Malaysian's parental involvement in children's education still needs to be improved. Hence, parental involvement has become a core issue when we talk about education as a whole. In Malaysia, education is of utmost importance as it is a developing country which needs high caliber human capital to push forth the development of the country. This is where the parents' role come in. Parents now besides being the breadwinners have to play the role of educators as well and this task cannot be pushed to other parties for example grandparents, uncles, aunties, babysitters or most importantly, the maids. Hence parental guidance is the crux of this matter as it is widely believed that with strong support from their parents, children will be heading in the right direction academically, socially and psychologically. Based on this fact, there is a crucial need for further research to be done to raise the awareness among the teachers, parents, students and community as a whole on the importance of the students' outcome based on the the role parents play. However, far too little attention has been paid to the issue of parental involvement as major factor to student's achievement especially in the lower secondary level in our country. To be more specific, there has been very little research on educa

tional issues among the various ethnic groups. In

fact, the emphasis on Malaysian students and their

academic achievement can only be seen in small

areas of research. Thus, more research on this

aspect has to be conducted on the role parents play

on the welfare of students and their achievement

in education. This research is hoped to enlighten

teachers and parents generally on the fact that they

can work collaboratively in aiding the students to be the best academically, socially and emotionally. Teachers are still unaware that parents can play a positive role in aiding them to educate the students. On the other hand, parents are still in the dark as to how they can partake in helping their children do academically better (Razak, 2005).

This study aims to ascertain and highlight the limited parental participation in specific par ent related activities pertaining to their children's achievement. In addition, it will also delve into teachers' perception towards parental role in edu cating and grooming their children towards good academic achievement. Hence, this chapter reviews the literature revolving parental involvement. In accordance/sync with this, parental involvement' concept will be defined and studies related to the effectiveness and varying ways of parental involve ment will be examined.

This particular topic has received much atten tion in recent decades as numerous school-im provement efforts have sought to improve student learning. Many researches have reported that parental involvement, including involvement in student homework, is related to student achieve

ment and personal attributes conducive to achieve
ment (e.g., self-regulation, perceptions of academic
competence Delgado-Gaitan, 1992; Grolnick &
Slowiaczek, 1994; Xu & Corno, 1998).

Parent involvement at home is often more dif
ficult to understand but is defined as “parents ini
tiating learning activities at home to improve their
children’s performance in school” (Tinkler, 2002,
p.6). It includes parents helping with homework,
discussing school with their child, playing games,
reading with their child, going to the library, visit
ing a museum, and getting their child to help with
cooking, sharing the day-to-day events, to name a
few (Tinkler, 2002).

It is a known fact that parental involvement is a
valuable component of any student’s education and
it is a well-established phenomenon that parental
involvement is linked to children’s success at school.
When parents are involved in their children’s edu
cation at home, they do better in school. (Hender
son and Berla, 1999). The level of parent-school
involvement is a better predictor of grades than are
standardized test scores. (Desimone, 1999).

This study aims to find out what the teachers
perceive of the parental involvement in students’ academic
achievement in this particular school. It hopes to provide

information about the role parents play in educating their children academically. Throughout this research, a lot of benefits had been figured out for the students of this school. Parental guidance does not only help the students emotionally, it also helps them perform better in their studies, thus enhancing their academic results. Academic achievement is of importance to students as their tertiary education depends on their school academic results "Students are more excellent in school when their parents get engaged in their education at home.' The children go further in school and the school they go to are better when parents get involved in school". A New Generation of Evidence: The Family is Critical to Student Achievement (Henderson & Berla, 1994). The importance of parental involvement in schools is well documented with over 30 years of research which showed that one of the most effective approaches to enhance student achievement is for parents to be actively involved in the education of their children (Judith, 2004). This particular topic has received much attention in recent decades as numerous school improvement efforts have sought to improve student learning. Many researches have reported that parental involvement, including involvement in student homework, is related to student achievement and personal attributes conducive to achievement (e.g., self-regulation, perceptions of academic competence Delgado-Gaitan, 1992; Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994; Xu & Corno, 1998). In general, parental involvement is defined by two categories that is parental involvement at home and parental involvement at school (Sheldon, 2002). Parent involvement at school is defined as activities done at school or for school such as parent teacher conferences, communicating with the teacher, attending PTA meetings and volunteering at school (Hill & Taylor, 2004). Why do parents need to be involved in children's homework? The three major reasons are they believe that their involvement will make a positive difference, and they perceive invitations to involvement (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997). Parents appear to become involved in their children's homework also because they believe their activities will make a positive difference for the child (e.g., Bandura, 1997; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). Self-efficacy theory suggests that parents' behavioral choices are guided in part by the outcomes they expect to follow their actions; the stronger the perceived self-efficacy for a task (e.g., helping with homework), the higher the goals they are likely to achieve and the greater the persistence they are likely to exhibit in reaching those goals (Bandura, 1997).

Parental involvement in their child's education has been linked to increased levels of academic performance in the classroom (Angelides, Theophanous, & Leigh, 2006; Bobetsky, 2003; Christenson & Hurley, 1997; Epstein, 1995; Fantuzzo, McWayne, & Perry, 2004; Watkins, 1997; Parker, Boak, Griffin, Ripple, & Peay, 1999; Patrikakou, 1997, 2004). According to Patrikakou (2004), increased levels of parental expectations for high academic achievement led to increased student achievement, as well as an increase in the amount of time spent completing homework outside of the classroom

Monitoring children's homework has been shown to enhance academic achievement (Ballen & Moles, 1994). It is unnecessary for the parents to know all of the answers. Instead, it is far more essential for them to express their interest by providing a quiet and comfortable place for their children to do the homework, by encouraging children's efforts, by being available for questions, and by willing to discuss material the child is learning (Ballen & Moles, 1994). Furthermore, according to Reinsch and Wambsganss (1994) in Patel (2006), current research indicates that homework completion has a positive effect on students' progresses

in class. Looking more closely at this research, there are strong indications that portray the most effective forms of parent's involvement as those which engage the parents to work directly with their children in learning activities in the home. Programs which involve parents in readings with their children, supporting their work on home work assignments, or guiding them using materials and instructions provided by teachers, resulted in noticeable and impressive results.

According to Beavers and Dewberry (2002), most students believe that their parents are at least somewhat involved, but do not want them to become more involved. However, according to Bargheto and Ronald (2001) in Beavers and Dew berry (2002), stated "students do not want parents that are 'always around' but take comfort in the fact that their parents are 'always around' is but one paradoxical and often tumultuous landscape that is middle school." For students that are in this confusing and difficult stage in their development, parents are needed more than ever.

Studies find that children do better in school when their parents set aside time each day for their children to study. High but realistic stand

ards set for the children positively lead them in

the right direction. Parents of good learners also

place importance on verbal interaction; they ques

tion their children to prompt further thought and

expression, they challenge them to use new words,

and they expect them to speak with precision.

Families with high expectations for their children's

school academic performance also provide consistent guidance and support for schooling. They are aware of their children's progress and interested in the academic route their children need to follow. Also researchers find that a strong work ethic contributes to success in school. Also important is a family attitude that accomplishments result from effort rather than innate ability or 'playing the system'. Further, on the social level, children benefit when their parents are attentive to their whereabouts, know their friends, monitor their tele viewing, and maintain contact with their teachers. It has been increasingly recognized in the fields of education and psychology that parents have significant impacts on students' learning and developmental processes. 3 RESEARCH METHODS The research design used for this study is the quantitative method involving both parents and teachers. The quantitative method uses a questionnaire which will be distributed to 150 respondents in schools of similar academic performance. The respondents will be given a grace period of two weeks to give their response. Triangulation, on the other hand, will include interviewing parents and students respectively. In this study, the manipulated variable is parental involvement and the dependent variable is the achievement of the students. 4 PILOT STUDY This pilot study was carried out in September 2014 and the sample of the study were teachers of one school in Subang Jaya District, Kuala Lumpur. The samples were 30 teachers inclusive of both genders, ranging from the age group of 25 to 60 years old. They were also a mix of different ethnic groups mainly Malay, Chinese and Indians. These subjects were selected as they are from the same school and the retrieving of the questionnaires will be easily handled. The group of teachers selected also in Subang Jaya District, Kuala Lumpur where the researcher is attached to as an English teacher and has been there for the past twelve years. This

group of teachers consists of 6 males and 24 females Besides teachers, the respondents also include parents and guardians of Form 2 students of this particular school. 5 SUMMARY Parents, being the locus of a family, play an important role in the social and cognitive development of their child. Basically, by placing high expectations on their child, they try very much to meet their child's needs and demands throughout the process of development.

Desimone, L. (1999). Linking parent involvement with

student achievement: Do race and income matter? The

Journal of Educational Research. 93(1), 11-29.

Epstein, J. L. (1995). School, family, community partner

ships: Caring for the children we share. Kappan, May

701-712.

Epstein, J. (2001). School, family, and community part

nership: Preparing educators and improving schools.

Boulder, CO: Westview.

Epstein, J., Sanders, M., Simon, B., Salinas, K.,

Jansorn, N., & Van Voorhis, F. (2002-2009). School,

family, and community partnerships: Your handbook

for action. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Epstein, J. (2005). A case study of the partnership schools:

Comprehensive school reform model. The Elementary

School Journal, (106), 150-170.

Heath, S. B., & McLaughlin, M. W. (1987). A child

resource policy: Moving beyond dependence on

school and family. Phi Delta Kappan, (68), 576-580.
Henderson, A. J., & Mapp, K. L. (2002). A new wave of evidence: The impact of school, family, and community connections on student achievement. Southwest Educational Development Lab., Austin, TX. Hettleman, K. (2003). Mapp,

K. L., & Henderson, A. J. (2002). A new wave of evidence: The impact of school, family, and community connections on student achievement. Southwest Educational Development Lab., Austin, TX Sanders, M. (2001). The role of “community” in comprehensive school, family, and Community partnership programs. The Elementary School Journal, 102(1), 19-40. Sheldon, S. (2003). Linking school, family, community partnerships in urban elementary schools to student achievement on state tests. The Urban Review, 35(2), 149-164. This page intentionally left blank

Approaches and models of behaviour management in classroom

Che’Mah Yusof, M.N. Mariani & S. Hafiza

Department of Psychology and Counselling, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya,

Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: Classroom is a common living environment where educational activities take place.

Classroom management is the most important activity for a teacher beside teaching and learning proses. This

article describes the approaches and models of Behaviour Management in Classroom. Behaviour manage

ment in classroom approach was divided into 3 categories, which is Interventionist, Non—interventionist

and Interactionalist. Interventionist approach believes that students learn appropriate behaviour when

getting reinforcement from teachers through reward or punishment. Meanwhile Non-Interventionist

approach emphasizes that students have born with an inner drive to explore the real world. According to

this theory, students should be allowed to influence the situation in the classroom, and teachers are less

involved in the adaptive behaviour of students. Interactionalist approach focuses on what can be done by a

person to change the environment, as the environment can influence the formation of individual self. This

approach strives to find solutions to meet the needs of teachers and students. These models of behaviour

and classroom management can be applied by teachers to manage, control, and predict the behaviour of

students in the classroom.

Keywords: classroom management; interventionist; non-interventionist; interactionalist 2 CONCEPT OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT The researchers generally define classroom management as various efforts made by teachers to ensure that all activities in the classroom run smoothly, including the process of learning, social interaction and behaviour of students. (Burden, 2005; Good & Brophy, 2006). Doyle (2006) adds classroom management encompasses attitudes and behaviour of teachers that can influence students' behaviour. Brophy, (1986) also defined classroom management all the efforts of teachers to create and maintain the classroom as an effective environment for teaching and learning. Classroom management also refers to all the activities that are very important to create and maintain a supportive and structured environment. It includes the planning and provision of teaching and learning materials, organization of materials, furnishing of classrooms, establishing expectations and the establishment and enforcement of rules and routines in the classroom (Tan et al., 2003). Savage & Savage (2009) states that classroom management can be divided into two stages, which is; a) to prevent the problem, b) to act when problems arise. Action to prevent the problem from occurring is over emphasized because previous studies showed that one of the variables that

1 INTRODUCTUON

Classroom is a common living environment where

educational activities take place. While classroom

management is a term that is synonymous with the

task of teaching in the classroom. Most of students'

and teachers' time passes through this common liv

ing environment everyday (Ahmed & Burhanettin,

2010). Classroom management is the most impor

tant activity for teachers. Teaching and learning will not occur if the classroom is not managed properly (Mazano, 2003; Kemal, 2009). Teachers are responsible for educating students in the class room either in academic or socio-emotional aspects of the individual. But one of the most neglected aspects of a teacher's instructional practice is class room management, despite the fact that classroom management is one of the most prominent aspects of instructional quality (Kunter, Baumert & Köller, 2007; Tanner, Hannah. Sung, & Williams, 2014). Classroom management involves many aspects: the management of space, time, activities, mate rials, social relations, and behaviour of students (Gordana & Snezana, 2011). Concern with class room management tends to be universal despite variations in practice stemming from societal norms in human relationships that influence stu dent and teacher interactions (Shin & Koh, 2008; Balli, 2011).

influenced successful classroom management is action to prevent problems from occurring, rather than reactive action, or action after a problem occurs. (Emmer & Stough, 2001). Unfortunately, teachers continue to report that classroom man

agement is one of their most greatest and wide spread challenges task in classroom (Manning and Bucher, 2007; Smith & Smith, 2006; Sokal, Smith, & Mowat, 2003).

Historically, classroom management was conceptualized almost exclusively as a teach ers' response to student misconduct rather than proactive encouragement of teacher to students' initiative and thinking (McCaslin & Good, 1992, Tanner, et al, 2014).

3 BEHAVIOUR PROBLEMS IN THE CLASSROOM

Behaviour and discipline problems in the class room is a problem that has existed for decades and it will never end. Rose & Gallup (2000), stated that behaviour and discipline among students is a serious problem. Students' behaviour problems in the classroom is the primary source of stress and could cause burn out for both beginning teach ers and experienced teachers. (Blankenship, 1988; Borg; 1990; Griffith, Steptoe, & Cropley, 1999; Martin, Linfoot, & Stephenson, 1999; Forlin, 2001; Hasting, & Bham, 2003; Evers, Tomica, & Brouwers, 2004; Head, 2005; Friedman, 2006).

Behaviour problems such as not paying attention to the teacher, shouting, disturbing other students

and did not comply with the instruction, that often occur and have been reported in the classroom (Merrett & Wheldall, 1984).

Many different behavioural problems that have been enumerated in different studies such as interfering in the classroom, talking with friends during class, late arrival, failure to do homework, defiance, disobedience, physical and verbal aggression, threats, screaming, inappropriate gestures, vandalisme, moving without permission, speak loudly, not abide the rules, tantrums without provocation, impulsiveness, hitting, biting, or scratching others, or throwing objects, so that they made physical contact with others (DuPaul & Hoff, 1998;; Erford, 1998; Herschell, Greco, Filcheck, & McNeil, 2002; Nelson, 1996; Magee & Ellis 2001; Esturgo-Deu & Sala-Roca, 2010). Students that displaying behavioural problems in the school setting will negatively impact to the academic and social climate of the classroom (Cullinan, Evans, Epstein, & Ryser, 2003; Lane, Little, Menzies, Lambert, & Wehby, 2010; McEvoy & Welker, 2000). Nelson (1996) indicates, behavioural problems not only result in stress among teachers, but also affect the success of academic, vocational and students' skills, personal motivation and leading to a failure to adapt to the school environment. Some teachers will facing

problems to build trust and interpersonal relationship with disruptive pupils (Munn & Lloyd, 2005). Teachers reported that they spent a lot of time to manage and control the behaviour of students in the classroom compared to the time spent in teaching and academic activities (Cains & Brown, 1996; Giallo & Little, 2003). Failure to handle behaviour problems and discipline in the classroom will disrupt the classroom environment and academic activities also will be interrupted. Therefore, subject content cannot be delivered to students and the teachers' power will be decreased. This will cause the other students will not have the opportunity to learn (Blankenship, 1988; Cains & Brown, 1996; Cartledge & Johnson, 1996; Fields, 1999). Studies on the goals of classroom management found that classroom management strategies have serious impact on the orientation and behaviour of students. Some of the research finding indicated that there are positive correlations between teachers' effective classroom management with students' achievement (Marzano, Marzano & Pickering, 2003; McGarity & Butts, 2006). This means that the teachers' mistakes in managing students' behaviour can influence students' attitudes towards learning in the classroom. Therefore, classrooms with frequent disruptive behaviour have less academic engaged time, and the students in disruptive classrooms tend to have lower grades and do poorer on standardized tests (Shinn, Ramsey, Walker, Stieber, & O'Neill, 1987). Furthermore, attempts to control disruptive behaviour costly, considerable teacher time at the expense of academic instruction. 4 MODEL AND APPROACH BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT IN CLASSROOM Accordingly, educationalists and psychologists have proposed many theories and models of students' behaviour management in the classroom. Glickman and Tamashiro (1980) and Wolfgang & Glickman, (1995) have categorized the theoretical framework of classroom management approaches into three categories; Interventionist, Non— interventionist and interactionalist. Researchers also studied various trends and variables associated with teachers' situation tendency to behave as intervention, non-interventionist, or interactionalist (Henson, 2001; Martin & Baldwin, 1994; Martin & Shoho, 2000; Martin, Yin, & Baldwin, 1998; Janice & Dawson, 2007).

4.1 Interventionist approach

Interventionist approach believes that students

learn the appropriate behaviour when getting

reinforcement from teachers, through reward or punishment (Ritter & Hancock, 2007; Janice & Dawson, 2007). lnterventionist approach empha sizes high control approach to students' behaviour and discipline in the classroom. This theory asserts that the teacher is responsible for controlling the behaviour of students by establishing rules and routines in the classroom. Therefore, this approach emphasizes teacher-centred orientation and the tendency of teachers to control the situation by implementing immediate discipline and control the behavior of students (Witcher, Jiao, Onwuegbuzie, Collins, James, & Minor, 2002).

Teachers who use this approach will be more focused on the formation of students' behaviour, lack of attention to the differences in each individual stu dent. In order to control the behaviour of students, teachers will use reinforcement techniques such as giving gifts, rewards, praise, token economy or a smile. Instead, teachers will also use the punishment technique to remove the undesirable behaviour.

Among classroom management models associ ated with this approach is Behaviour Modification Model by BF Skinner (1904-1990), Assertive Dis cipline Model by Canter & Canter (1976), Positive

Discipline Model by Jones (1987), Teaching Man

agement Theory by Kounin (1970).

4.2 Non—Interventionist approach

Meanwhile, Non-Interventionist Approach stressed that students have an inner drive to explore the real world. According to this theory, students should be allowed to influence the situation in the class room, and teachers are less involved in the adaptive behaviour of students (Ritter & Hancock, 2007). This approach assumes that the student should be given the power to manage their classroom and teachers' power at very minimum level (Witcher et al, 2002). Burden (1995) asserts that children have the internal potential and are able to make deci sions for self-development.

According to Kohn (1996), disciplined approach aims to enable students to socialize and how they can build their values . In addition, students are taught to work with other partners and the con fidence to act in accordance with the values that they choose. Among of the models of classroom management that are used in this approach are Communication Congruence Model (Congruent Communication) by Haim Ginot, (1969), Model Discipline Self Control (Self Discipline) by Tho

mas Gordon (1974) and Internal Discipline (Inner

Cartledge, G., & Johnson, C. T. (1996). Inclusive class rooms for students with emotional and behavioural disorders: Critical variables. Theory Into Practice, 35, 51-57.

Cavanaugh, Brian. (2013). Performance Feedback and Teachers' Use of Praise and Opportunities to Respond: A Review of the Literature, Education And Treatment Of Children, 36 (1), 111-137.

Clark, D. (2003). Developing observation strategies to enhance teaching effectiveness in the dance class. Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance, 74(9), 33-47

Coloroso, B (1994). Kids are worth it: Giving your child the gift of inner Discipline. New York: Morrow in

Manning, M.L. & Butcher, K.T. (2007). Classroom management: Model, application dan Cases, New Jer sey, Prentice Hall

Coloroso, B. (2002). The Bully, the bullied, and the bystander. New York: Harper-Resource.

Cullinan, D., Evans, C., Epstein, M. H., & Ryser, G. (2003). Characteristics of emotional and disturbance of elemen tary school students. Behavioral Disorders, 28, 94-110.

Daniel, M. Maggin, Sandra M. Chafouleas, Katelyn M. Goddard, & Austin H. Johnson. (2011). A systematic evaluation of token economies as a classroom man

agement tool for students with challenging behavior, Journal of School Psychology, 49, 529–554.

Demanet, J., & Van Houtte, M. (2011a). School belonging and school misconduct: the differing role of teacher and peer attachment. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 41, 499–514.

Demanet,J., Van Houtte, M. (2012). Teachers' attitudes and students' opposition. School misconduct as a reaction to teachers' diminished effort and affect, Teaching and Teacher Education, 28, 860–869.

Doyle, W. (2006). Classroom organization and management. In M.C. Wittrock (Ed.), Handbook of Research on Teaching (3rd ed.). New York: Simon and Schuster.

Dreikurs, R., Grunwald, B., & Pepper, F. (1982). Maintaining sanity in the classroom. New York: Harper & Row.

DuPaul, G. J., & Hoff, K. E. (1998). Reducing disruptive behavior in general education classrooms: the use of self-management strategies. School Psychology Review, 27(2), 290–304.

Edwards, C. H. (2004). Classroom discipline and management. 4th ed. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Ellis, J., & Magee, S. K. (1999). Determination of environmental correlates of disruptive classroom behav

iour: integration of functional analysis into public

school assessment process. Educational & Treatment

of Children, 22, 291-316.

Emmer, E. T., & Stough, L. M. (2001). Classroom man

agement: A critical part of educational psychology,

with implications for teacher education. Educational

Psychologist, 36(2), 102-112.

Erford, B. T. (1998). Technical analysis of father responses

to the disruptive behaviour rating scale-parent version

(DBRS-P). Measurement & Evaluation in Counselling &

Development, 30(4), 199-211.

Esturgó-Deu, M. E., & Sala-Roca, J. (2010). Disruptive

behaviour of students in primary education and

emotional intelligence. Teaching and Teacher Educa

tion, 26(4), 830-837. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2009.10.020 Evers, W.J.G. Tomica, W. and Brouwers, A. (2004) 'Burnout among Teachers: Students' and teachers' Perceptions Compared' School Psychology International, Vol. 25 No. 2. 131-148. Fields, B. (1999). The impact of class heterogeneity on students with learning disabilities. Australian Journal of Learning Disabilities, 4, 11-16. Ford, A. D., Olmi, D. J., Edwards, R. P., & Tingstrom, D. H. (2001). The sequential introduction of compliance training components with elementary-aged children in general education classroom settings. School Psychology Quarterly, 16, 142-157. Forlin, C. (2001). Inclusion: Identifying potential stressors for regular class teachers. Educational Research, 43(3), 235-245. Franklin C. Wilson, (1982). A look at corporal punishment and some implications of its use, Teaching and Teacher Education, 6(2), 155-164. Freidenfelt Liljeberg, J., Eklund, J. M., Väfors Fritz, M., & af Klinteberg, B. (2011). Poor school bonding and delinquency over time: bidirectional effects and sex differences. Journal of Adolescence, 34, 1-9. Friedman, I. A. (2006). Classroom management and teacher stress and burnout. In C. M. Evertson & C. S. Weinstein (Eds.), Handbook of classroom

management: Research, practice, and contemporary issues (pp. 925-944). Mahwah, N.J. Lawrence Erlbaum. Gathercoal, F., & Crowell,R. (2000). Judicious Discipline. Kappa Delta Pi Record, 36(4), 173-177. Gathercoal, F. (2001). Judicious Discipline (5th.ed.). San Francisco: Caddo Gap Press. Giallo.R, & Little, Emma. (2003). Classroom Behavior problems: The relationship between preparedness, classroom Experiences, and self-efficacy in graduate and student teachers, Australian Journal of Educational & Developmental Psychology, 3, 21-34. Ginot, H. (1972). Teacher and Child: a book for teachers and parents, New York, McMillan. Glasser, W. (1965). Reality therapy, a new approach to psychiatry. New York: Harper & Row. In Maning, M.L. & Butcher, K.T. (2007). Classroom management: Model, application dan Cases, New Jersey, Prentice Hall. Glasser, W. (1986). Control theory in the classroom. New York: Perennial Library. Glickman C.D. & Tamashiro, R.T (1982). A Comparison of first-year, Fifth year, and former teachers on efficacy. Ego-development and problem-solving. Psychology in the Schools, 19, 558-562. Glickman C.D. & Tamashiro, R.T. (1980). Clarifying teachers' beliefs about discipline. Educational Leadership, 37, 459-464. Glynn, E. L., & Thomas, J. D. (1974). Effect of cueing on self-control of classroom behavior. Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 7,299-306. Good, T. L., & Brophy, J. E. (2006). Looking in classrooms (8th ed.). New York: Longman. Gordana Djigic, Snezana Stojiljkovic, (2011). Classroom management styles, classroom climate and school achievement, Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences, (29) 819-828. Gordon, T. (1974). T.E.T: Teacher effectiveness training, New York: wyden Books. Griffith, J., Steptoe, A., & Cropley, M. (1999). An investigation of coping strategies associated with job stress

in teachers. British Journal of Educational Psychology,

69,517-531.

Hastings, R. P., & Bham, M. S. (2003). The Relation

ship between Student Behaviour Patterns and Teacher

Burnout. School Psychology International, 24(1), 115-

127. doi:10.1177/0143034303024001905

Head, G. (2005) Better Learning, Better Behaviour. Scot

tish Educational Review, 37(2), 94-103.

Henson, K. (2001) Relationships between Pre-service Teachers'Self-Efficacy, Task Analysis, and Classroom Management Beliefs. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Southwest Educational Research Asso ciation, New Orleans.

Herschell, A. D., Greco, L. A., Filcheck, H. A., & McNeil, C. B. (2002). Who is testing whom? Interven tion in School & Clinic, 37(3), 140-148.

Janice, T. R & Dawson R. H, (2007). Exploring the rela tionship between certification sources, experience levels, and classroom management orientations of classroom teachers, Teaching and Teacher Education 23, 1206-1216.

John T. Blaze, D. Joe Olmi, Sterett H. Mercer, Brad A. Dufrene, Daniel H. Tingstom. (2014). Loud versus quiet praise: A direct behavioral comparison in sec ondary classrooms, Journal of School Psychology, 52, 349-360.

Jones, V. F., & Jones, L. S. (1998). Comprehensive class room management (5th ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Jones, F.H (2000). Tools for teaching, Santa Cruz, CA: Jones H.Jones & Association.

Kazdin, A. E. (1977). The token economy: A review and evaluation. New York: Plenum Press.

Kemal,Kayikci, (2009), The effect of classroom manage
ment skills of elementary school Teachers on undesir
able discipline behaviour of students, Procedia Social
and Behavioral Sciences 1 (2009) 1215–1225.
Kimber, W.M, Beverly, J.T, & Peter V.P. (2005). Models
of Classroom Management as applied to the Second
ary Classroom, The Clearing House, 79(1), 36–39.
Kohn, A. (1996). By all available means: Cameron and
Pierce's defense of extrinsic motivators. Review of
Educational Research, 66, 1–3.
Kounin, J. (1970). Discipline and group management in
classrooms. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
Lane, K. L., Little, A., Menzies, H., Lambert, W., &
Wehby, J. H. (2010). A comparison of students with
behavior challenges in suburban and rural settings:
Academic, social, and behavioral outcomes. Journal
of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, 18, 131–148.
Landrum, T. J., & Kauffman, J. M. (2006). Behavioral
approaches to classroom management. In C. Evertson &
C. Weinstein (Eds.), Handbook of ClassroomManagement:
Research, practice, and contemporary issues (pp. 47–71).
Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
Magee, S.K. & Ellis, J. (2001). The detrimental effects of
physical restraint as a consequence for inappropriate
classroom behaviour. Journal of Applied Behaviour

Analysis, 34(4), 501-504.

Mandal, R. L., Olmi, D. J., Edwards, R. P., Tingstrom,

D. H., & Benoit, D. A. (2000). Effective instruction

delivery and time-in: Positive procedures for achieving

child compliance. Child & Family Behavior Therapy,

22(4), 1-12. Manning, M.L. & Butcher, K.T. (2007). Classroom management: Model, application dan Cases, New Jersey, Prentice Hall Martin, A., Linfoot, K., & Stephenson, J. (1999). How teachers respond to concerns about misbehaviour in their classroom. Psychology in the Schools, 36, 347-358. Martin, G., & Pear, J. (2007). Behavior modification (8th ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall. Martin, N., Yin. Z. & Baldwin, B. (1998). Construct validation of the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control Inventory. Journal of Classroom Interaction, 33(2), 6-15. Martin, N.K, Shoho, A.L. (2000), Teacher Experience, training & Age: The influence of Teacher characteristics on classroom Management Style, paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Southwest Educational Research Association, Dallas. Madsen, C. H., Becker, W. C., & Thomas, D. R. (1968). Rules, praise, and ignoring: Elements of elementary classroom control. Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 1, 139-150. McCaslin, M., & Good, T. L. (1992). Compliant cognition: the misalliance of management and instructional goals in current school reform. Educational Researcher, 21(3), 4-17. McEvoy, A., & Welker, E. (2000). Antisocial behavior, academic failure, and school climate: A critical review. Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, 8, 130-140. McGarity, J.R. and Butts, D. P. (2006). The relationship among teacher classroom management behaviour, student engagement, and student achievement of middle and high school science students of varying aptitude. Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 21(1), 55-61. Medland, M. B., & Stachnik, T. J. (1972). Good-behavior game: A replication and systematic analysis. Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 5, 45-51. Merrett, F., & Wheldall, K. (1984). Classroom behaviour problems which junior school teachers find most troublesome. Educational Studies, 10, 87-92. M. Estrella Esturg_o-Deu, Josefina Sala-Roca, (2010). Disruptive behaviour of students in primary education and emotional intelligence, Teaching and Teacher Education 26, 830-837. Munn, P., & Lloyd, G. (2005). Exclusion and excluded pupils. British Educational Research Journal, 31(2), 205-221. Nelson, J. R. (1996).

Designing school to meet the needs of students who exhibit disruptive behaviour. Journal of Emotional & Behavioural Disorders, 4(1), 147-162. Parkay, F., Greenwood, G., Olejnik, S., & Proller, N. (1988). A study of the relationships among teacher efficacy, locus of control, and stress. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 21, 13-22. Pryor, D.B & Tollerud, t.R. (1999) Applications of Adlerian principles in school settings. Professional School Counseling, 2(4), 299-304. Ritter, J.T., & Hancock, D.R. (2007). Exploring the relationship between certification sources, experience levels, and classroom management orientations of classroom teachers. Teaching and Teacher Education 23(7), pp. 1206-1216.

Roberts, D. S., Tingstrom, D. H., Olmi, D. J., & Belli

panni, K. D. (2008). Positive antecedent and con

sequent components in child compliance training.

Behavior Modification, 32, 21-38.

Rose, L.C nd & Gallup, A.M. (2000, September). The 32nd

annual Phi Delta Kappa/Gallup poll of the public's

attitudes toward the public schools. Phi Delta Kappan,

82, 41-66.

Russell Lang, Karrie A. Shogren, Wendy

Machalicek,Mandy Rispoli, Mark O'Reilly, Sonia

Baker, & April Regester. (2009). Video self-modeling to

teach classroom rules to two students with Asperger's,

Research in Autism Spectrum Disorders 3, 483-488

Savage, T. V, & Savage, M.K. (2009). Successful Classroom

Management and Discipline: Teaching Self-Conterol

and Responsibility. (3rd edition). Sage Publications,

Inc.

Shinn, M. R., Ramsey, E., Walker, H. M., Stieber, S., &

O “ Neill, R. E. (1987). Antisocial behavior in school set

tings: Initial differences in an at-risk and normal popu

lation. The Journal of Special Education, 21, 69-84.

Smith, D. L., & Smith, B. J. (2006). Perceptions of

violence: The views of teachers who left urban schools.

The High School Journal, 89, 34-42.

Sokal, L, Smith, D. G. & Mowat, H. (2003). Alternative

certification teachers’ attitudes toward classroom

management. High School Journal, 86(3), 8-16. Tan O.S., Parsons, R.D., Hinson, S.L., & Sardo-Brown, D. (2003). Educational psychology: A practitioner— researcher approach. Australia: Thomson. Tanner, L. W, Hannah C. Sung, and Jasmine D. Williams. (2014).The defining features of teacher talk within autonomy-supportive classroom management, Teaching and Teacher Education. 42, 34-46. Walker, H. M., Ramsey, E., & Gresham, F. M. (2004). Antisocial behavior in schools (2nd ed.). Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadswort. Witcher, A., Jiao, Q., Onwuegbuzie, A., Collins, K., James, T., & Minor, L.(2008). Pre-service Teachers’ Perceptions of Characteristics of an Effective Teacher as a Function of Discipline Orientation: A Mixed Methods Investigation. Teacher Educator, 43(4), 279-301. Wolery, M., Bailey, D. B., & Sugai, G. (1988). Effective teaching: Principles and procedures of applied behavior analysis with exceptional students. Boston: Allyn Bacon. Wolfgang, C.H. & Glickman, C.D. (1995). Solving discipline problems: Strategies for classroom teachers, (3rd. Ed). Allyn and Bacon. Zafer, Unal, & Aslihan, Unal. (2012).The impact of years of teaching experience on the classroom management approaches of Elementary school teachers. International Journal of Instruction. 5(2) 41-60.

The emphasis of Higher Order Thinking (HOT) in the curriculum

and the implementation in reality

Cathreena Chee Sue Fern & Umi Kalsum Mohd Salleh

University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: Higher-Order Thinking (HOT) has been brought to

the centre of attention in the education

field especially in the 21st century. The emphasis of HOT in the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-

2025, in the curriculum, and the introduction of the new assessment system made HOT an undeniably

important element to be included in teaching and learning in the classroom. A question mark however

remains on how HOT is being implemented in the classroom that has been accustomed to traditional

approaches of teaching and learning. This paper highlights the emphasis given to HOT in the curriculum

and the implementation in the classroom. 2 WHAT IS HIGHER ORDER THINKING (HOT)? Higher-Order Thinking (HOT) according to Newmann (1991) is when students are challenged with questions or problems that cannot be answered or solved through the routine application of previous knowledge. Instead, they are required to interpret, analyse and manipulate information in order to attempt to answer a question or solve a problem which is in contrast to lower-order thinking that merely involves routine and mechanistic application of knowledge that has been learnt such as repetitive exercises that only requires students to list information of something that has been previously memorised. In short, HOT is seen as an approach to teaching and learning that would elevate students thinking beyond the practice of rote learning and memorisation (Danial, 2015). HOT involves critical thinking, creative thinking, problem solving and decision making ahead of what is stated according to Bloom's taxonomy although it is believed that most teachers equate HOT with Bloom's taxonomy (Tan & Siti Hajar, 2015). According to Bloom's taxonomy, there are six categories in the cognitive domain which are Knowledge, Comprehension, Application, Analysis, Synthesis and Evaluation. The revised version of the taxonomy however, are named using verbs ranging from Remember, Understand, Apply, Analyse, Evaluate and Create arranged from simple to complex and concrete to abstract where each category is a prerequisite to master the next

1 INTRODUCTION

Stenhouse (1975) believes that curriculum stud

ies involve the relationship between two views of curriculum which are the intended and the reality and that the reality seldom matches the intended educational intentions. The excerpt stated below taken from the Malaysian Education Blueprint 2013-2025 would best describe how teaching and learning was previously practices in Malaysian classrooms and how it is supposed to be practiced in the present and in the future.

“A fundamental objective of any education system is to ensure that its students are being equipped with the knowledge and skills required for success in life. Historically, the Malaysian education sys tem, like others around the world, has emphasised the development of strong content knowledge in subjects such as science, mathematics, and lan guage. There is, however, increasing global rec ognition that it is no longer enough for a student to leave school with the 3 Rs (Reading, writing & arithmetic). The emphasis is no longer just on the importance of knowledge, but also on developing higher order thinking skills” (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2012, p. 25)

With the importance on higher-order thinking that is stressed in the blueprint, it is therefore the aim of this paper to highlight the emphasis given

to higher-order thinking (HOT) in the curriculum, how assessment is viewed as a way to encourage HOT and the implementation of HOT in the classroom.

(Krathwohl, 2002). Table 1 illustrates the dimen sions of the revised taxonomy where the levels of cognitive domains are changed to “remember” as the lowest, followed by “understand.” “Apply,” “analyse,” “evaluate” and “create” would be rec ognised as HOT as compared to “remember” and “understand” as according to Malini and Sarjit (2014), the purpose of HOT is to encour age students to apply, analyse, evaluate and think creatively.

2.1 The emphasis of HOT in the English language syllabus

Much emphasis is drawn to the need to produce stu dents who are capable of developing higher-order thinking skills through critical and creative think ing as stated in the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025. In accordance to that, the Curriculum Specifications for English language highlighted the need of the development of HOT in teaching and learning where it is stated that “critical and creative thinking skills are incorporated in the learning out comes to enable learners to analyse information, make

decisions, solve problems, and express themselves accurately and creatively in language" (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2000, p. 10). As such, the learning outcomes stated in the English language curriculum specification corresponds to the idea of incorporating HOT is the learning process. Krathwohl (2002) mentioned that Bloom's taxonomy could serve as a basis for determining specific goals in a particular course or curriculum where the verbs used would describe the levels of cognitive process. The Table 2 portrays the verbs that describe the application of HOT in the learning outcomes in the English language syllabus based on the three main areas of language use. 3 SCHOOL-BASED ASSESSMENT (SBA) AS AN APPROACH TO PROMOTE HOT In ensuring the quality of education, the Ministry of Education (2012) stated that the examination system needs to be transformed to what is known as assessment. School-Based Assessment (SBA) is an assessment system that is more holistic in form

Table 1. Dimensons of revised taxonomy (Krathwohl, 2002).

Levels of cognitive

domains Explanation Examples of verbs

Remember Retrieving relevant knowledge from long-term memory Recognizing Recalling

Understand Determining the meaning of instructional messages, including oral, written, and graphic communication Interpreting Classifying Summarising Comparing Explaining

Apply Carrying out or using a procedure in a given situation Executing Implementing

Analyse Breaking material into its constituent parts and detecting how the parts relate to one another and to an overall structure or purpose Differentiating Organizing

Evaluate Making judgments based on criteria and standards. Checking Critiquing

Create Putting elements together to form a novel, coherent whole or make an original product. Planning Producing

Table 2. Examples of verbs that describe the application of HOT in the learning outcomes in English language

syllabus.

3 main areas of

language use Verbs that describes HOT in the learning outcomes Examples of learning outcomes

Language use for

interpersonal purposes Discussing, making enquiries, making complaints Making complaints and responding to complaints

Language use for

informational purposes Predicting outcomes, presenting Predicting outcomes, and drawing conclusions

Language use for

aesthetic purposes Dramatising, composing Composing simple poems, stories and dialogues

and focuses on formative approaches in the class

room so as to reduce the practice of rote-learning

and memorisation and diminish the exam-oriented

mindsets of individuals so that thinking skills can

be inculcated in the students. In short, SBA is

formed to encourage the practice of HOT. This is

as well in line with the Malaysian Education Blue

print 2013-2025 itself where one of its aim con

cerning curriculum and assessment is to upgrade

the assessment system by increasing items that

tests upon students' higher-order thinking skills in

both national examinations as well as the SBA.

According to Krathwohl (2002), the taxonomy is

not only a plan for classifying educational goals, but

standards as well. The Table 3 shows the standard descriptor to assess students' performance in English language in the SBA which contains verbs that determine the level of thinking. For example, Band 1, being the lowest level of thinking aims for students' to only "know" the basic skills in English language. When students know the basic skills, students move on to Band 2 which assesses students "understanding". Band 3 would be the "apply" level according to Bloom's taxonomy as it assesses students' ability in using the knowledge. Band 4 would need students to analyse in order to apply knowledge in different situation. Band 5 would require students to evaluate while band 6, the highest level of thinking would require students to bring elements together and create or come up with something new.

HOT has become the centre of attention in Malaysia since the introduction of SBA where it was said that SBA would be able to develop students to think critically and creatively (Zahari, 2014). Following the introduction of the SBA is the Form 3 Assessment or is known as Penilaian Tingkatan 3 (PT3) which replaced the Penilaian Menengah Rendah (PMR) examinations in 2014. Unlike PMR, PT3 questions comprise of

subjective items testing upon students HOT (Free Malaysia Today, December 25, 2014) in line with the purpose of SBA that promotes HOT. However, with questions testing upon students HOT that are new to classroom practices in Malaysia, it was mentioned that seventy percent of the teachers and students were lost (Iqbaal, 2014). 4 THE IMPLEMENTATION OF HOT IN TEACHING AND LEARNING Although the importance of HOT is very well highlighted in the education system in Malaysia, Newmann (1991) believed that pedagogy in the classroom should encourage students to play an active role in seeking their own knowledge, thus raising the question on how HOT is being practiced in the classroom. With the concern of the society that young people are unable to think (Collins, 2014), Van den Berg (2008) mentioned that higher-order thinking is unlikely to happen unless students are involved in activities that promote this kind of thinking. Newmann (1991) also shares the same view where he believed that most of the classroom activities fail to challenge students to think. To promote this kind of thinking, teachers and students need to step away from traditional approaches to teaching and learning as Stenhouse (1975) believed that “if knowledge is to be approached as a resource and an open system rather than as an imposition by those who possess it, new styles of teaching need to be evolved, and this is by no means easy.” One of the approaches that can be used to encourage a more open classroom that would promote students thinking is through the practice of questions and answer in the classroom. It is believed that students need to ask questions in order to explore ideas (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009). However, Scarino and Liddicoat (2009) continued that students tend to not question much and when they do their questions are often limited to the need for clarification or confirmation. Newmann (1991) also believed that most people shun at the thought of critical inquiry as it involves hard mental work especially for students and thus students prefer instead to receive the information from their teachers and reproduce. Abdul Shakour and Adila (2014) also believed that teaching and learning in Malaysian classroom is still practiced in a one-way process where classroom dialogue is hardly seen and if it remains this way, students are left with not much opportunity to develop their thinking skills.

Table 3. Standard descriptor of SBA for English language according to bands.

Band	Standard Descriptor
B1	Know fundamental skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing
B2	Understand meanings of word, phrases and sentence level
B3	Use knowledge acquired through listening, speaking, reading and writing
B4	Apply knowledge acquired in a variety of situations using some appropriate language conventions.
B5	Demonstrate the ability to use language in a variety of situations using largely appropriate language conventions.
B6	Appreciate literary works and present ideas critically in an exemplary manner.

This is proved through a study by Habsah (2006) where it was discovered that students have not been provided with much exposure to high-level questioning in the classroom which is inconsistent with the curriculum as the curriculum requires students to be taught “how to learn,” and in contrast, the teachers have instead been teaching the students “what to learn.” The study also discovered that most questions set by teachers are not designed to encourage critical thinking as questions are of lower-level and factual.

Penilaian Tingkatan 3 (PT3) is an assessment following the SBA where most of the questions comprised of higher-order thinking. Malini and

Sarjit (2014) mentioned that teachers lack the skills to integrate the practice of HOT in their lessons which in turn does not correspond to the HOT questions asked in the assessment and examinations. This has been seen to be true in the PT3 assessment where the first batch of students comprising of more than 450 000 candidates sat for the assessment in October 2014 where it was mentioned that higher order thinking skills are to be included to leverage the education system in Malaysia to a global level (Bernama, June 14, 2014). However, the result of PT3 was proven oth erwise due to the short time provided to students and teachers to familiarize with the practice of HOT (Zahari, 2014).

5 CONCLUSION

Knowledge was once learned only to be remem bered, and not to be understood (Edgar, 2012) which explains the need in the moving away from rote learning and memorizing towards the inculcation of thinking skills in the 21st century. However, despite the emphasis given to HOT in the 21st century, the inclusion of the significance of HOT is the educational documents as well as the written curriculum and the introduction of

a new assessment system that would promote

the application of HOT, the practice of HOT

is Malaysian classroom is indeed relatively new

and would definitely require time for teachers

and students to adapt. Teachers and students

will need time to correspond to the call of HOT.

And with time, comes along practice and the

willingness to change. When teachers and stu

dents are willing to step away from the traditional

approaches to teaching and learning and give way

to new approaches, when they are able to grasp

the concept of HOT and put it to practice in the

classroom, only then can the curriculum be imple

mented as intended and thus fulfilling the aims of

Homeschooling: An alternative to mainstream

Lee Ching Yin & Abd Razak Zakaria

Department of Educational Foundation and Humanities,
Faculty of Education, University of Malaya,

Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Hazleena Baharun

Faculty of Major Language Studies, Islamic Science
University of Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: Homeschooling is a parent-led home based
education, which is currently enjoying new

discovered acceptance both locally and internationally. To
understand this new alternative education, we

review a number of homeschooling studies from the local and

overseas associated with the history and

development of homeschooling, factors that led to homeschooling; outcome or impacts of homeschool

ing on school, families and children, and concerns, challenges as well as critics of homeschooling. We

then document the findings of reasons that led to homeschooling and its outcomes to give an overview of

homeschooling to provide a guideline and reflection to parents who intend to homeschool their children.

Also, it is significant for the current conventional education system to re-attract families who chose home

school as well as to refine the current educational practice to cater the modern generation. Meanwhile, we

also document concerns, challenges, and critics towards homeschooling to ameliorate homeschooling as

the growing alternative.

Keywords: homeschooling; home education; homeschool;
alternative education the olden semi century. This reemergence of what is in fact an old practice has occurred for a distinctly modern reason (Lines, 2000). During the late 1960s and 1970s, a movement emerged to turn down the modern change and return to the path where parents were responsible for their children’s education (Aasen, 2010). By the late 1990s, there were over a million students being homeschooled in the United States and the number seems to be growing quickly (Abell, 2002). Just after a decade, an estimated 2.04 million home-educated students (1.73 to 2.35 million) in grades K to 12 resulted in the United States during the spring of 2010 (Ray, 2011). And yet, despite the growth of homeschooling in western countries such as the United States, the United Kingdom, New Zealand, Canada and Australia, the increasing movement among Israel, South Africa, and Asia countries, like Malaysia, Taiwan and China is also notable. In Malaysia, a real figure of homeschooled students does not exist. Thus, we are not sure about the amount of children are being homeschooled and at what rate it is growing. As Reich (2005) reported, in many areas, registration of home-schooled (a necessity to being counted) is not enforced (Murphy, 2014). In other places, homeschool families simply neglect to register when they

are required to do so (Lines, 2000). In still other cases, parents are so opposed to government oversight of their

1 INTRODUCTION

Homeschooling can be defined with the word “home” and “schooling”, which gives the meaning education or schooling that occurs at home. It is also a circumstance where parents make a conscious decision to provide an education for their child or children in place of that provided by schools, and where the parents are the main teachers or facili tators in the program of education (Broadhurst, 1999). Nevertheless, it is not a replication of school in a home environment, but a holistic lifestyle that strips the trappings of institutional schooling to focus on fundamental (David, 2004). Since home schooling is a form of private education that is par ent led and home based, therefore, homeschooling does not rely on either state-run public schooling or institutional private schooling for a child’s edu cation (Ray, 2013).

Homeschooling is neither a new concept nor practice. Scholars from diverse philosophical tra ditions have responded displeasure towards formal schooling for a few reasons. For example, John Locke, retained his view on the prime aim of edu cation was a rectitude, and the home of a child was

the optimal place to teach them, even John Dewey expressed his contrition about formal schooling (Lines, 2000). The escalation of homeschooling is one of the most noteworthy social movements of families that they refuse to participate in data col lection activities, both census and research efforts (Murphy, 2014). Along these lines, these are prob ably the reasons counting exact figure of home schooled students in Malaysia a difficult task. Favorably, academician Ibrahim Ahmad Barjunid once reported that there are about 5,000 home schooled students in Malaysia (David, 2004). This figure probably takes into account children under going religious education in informal groups out side the mainstream, children in special education, students following correspondence or distance learning and also those who are studying in learn ing centers who called themselves homeschoolers. Homeschooling is a new form of alternative education in the education system in Malaysia (Norlidah, Mohd, Saedah & Ruslina, 2012). Pri mary school education became compulsory after the introduction of Free and Compulsory Educa tion Act in the year 2003. According the provisions of Section 29A, all parents are to ensure that their

children at the age of 7 years should be enrolled in a primary school. Nonetheless, the Minister of Education is empowered to grant exemptions and some parents have applied for and obtained approval to homeschool but subject to three condi tions: (i) They must use the national curriculum— all other materials are supplementary (ii) They must allow for home visits by Ministry officials (iii) Exemption is for 6 years (David, 2004).

Homeschooling in Malaysia is still at an early stage of development (Norlidah, Mohd, Saedah & Ruslina, 2012). Anyhow, the popularity is growing throughout the years and this form of education is to believe to become the fundamental change of our lifestyle in the postmodern world. Hence, an overview towards homeschooling is significant not only for parents and children who are homeschool ing but also the mainstream education.

2 FACTORS LED TO HOMESCHOOLING

Thirty years ago, homeschooling was governed by a allied group of religious fundamentalists and experimental “unschooler”, an assortment of sub groups is now arise, with different goals that range from nourishing minority identities, to supporting special educational needs, to simply seeking a high

caliber form of education (Aurini & Davies, 2005).

According to the figures in National Household

Education Survey (NHES) of the United States in

year 1996, 1999, and 2003, the three top reasons

for homeschooling in 1996 and 1999 are “to give

a child better education at home,” “religious rea

sons,” and “poor learning environment at school,”

that includes worries about drugs, peer pressure,

and safety. Even the mode changes in 2003, the three topmost reasons are alike: “concern about the environment of the schools,” “dissatisfaction with academic instruction at the schools,” and “to provide religious or moral instruction,” (Isenberg, 2007). Not to forget, there are also other reasons consisting of a notable number such as physical or mental health, special needs and other behavioral problems. Several decades ago, the fundamentalists were disillusioned with public schooling as it progressively has no religious or spiritual basis. It is often the case that “these parents view the public schools as grounded in secular humanist philosophy that does not include strong Christian values and dispute moves beyond issues like school prayer and argues that public schools fail to take religious seriously throughout his curriculum (Romanowski, 2006). They do also believe religious duty required them to teach their own children. Consequently, they saw homeschooling appears to be a method to make certain that their children were acquainted to religious teaching. They then sought to integrate religion, learning, and family life by selecting a structured way of homeschooling that concentrated on basics and advocated the dominance of the family. As a result, there is evidence that religious families, particularly evangelical Protestants are significantly more likely to homeschool and therefore results show that religion plays an important role in the decision to homeschool (Isenberg, 2007). Until year 1994–95, the majority of families still named “religion” as the reason why they chose homeschool (Lines, 2000). In Malaysia context as a multireligious country, it is certain that there are families settled on homeschooling with religious reasons. The ascend of Neo-Liberal ideology, and the manner of public debate on

education is increasingly permeated with suspicion of efficiency, liability, and options are factors prompted the growth of homeschooling. A plurality of families say they are turning to homeschooling because they are dissatisfied with the quality of the public school, the public school instructional program and the public school environment, mainly safety, drugs, and unfavorable peer pressure (Lines, 2000). In addition, Broadhurst (1999) stated reasons for choosing homeschool include dissatisfaction with curriculum content, perceived ineffectiveness of schools, and concerns about adverse socialization as a result of school attendance, bullying, and regimentation of school. Parents also believe that whatever public schools teach, they teach ineptly and wanted to share a respect for their children's intellect and creativity and a belief that children learn best when pedagogy taps into the child's innate desire to learn (Romanowski, 2006). Likewise in Israel, Neuman & Aviram (2003) found general

public dissatisfaction with the education system

and a search for alternatives is the conditions taken

place in the homeschool movement. Similarly, the

primary motivation for homeschooling in China is

parents' response to their dissatisfaction to the cur

rent educational system, especially exam-oriented

system resulted in long-time study at school and

overloaded homework after school, from which

students suffering physically and psychologically

(Zhao & Badzis, 2014). Ebinezar (2008) who con

ducted a qualitative study of five Malaysian fami

lies who homeschooled their children found that

parents choose to homeschool due to the content

of the public school curriculum is not convincing

enough.

Simultaneously, John Holt, an American author,

educator and also a proponent of homeschooling or unschooling believed that the best learning takes place without entrenched curriculum, and the child should go after his own interests with the help and inspiration of parents and other adults (Lines, 2000). He gave support to small sects of parents to educate their children by their own effort and convinced that public school, as bureaucratic organizations, only harm children by subjecting them to the inhumane routines of “technocracy”, unschoolers chose a radically unstructured version of homeschooling that aimed to cultivate children’s personal enjoyment of life (Aurini & Davies, 2005). Apart from that, John Dewey also held that school had been artificially “set apart” from society, and had become “so isolated from the ordinary con ditions and motives of life” that it was “ the one place in the world where it is most burdensome to get experience,” (Lines, 2000). He also perceived that parents are insightful enough to identify what is the greatest for their child, and capable to pro vide what is required.

In view of the fact that public school is no longer the ideal place for learning, parents tend to seek for betterment. According to Romanowski

(2006), families choose to homeschool their chil

dren because they intent to build up their relation

ships with their children. These parents have either

experienced personally or have witnessed chil

dren suffering both emotionally and academically

because of the schools' limitation, and recognized

"that the schools are often reluctant or unable

to serve children with unique learning styles or

academic needs". This initiates them to consider

"breaking the traditional formal model of teaching

will enhanced understanding and learning in their

children". In other respects, Ray (2011) marked a

number of additional reasons parents look for chil

dren's betterment. First, parents want their children

to achieve more academically than they would in

school. Applied to this, parents wish to individual

ize the curriculum and learning environment that meets their child's special needs and talent. Third, they hope to foster relationships of the family among siblings and parents. Fourth, they want to come up with guided and reasoned social interactions with peers and adults rather than having the school to determine. Finally, the safety of their children. Similarly, as the new economy is raising credential requirements and intensifying labor market competitions, parents pursue homeschooling by expect superior skills needed in educational and occupational contests to reduce uncertainties in the future as well as to attain advantage in status competitions (Aurini & Davies, 2005). Thus, mothers with more time and less income or even better educated mothers are more likely to homeschool their children especially the young ones and older children with behavioral and special need (Isenberg, 2007). David (2004) a Malaysian parent who homeschooled

their children chosen homeschool because they wanted to give their children their childhood, he wanted them to have hobbies, space to grow, time to reflect and most importantly a lifestyle that builds values that matter in their children while they are still with them. 3 OUTCOMES OF HOMESCHOOLING 3.1 Impact on schools As homeschooling created a dramatic movement in education field, one of the promising effects of it could be its influence in forming the public education. Particulars from the homeschooling movement offer important perception about both the restoration of the public education system and the rectification of individual schools (Murphy, 2014). Analysts expect possible effect in public school in the range of areas involving the human resources, curriculum, resources, institutional structure, and etc. Three avenues which homeschool could shape public school: (1) withdrawal impacts, (2) lighthouse effects, and (3) competitive effects (Murphy, 2014). Withdrawal impacts result in a reduced allegiance, willingness to support taxes which leads to less financial aid as well as material resources reduction for public schools. Further, lighthouse effects advocate that the collective goodness that causes homeschooling effective will discover its way in public education (Ray, 2013). Lastly, proof exist that competition from homeschooling is reassuring public schools to develop new institutional appearance. The notable development is the creation of new schools that permit homeschooler to complete their education in multiple setting, both at home and in public school (Bauman 2002). Isenberg (2007) also found part-time homeschooling consist a number in the whole.

3.2 Impacts on families

Since promoting family bonding is one of the rea

son parents choose homeschooling, it is also the

impact on family. (1) averts the generational gap

between children and parents; (2) builds good

relationships among siblings; and (3) establishes

a nurturing family atmosphere, for example allow

families to knit a strong bond and lead to success

ful marriages (Murphy, 2014). On the negative

side of the ledger, first, homeschooling requires a dominant commitment of time (Aurini and Davies, 2005) and hard work. Second, homeschooling often requires a lifestyle decision to be made where primarily the mother has to forego her earnings to stay at home (Lubienski, 2003). Third, homeschooling confine the careers of the mothers who stay at home (Aurini and Davies, 2005). Last, frustration arises in homeschooling where it is a difficult task to balance homemaking and home teaching (Murphy, 2014). Despite of that, homeschooling do grant satisfaction when seeing children develop, occupying time with children, deepening sibling relation, as well as enliven full-time motherhood. Additionally, Neuman & Aviram (2008) claimed homeschooling is perceived as a solution to difficulties of three types—the parents' negative experiences as children (both in school and in the family framework), negative family and marital experiences, and the children's negative experiences in school. They also asserted the choice of home schooling affects areas of family life beyond education (e.g. medicine or health, family relationships, work, self-fulfillment), and needs different practical and ideological preparation than those needed

for conventional education.

3.3 Impacts on children

First thing when we come across impacts of home schooling on children we will definitely reflect the academic achievement. According to the National Home Education Research Institute (NHERI) of the United States, which collects nationwide research results, the average homeschooler consistently scores higher on standardized achievement tests compared to average public school students, with median scores from 15–30 percentile points higher than the public school norms (Aasen, 2010). Ray in his subsequent investigations (1997, 2010) reinforced that homeschooled children attained at or above 80th percentile in all subjects on standardized tests. Although, analysts find that homeschool students who sit for the standardized test generally do quite well when compared to conventional peers, there is a caveat in the academic achievement aspects added by Murphy (2014). Three concerns come into view. First, analysts from the homeschooling community firmly reject the concept of the priority of achievement scores in comprehending the impact of homeschooling. It is opined that other more significant goals like instilling values should centered in the investigation of whether homeschool works. Second, homeschooling is a right that surpasses test results and the gate to homeschooling should not open or shut in response to test scores. Lastly, the focus on achievement results placed the burden of evidence for the

validity of homeschooling on homeschooler, rather than those who against the implementation. In all likelihood, the most vastly held misconception of homeschooling is the myth of socialization (Romanowski, 2006). Medlin (2013) indicated that the socialization experiences homeschooled children gain are more than adequate. In fact, indicators like quality of friendships along childhood, rarity of behavior problems during adolescence, acceptance to new experiences in college, civic involvement in adulthood conveyed that the socialization experiences homeschooled children receive may be more advantageous compared to children who attend conventional schools. Moreover, when claims pointed that homeschooling creates children who are unable to think for themselves, one study suggested that socialization in conventional schools may not be as empowering as many suppose that they found 84% of the teachers' message reflected the teachers' effort to quiet the students, keep them from asking questions without recognition, or to direct their straying attention to the task at hand (Medlin, 2013). For that reason, homeschool parents are mindful of the issue of socialization and strongly devoted to positive socialization chances for their children. For instance, homeschooled children are involved in various activities outside the home range from scouting, dance classes, group sports and volunteer work with peers, children of varying age, and adults. Hence, they are not isolated from the outside world. Romanowski (2006) also claimed schools are not the only place children learn basic life skills and because homeschooled students are not peer-grouped in school, they learn to interact and deal with variety of people, making them socially mature and able to adjust to new situations. Another effect of homeschooling on children that gives great concern from the parents will always be the post-homeschooling effects. Broadhurst (1999) stated that children who have been home-educated have successfully applied to and been allowed entrance into prestigious universities, noteworthy that one family from the United States educated their four sons outside the school system, and the three oldest successfully applied to attend Harvard University. Further, homeschooled students also

rate their entire college and university educational

experience more positively and adjusted quite well

to the tertiary education environment compared

to students who were never homeschooled (Dren

ovsky & Cohen, 2012). Set side by side with the positive university enrollment of homeschooled children, public schooling has been criticized for leaving many children behind while instilling a hid den curriculum of sightless obedience to authority. Besides, there appeared to be no prejudice exhib ited towards home-educated teenagers and adults when they attempted to obtain employment and also given allowance to pursue a wide variety of options post-homeschooling (Broadhurst, 1999). They also expressed satisfaction towards their job, family's financial status and life (Murphy, 2014). Therewithal, homeschool graduates have an impact in their communities as they are almost twice as likely to participate in community service and also more likely to belong to community or professional organization (Aasen, 2010; Murphy, 2014). Likewise, a study shows 53% of those in the West believing homeschooling promotes good citi zenship as compared to 37% of those in the East (Lyons & Gordon, 2002).

4 CONCERNS, CHALLENGES AND CRITICS TOWARDS HOMESCHOOLING

Since education is privatized by the family, it is difficult to ensure that proficient instruction is provided and student is well engaged in their learn

ing. Most of the parents attend their bachelor degrees from different fields other than education, though they choose homeschooling out of various reasons, they are still freshmen in this new field (Zhao, Badzis, 2014). Some parents do confessed that they are not confident about their method of teaching and children sometimes displayed a need for better quality tuition due to parents' careless handling of learning content. Meanwhile, con cerns of homeschooling sometimes feature the lack of educational resources available to parents. But homeschooling associations support advice and information, held conferences on legal, philo sophical, and pedagogical controversy, and review educational materials at exhibition booths (Lines, 2000). Aurini and Davies (2005) also reported that given the widespread diffusion of internet, home computers, educational materials, support groups and perhaps most important, the largest cohort of university-educated parents world history.

On top of that another major concern is that homeschooled children lack the opportunities to interact and socialize with their peers. Even though numerous studies revealed that homeschooled children have done remarkably well socially, psychologically, and emotionally, all these studies might

have used the qualitative research method that generalized the result. Schalkwyk & Bouwer (2011) in their qualitative study of the voices of homeschooled learners found that in order for homeschooled children to make parents happy as they deserve of respect for their sacrifices, children managed to display adequate impulse control on a behavioral level. They are lonely and helpless and admitted that they are too close to their mother and recounted effort to gain some distance, however, they still tried very hard to identify with the principles set by their parents but did not fully succeed in doing so and showed strong desire to articulate their own needs and realize their own interest. In short, no matter the discourse, it should be fundamentally questioned whether the developmental needs of any child may be disregarded when whatever form of education or curriculum is considered (Schalkwyk & Bouwer, 2011). In the sense of challenges in homeschooling, parents expressed their loneliness upon embarking on the journey while most of their extended families do not understand and support their ideas (Zhao, Badzis, 2014). David (2004) also stated, Malaysia, a society where we live does not take kindly to people with a different point of view and deeply ingrained with the “normal” way. The biggest challenge is to assuage the suspicion of their friends and the authorities in power. Besides, Zhao & Badzis (2014) also declared the challenges in homeschooling practices in China can be concluded in one key word—balance, in two perspectives. The first balance is the one between homeschooling child and other social responsibility upon parents, a full-time mother and a full-time teacher. The second balance is teaching balance among subjects, where parents from the social science background are not confident to teach pure science subjects. Lubienski (2003) asserted that even though Universal Declaration of Human Rights outlined parents have a “prior” right to decide on the type of education to be provided for their children, but it is not absolute. When a child must take on the repercussion of another individual’s (the parent’s) poor choice, then it is fair to call for external intervention. Indeed, Ray (2013) also criticized home education makes children and youth susceptible to, or victim of, bad home environment, bad parents, child neglect, child abuse, child labor abuse, and problematic family and social issues. Thus, he suggested home-based education must be under considerable state control for several reasons such as (a) balancing state and parental rights over the education and upbringing of children; (b) balancing the rights of the state, parents, and children in children’s upbringing; and (c) properly recognizing that children

cannot get or achieve certain good things under the upbringing of

their parents and that they can only be assured of

getting under the rearing of institutional schools,

especially state-run ones, or nurture of the state.

Yet, proof that some (or even all) students

schooled at home perform better than school

educated students does not indicates that the appli

cation of homeschooling result in improvements

in academic achievement. In fact, we might note

that home schooled students have background ele

ments that differ from those of the typical public

school student. Background elements related to

academic success include higher family income

levels, higher levels of parental educational attain

ment, more stable families with higher rates of

employment (father), and higher rates of a parent

(mother) at home (Lubienski, 2003). With fam

ily quality as such, it is probable that these chil

dren would outperform in school setting too. In

addition, it is important to know that the families

made a choice that reflects a serious interest in

the education of their children and they also have

resources not only of time and means, but also the

initiative, to make that choice. Therefore, it gener

ally gives impact to a student’s academic success

(Lubienski, 2003).

Howell (2013) noted that opponents of home based education do not advocate it because they want the state to be in predominant and ultimate control over the education and upbringing of all children as future adult citizens. They are worry that homeschooling is affecting children to become adults who detain worldviews, think and believe different than they (the opponents) and different from what they want to promote to children and society through state-controlled education. Also, the common school experience is essential for the development and maintenance of the public good and exit from public schooling is an attack on pub lic monopoly (Murphy, 2014). In like manner, Ray (2013) indicated parent-led home-based education harms the collective good; it is bad for the common good or society as a whole because homeschooling is fear based and anti-based (e.g., afraid of differ ent kind of people, anti-state, anti-common sense, and anti-selflessness) as well as cocoons children and parents from those in society who are different from them.

5 CONCLUSION

Homeschooling is an educational application

that is entirely supervised by parents. It is also an option to the mainstream that has risen notably in the past half century not only in the devel oped western countries but also developing coun tries like Malaysia. Although homeschooling in

Ebinezar John A/L Y. Rajamony. (2008). The Malaysian experience in home schooling. Ph.D., Universiti Putra Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur.

Howell, C. (2013). Hostility or Indifference? The margin alization of homeschooling in the education profes sion. Peabody Journal of Education, 88(3), 355-364.

Isenberg, E.J. (2007). What have we learned about home schooling? Peabody Journal of Education, 82(2-3), 387-409.

Lines, P.M. (2000). Homeschooling comes of age. Public Interest, 140, 74.

Lubienski, C. (2003). A critical view of home education. Evaluation Research in Education, 17(2-3), 167-178.

Lyons, L. & Gordon, G. (2002). Homeschooling: Expanding its ranks and reputation. Gallup Poll Tues day Briefing, 1.

Medlin, R.G. (2013). Homeschooling and the question of socialization revisited. Peabody Journal of Educa tion, 88(3), 284-297.

Murphy, J. (2014). The social and educational out

comes of homeschooling. Sociological Spectrum, 34,

244-272. Neuman, A & Aviram, A. (2008). Homeschooling as fundamental change in lifestyle. Evaluation & Research in Education, 17(2-3), 132-143. Norlidah, A., Mohd, N., Saedah, S., Ruslina, I. (2012). A model of homeschooling based on technology in Malaysia. The Malaysia Online Journal of Educational Technology, 1(3). Ray, B.D. (2013). Homeschooling associated with beneficial learner and societal outcomes but educators do not promote it. Peabody Journal of Education, 88(3), 324-341. Romanowski, M.H. (2006). Revisiting the common myths about homeschooling. The Clearing House: A Journal of Education Strategies, Issues and Ideas, 79(3), 125-129. Schalkwyk, L. & Bouwer, C. (2011). Homeschooling: Heeding the voices of learners. Education as Change, 15(2), 179-190. Zhao, J. & Badzis, M. (2014). Parents' perspectives on homeschooling in Chinese mainland. International Proceedings of Economics Development & Research, 78(4), 17-21. This page intentionally left blank

Perception and expectation of parents and students regarding choice

of secondary school type

Maizatul Shabanu Abdul Patah & Abd Razak Zakaria

Department of Educational Foundation and Humanities, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Munira Mohsin

Institute of Teacher Education, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: This study was carried out to investigate the perceptions and expectations of parents and

students regarding choice of secondary school type. It also identified the influencing factors in shaping

the perceptions and expectations of parents and students in choosing the type of secondary school. This

quantitative study involved five different types of schools and used a questionnaire distributed to parents

and students. Quantitative analysis using Pearson correlation was used in this study to identify whether a

significant relationship existed between parents' and students' perceptions and expectations in selecting

the type of secondary schools.

Key words: perception, expectation, choice of school type
the best eduction (Altrichter, Bacher, Beham, Nagy, & Wetzelhütter, 2011). The education of children in secondary school is very important for ensuring and preparing children for a more effective educational environment (Neilson & Mcnally, 2013). The Neilson and McNally study was related to choice of nursing school in Sweden. Their findings showed that while the pupils were in primary school in grade five or six, many of them were interested in choosing nursing as a career. But when they enter secondary school, the majority are more interested in choosing a more prestigious career such as doctor or pharmacist. This is because the influence and encouragement while in secondary school has greater influence on students in determining their direction in achieving their future objectives. This also shows that each individual has the right and freedom to make a choice of school in order to get a perfect and quality education (Goyette, 2008). Parents have high individual perceptions and expectations in making choices of school type (Wang & Eccles, 2013). Parents have and determine the values and high standard in making choices about schools for their children (Butler & Hamnett, 2012). The role of parents is important and in influencing and motivating to enhance achievement and success of their children (Fletcher, Greenwood, & Parkhill, 2010). The

1 INTRODUCTION

In the Malaysian school system, placement of

school students is based on residential address

(Sua, Ngah, & Darit, 2013). After pupils com

plete Standard Six or after they have sat for the

primary school assessment (Ujian Peperiksaan

Sekolah Rendah, UPSR) public examination, these

students will again be placed in schools based on

their home address. Nevertheless, when they are

about to go into Form One, students are allowed to choose the secondary school of their choice to further their studies based on their UPSR results or their interest. Students are also given another chance to choose their secondary school type after obtaining their form three examination (Peperik saan Tingkatan Tiga, PT3) results. If the students have many choices of school, this will give a posi tive impact on the outcomes and accomplishments of each individual (Edmark, Frölich, & Wondrat schek, 2014).

In Malaysia, apart from choosing secondary day schools, students also have the opportunity to join various other types of public schools. Parents who can afford the fees have a varied choice of private schooling for their children. Parents have the right to choose the school for the sake of their children's future (Butler & Hamnett, 2012). This is because education is an important asset in an individual's life whereby an individual has the right to obtain perceptions and expectations of parents in mak ing selection of education for their children are also influenced by the demographic characters or background of the parents themselves (Butler & Hamnett, 2012; Edmark et al., 2014; Fletcher

et al., 2010).

The study findings show that perceptions and expectations of parents are the main influencers in choice of school type (Wang & Degol, 2013). Parents are inclined to choose schools renowned for excellent academic performance (Popa, 2012; Warren, 2010; Wölfel & Heineck, 2012). Accord ing to the study by Sua, Ngah, and Darit (2013), the factors influencing Malay parents to send their children to National Type Chinese Schools are high expectations from the parents. Never theless, this study showed that Malay students could not fulfil the expectations of their parents because they faced problems mastering Chinese language.

Students also possess perspectives and expec tations in selecting their school type. Having choices of school type is important because it gives an impact on the overall life of the stu dents in the future (Neilson & Mcnally, 2013). Those students who choose schools they like will raise their commitment and engagement in school (Edmark et al., 2014). Subsequently, this can lessen problems in the teaching and learning process in schools. If students are given oppor

tunity to choose the school or field they desire, the outcomes are better and of greater quality (Green, Navarro-Paniagua, Ximénez-de- Embún, & Mancebón, 2014). Today, students like to search for unique schools that can give them new and interesting experiences in their learn ing process. They choose the school because they have interests, desires, motivations and aspira tions of excellence in their chosen fields. They desire schools that can prepare them to become students of quality and provide skills for their future (Ravindran & Kalpana, 2012).

What is clear is that parents and students have their own perceptions and expectations in select ing the school type. Past studies actually give the bigger scope to parents and students in choosing where it involves higher institutions (Wiswall, Stiefel, Schwartz, & Boccardo, 2014). This study will only focus on Form Four secondary school students; it will also be carried out in several dif ferent types of secondary schools. The obvious gap is in the lack of studies done simultaneously on parents and students themselves in various types of schools. Hence this study takes into con sideration whether a relationship exists between

perceptions and expectations of parents and stu

dents in choice of the type of secondary school

desired. 2 PERCEPTIONS OF PARENTS AND STUDENTS 2.1 Cultural values Socialization and cultural norms of an individual's life very much influence and shape their values, culture, beliefs and choices (Babak Alavi & McCormick, 2004). Family culture will influence children's academic achievement (Fucci & Cavaletto, 2012; Gibbons, 2009; Goyette, 2008; Wang & Degol, 2013). The outstanding cognitive development of children is shaped by a stimulating home environment (Fucci & Cavaletto, 2012; Gibbons, 2009). Parents and children will design strategies to ensure excellent academic achievement of children (Gibbons, 2009; Fletcher et al., 2010) and prepare children with various skills (Fucci & Cavaletto, 2012). A family environment also influences children in choosing their career (Wang & Degol, 2013). Nevertheless, there are also parents who want their children to get a better education than they had and who place importance on moral values (Walker & Clark, 2010). In creating quality individuals, there are parents and students who select religious high schools because of their family culture whereby they begin to appreciate the importance of loyalty to their religion (affective domain) (Sahlan, 2014) and place importance on moral values such as discipline and mutual respect (Butler & Hamnett, 2012). Whatever the choice, the practice of cultural values must be seen from the viewpoint of culture of individualism or collectivism (Babak Alavi & McCormick, 2004). In Asia the collectivist culture is still practised as compared to the West (Siah, Ong, Tan & Sim, 2014; Wang & Degol, 2013). Nevertheless, some studies show that the family culture does not influence perceptions of parents and students in school selection (Sánchez-Medina, Macías-Gómez-Stern, & Martínez-Lozano, 2014); these studies found that school is the institution where the transition process occurs between varied family culture of students. 2.2 School climate Over the paste two decades, studies have been done on the importance of conducive school climate in excellent achievement of students. School climate can be categorized into three dimensions: physical and school management, socioeducational process encompassing education including school quality and norms and values, interpersonal relationship, and social interaction as well as dimensions of school structure such as school size and curriculum (Brault, Janosz, & Archambault, 2014).

School climate is an important element in select ing a school and field of study because it has a significant relationship with student achievement (Brault et al., 2014; Meristo & Eisenschmidt, 2014; Pecháčková, Navrátilová, & Slavíková, 2014) and impacts on social behavior (Bear, Gaskins, Blank, & Chen, 2011; Mitchell & Bradshaw, 2013). Parental and student perceptions and expecta tions are high for a school climate that is moti vating and positive (Atkins, Johnson, Force, & Petrie, 2015). Factors such as parents, teachers and peers are significant in shaping a good school climate (Atkins et al., 2015; Hardré & Sullivan, 2008; Wang & Eccles, 2013) and shaping effective interpersonal relationships (Atkins et al., 2015; Mitchell & Bradshaw, 2013). Involvement from all educational community members in carrying out their respective responsibilities will help schools focus on student outcomes. This can reduce the discipline problems and social ills among students (Hardré & Sullivan, 2008). Students also will feel safe and secure in school and show positive devel opment from the cognitive, psychomotor and affective aspects (Meristo & Eisenschmidt, 2014; Pecháčková et al., 2014).

2.3 Student interest

Since two dcades ago, studies have been done on the interest and efficacy related to choice in the field of education. Student interest in a field influences their choice of education and career (Leung et al., 2014; Paixão, Silva, & Leitão, 2010). The students' personal interest impacts on and motivates their academic achievement (Chung, Lin, Huang, & Yang, 2013; Patall et al., 2014) and enhances their skills (Vaughn & Witko, 2013). Students' interest has a significant relation ship with their competency (Leung et al., 2014; Mendolia & Walker, 2014; Navas, 2014; Yang & Chang, 2009).

More interesting,the study by Lent, Paixao, Silva, and Leitao (2010) and Leung, Zhou, Ho, Li, and Tracey (2014) using the Holland RIASEC dents together with social support (parental per ceptions and expectations) have a significant relationship with choice of field of study and career. This finding is the same as that in the study by Mendolia and Walker (2014) using matching method but the difference is that change may occur process of raising achievement in personal educa tion of students.

Nevertheless, the study by Lent, Sheu, Singley,

Schmidt, and Gloster (2008) in the United States

of America on 209 university students taking

engineering found that competency, self capability and output expectations are more significant than individual interest in the choice of education field. Students' perceptions of their capability and expectations of prestigious career were considered when making career choices. 3 EXPECTATIONS OF PARENTS AND STUDENTS 3.1 Intellectual achievements The choice of school made by students and teachers is based on high expectations of the outcomes and intellectual achievement of students (Byrne et al., 2012; Delaney et al., 2011; Haimerl & Fries, 2010). Parents and students have high expectations about the schools that show outstanding achievement (Vryonides & Gouvias, 2012). The expectations in perceptions of excellent intellectual achievement are also related to the culture of and experiences brought by the family (Chen, 2015; Giirses, Kuzey, Mindivan, Dogar, Giines, & Youlcu, 2011; Vryonides & Gouvias, 2012). Students shape their expectations based on the environment and culture absorbed by their parents and families, in other words implicit expectations (Glick & White, 2004). Expectations in intellectual achievement are also significantly related to the attitude and personality of the individual who is making the selection of education determined by the individual (Delaney et al., 2011; Zou, Anderson, & Tsey, 2013). This is because the outcome is relevant with the expectations determined by the individual (Byrne et al., 2012).This is the impact from individuals who can identify the appropriate field of study suited to their intellectual ability (Walkey, McClure, Meyer, & Weir (2013). 3.2 Career aspirations According to Gottfredson (1981), the process of choosing a career basically starts with the fantasy of children aged 3-5 years and their career interests are nurtured when they are aged 11-15 years. An individual's career aspirations are actually influenced by various factors, among them family expectations, school environment and social cultural system (Hou & Leung, 2011). High expectations in academic achievement and exposure to career choice actually is a measure of the extent of parental involvement in children's progress (Attanasio & Kaufmann, 2014; Glick & White, 2004); children too have high expectations in designing their future and career choices (Mahamood et al., 2012). Studies have found that their choice of field of study is more toward examination result (Giirses

et al., 2011). Nevertheless, the study by Delaney et al. (2011) found that student personality traits, parents' attitudes and choice of subject or choice of school are the mediators in shaping the career expectancy and future likelihood of getting good monetary resources. Hence the schoice of school and suitable field of study has a positive impact on students (Creed, Conlon, & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2007; Schmitt-Wilson & Welsh, 2012). Nevertheless, according to Creed et al. (2007) there are obstacles in determining the parental and student expectations when these groups have prob lems arising from ethnicity, finances, attitude and lack of information. This will affect their choice of school, field of study and later, their career choices.

3.3 Personal development

Bloom (1956) classified educational activities into three domains, namely the cognitive (intellectual), affective (attitude, feelings, and emotions) and psychomotor (skills). Hence, personal develop ment of students must take into consideration the context of increase in social skills and skill maturity. Expectations of parents and students in choosing schools arise because students need

schools to fulfil the orientation goals and motivat
ing school climate (Atkins et al., 2015; Bear et al.,
2011; Ravindran & Kalpana, 2012). The aim of
orientation can be to enhance the competency and
skill level, to gain self-esteem, or to feel pleasure
and enjoyment. A safe school is a school that has
student social support, psychological, transitional
and emotional support. It involved consistency in
skills of social interaction and cognitive, sosial and
psychomotor development. In Malaysia, studies
show that one of the factors for current students
to select their school is because of the variety of
co-curriculum offered by a certain school (Ibra
him, Osman, & Bachok, 2014). Students have high
expectations in the cocurriculum performance of
a school.

On the other hand, students who continue
working after leaving school or who stop school
early (work-bound students) have low self expecta
tions and academic achievement (Creed, Patton, &
Hood, 2010). This results in low personal skills
where they lack self confidence and often feel they
have poor personal functioning.

4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this study, the researcher will use the technique

of quantitative research. This research involves the survey methodology using questionnaire entirely

Altrichter, H., Bacher, J., Beham, M., Nagy, G., & Wet zelhütter, D. (2011). The effects of a free school choice policy on parents' school choice behaviour. Studies in Educational Evaluation, 37(4), 230–238. doi:10.1016/j.stueduc.2011.12.003.

Atkins, M.R., Johnson, D.M., Force, E.C., & Petrie, T. a. (2015). Peers, parents, and coaches, oh my! The rela tion of the motivational climate to boys' intention to continue in sport. Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 16, 170–180. doi:10.1016/j.psychsport.2014.10.008.

Attanasio, O.P., & Kaufmann, K.M. (2014). Educa tion choices and returns to schooling: Mothers' and youths' subjective expectations and their role by gen der. Journal of Development Economics, 109, 203–216. doi:10.1016/j.jdeveco.2014.04.003.

Babak Alavi, S., & McCormick, J. (2004). A cross cultural analysis of the effectiveness of the Learning Organization model in school contexts. International Journal of Educational Management, 18(7), 408–416. doi:10.1108/09513540410563112.

Bear, G.G., Gaskins, C., Blank, J., & Chen, F.F. (2011). Delaware School Climate Survey-Student: Its factor structure, concurrent validity, and reliability. Journal

of School Psychology, 49(2), 157–74. doi:10.1016/j.
jsp.2011.01.001.
Brault, M.-C., Janosz, M., & Archambault, I. (2014).
Effects of school composition and school climate on
teacher expectations of students: A multilevel analy
sis. Teaching and Teacher Education, 44, 148–159.
doi:10.1016/j.tate.2014.08.008.
Butler, T., & Hamnett, C. (2012). Praying for suc
cess? Faith schools and school choice in East Lon
don. Geoforum, 43(6), 1242–1253. doi:10.1016/j.
geoforum.2012.03.010.
Byrne, M., Flood, B., Hassall, T., Joyce, J., Arquero
Montaño, J.L., González González, J.M., & Tourna
Germanou, E. (2012). Motivations, expectations and
preparedness for higher education: A study of account
ing students in Ireland, the UK, Spain and Greece.
Accounting Forum, 36(2), 134–144. doi:10.1016/j.
accfor.2011.12.001.
Chen, W.-W. (2015). The relations between perceived
parenting styles and academic achievement in Hong
Kong: The mediating role of students' goal orienta
tions. Learning and Individual Differences, 37, 48–54.
doi:10.1016/j.lindif.2014.11.021.
Chung, Y.-C., Lin, C.-Y., Huang, C.-N., & Yang, J.-H.
(2013). Perceptions on gender awareness and con

siderations in career choices of medical students in a medical school in Taiwan. The Kaohsiung Journal of Medical Sciences, 29(11), 629–35. doi:10.1016/j.kjms.2013.01.014.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2003). Research Methods in Education (5th ed.). New York, NY: Taylor & Francis Group.

Creed, P. a., Conlon, E.G., & Zimmer-Gembeck, M.J. (2007). Career barriers and reading ability as correlates of career aspirations and expectations of parents and their children. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 70(2), 242–258. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2006.11.001.

Creed, P.A., Patton, W., & Hood, M. (2010). Career development and personal functioning differences between work-bound and non-work bound students. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 76(1), 37–41. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2009.06.004. Delaney, L., Harmon, C., & Redmond, C. (2011). Parental education, grade attainment and earnings expectations among university students. Economics of Education Review, 30(6), 1136–1152. doi:10.1016/j.econedurev.2011.04.004. Edmark, K., Frölich, M., & Wondratschek, V. (2014). Sweden's school choice reform and equality of opportunity. Labour Economics , 30, 129–142. doi:10.1016/j. labeco.2014.04.008. Fletcher, J., Greenwood, J., & Parkhill, F. (2010). Are schools meeting their clients' expectations? Parents voice their perceptions about children learning to read in schools today. Teaching and Teacher Education, 26(3), 438–446. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2009.05.011. Fraenkel, J.R., Wallen, N.E., & Hyun, H.H. (2012). How to design and evaluate research in Education. Singapore: McGraw-Hill. Fucci, S., & Cavaletto, G.M. (2012). Educational Choices of the Elites. Autonomy and Responsibility of Italian and Foreign Children Between Family and School. Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences, 46, 4990- 4994. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.06.373. Gibbons, S. (2009). CEE

DP 101 Access, Choice And Participation In Higher Education Anna Vignoles, (January). Giirses, A., Kuzey, B., Mindivan, F., Dogar, Ç., Giine§, K., & Yolcu, H.H. (2011). Determining the relationship between students' choice of profession and mission and vision of their high school. Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences, 15, 2595–2598. doi:10.1016/j. sbspro.2011.04.152. Glick, J.E., & White, M.J. (2004). Post-secondary school participation of immigrant and native youth: The role of familial resources and educational expectations. Social Science Research, 33(2), 272–299. doi:10.1016/j. ssresearch.2003.06.001. Goyette, K. a. (2008). College for some to college for all: Social background, occupational expectations, and educational expectations over time. Social Science Research, 37(2), 461–484. doi:10.1016/j. ssresearch.2008.02.002. Green, C.P., Navarro-Paniagua, M., Ximénez-de-Embún, D.P., & Mancebón, M.-J. (2014). School choice and student wellbeing. Economics of Education Review, 38, 139–150. doi:10.1016/j.econedurev.2013.11.007. Haimerl, C., & Fries, S. (2010). Self-fulfilling prophecies in media-based learning: Content relevance moderates quality expectation effects on academic achievement. Learning and Instruction, 20(6), 498–510. doi:10.1016/j.learninstruc.2009.07.002. Hardré, P.L., & Sullivan, D.W. (2008). Student differences and environment perceptions: How they contribute to student motivation in rural high schools. Learning and Individual Differences, 18(4), 471–485. doi:10.1016/j. lindif.2007.11.010. Hou, Z., & Leung, S.A. (2011). Vocational aspirations of Chinese high school students and their parents' expectations. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 79(2), 349–360. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2011.05.008. Ibrahim, N.M., Osman, M.M., & Bachok, S. (2014). Public School Development and Planning: Parents'

Criteria of Selecting Public School in Gombak Dis

trict. Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences, 153,

274–285. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.10.061.

Lent, R.W., Paixão, M.P., Silva, J.T. Da, & Leitão, L.M.

(2010). Predicting Occupational Interests and Choice

Aspirations in Portuguese High School Students: A

Test of Social Cognitive Career Theory. Journal of

Vocational Behavior, 76(2), 244–251. doi:10.1016/j.

jvb.2009.10.001.

Lent, R.W., Sheu, H.-B., Singley, D., Schmidt, J. a., Schmidt, L.C., & Gloster, C.S. (2008). Longitudinal relations of self-efficacy to outcome expectations, interests, and major choice goals in engineering stu dents. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 73(2), 328–335. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2008.07.005.

Leung, S.A., Zhou, S., Ho, E.Y.-F., Li, X., Ho, K.P., & Tracey, T.J.G. (2014). The use of interest and compe tence scores to predict educational choices of Chinese high school students. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 84(3), 385–394. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2014.02.010.

Mahamood, S.F., Tapsir, R., Saat, A., Ahmad, S., Wahab, K.A., Boon, M.H.A., & Rahman, K.A. (2012). Paren tal Attitude and Involvement in Children's Education: A Study on the Parental Aspiration Among Form Four Students in Selangor. Procedia—Social and Behav ioral Sciences, 42(July 2010), 117–130. doi:10.1016/j. sbspro.2012.04.173.

Mendolia, S., & Walker, I. (2014). The Effect of Personal ity Traits on Subject Choice and Performance in High School: Evidence from an English Cohort. Econom ics of Education Review, 43, 47–65. doi:10.1016/j. econedurev.2014.09.004.

Meristo, M., & Eisenschmidt, E. (2014). Novice teachers'

perceptions of school climate and self-efficacy. Inter
national Journal of Educational Research, 67, 1–10.
doi:10.1016/j.ijer.2014.04.003.
Mitchell, M.M., & Bradshaw, C.P. (2013). Examining
classroom influences on student perceptions of school
climate: The role of classroom management and exclu
sionary discipline strategies. Journal of School Psychol
ogy, 51(5), 599–610. doi:10.1016/j.jsp.2013.05.005.
Navas, M.D.C.O. (2014). The Improvement of Employ
ability Among Higher Education Students: The use
of Emotional Intelligence as an Educational Strategy.
Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences, 139, 380–
386. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.08.021.
Neilson, G.R., & Mcnally, J. (2013). Nurse Education
Today: The negative influence of significant others on
high academic achieving school pupils ’ choice of nurs
ing as a career. YNEDT, 33(3), 205–209. doi:10.1016/j.
nedt.2012.02.019.
Pecháčková, Y., Navrátilová, Z., & Slavíková, P.
(2014). Social Climate in the Environment of Pri
mary Schools. Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sci
ences, 112(ICEEPSY 2013), 719–724. doi:10.1016/j.
sbspro.2014.01.1222.
Popa, N.L. (2012). Perceptions of School Climate and
Parental Behaviors Among Romanian Students From

Migrant Families. Procedia—Social and Behavio

ral Sciences, 47(2007), 1368–1373. doi:10.1016/j.

sbspro.2012.06.828.

Ravindran, S.D., & Kalpana, M. (2012). Student's

Expectation, Perception and Satisfaction towards the

Management Educational Institutions. Procedia— Economics and Finance, 2(Af), 401–410. doi:10.1016/S2212-5671(12)00102-5. Sahlan, A. (2014). Enhancement of Culture in Education: Research on Indonesian High School. Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences, 143 (1), 117–121. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.07.371. Sánchez-Medina, J. a., Macías-Gómez-Stern, B., & Martínez-Lozano, V. (2014). The value positions of school staff and parents in immigrant families and their implications for children's transitions between home and school in multicultural schools in Andalusia. Learning, Culture and Social Interaction, 3(3), 217–223. doi:10.1016/j.lcsi.2014.02.013. Siah, P.C., Ong, S.B.C., Tan, S.M., & Sim, C.P. (2014). Perception on Chinese values: A comparison of Chinese secondary students studying at national secondary schools and Chinese independent schools in Malaysia. The Social Science Journal. doi:10.1016/j. soscij.2014.08.006. Sua, T.Y., Ngah, K., & Darit, S.M. (2013). Parental choice of schooling, learning processes and inter ethnic friendship patterns: The case of Malay students in Chinese primary schools in Malaysia. International Journal of Educational Development, 33(4), 325–336. doi:10.1016/j.ijedudev.2012.09.002. Vaughn, M.G., & Witko, C. (2013). Does the amount of school choice matter for student engagement? The Social Science Journal, 50(1), 23–33. doi:10.1016/j. soscij.2012.07.004. Vryonides, M., & Gouvias, D. (2012). Parents' aspirations for their children's educational and occupational prospects in Greece: The role of social class. International Journal of Educational Research, 53, 319–329. doi:10.1016/j.ijer.2012.04.005. Walker, M., & Clark, G. (2010). Parental choice and the rural primary school: Lifestyle, locality and loyalty. Journal of Rural Studies, 26(3), 241–249. doi:10.1016/j. jrurstud.2009.12.002. Walkey, F.H., McClure, J., Meyer, L.H., & Weir, K.F. (2013). Low expectations equal no expectations: Aspirations, motivation, and achievement in secondary school. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 38(4), 306–315. doi:10.1016/j.cedpsych.2013.06.004. Wang, M.T., &

Degol, J. (2013). Motivational Pathways to STEM Career Choices: Using Expectancy-Value Perspective to Understand Individual and Gender Differences in STEM Fields. Developmental Review : DR, 33(4), 304–340. doi:10.1016/j.dr.2013.08.001. Wang, M.-T., & Eccles, J.S. (2013). School context, achievement motivation, and academic engagement: A longitudinal study of school engagement using a multidimensional perspective. Learning and Instruction, 28, 12–23. doi:10.1016/j.learninstruc.2013.04.002. Warren, J.R. (2010). Cobb, C.D. (2010). Review of “Graduation Rates for Choice and Public School Students in Milwaukee, 2003–2008.” Boulder and Tempe: Education and the Public Interest Center & Education Policy Research Unit. Retrieved from http://epicpolicy.org/thi. Wiswall, M., Stiefel, L., Schwartz, A.E., & Boccardo, J. (2014). Does attending a STEM high school improve student performance? Evidence from New York City. Economics of Education Review, 40, 93–105. doi:10.1016/j.econedurev.2014.01.005.

Wölfel, O., & Heineck, G. (2012). Parental risk attitudes

and children’s secondary school track choice. Econom

ics of Education Review, 31(5), 727–743. doi:10.1016/j.

econedurev.2012.05.004.

Yang, F.-Y., & Chang, C.-C. (2009). Examining High

ronments, Personal Beliefs and Concept Learning in Web-based Contexts. Computers & Education, 52(4), 848–857. doi:10.1016/j.compedu.2008.12.008. Zou, W., Anderson, N., & Tsey, K. (2013). Middleclass Chinese Parental Expectations for their Children’s Education. Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences, 106, 1840–1849. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.12.209PE. This page intentionally left blank

Religious practices in delinquents

Maisarah A. Malik, Abd Razak Zakaria & Abdul Muhsein Sulaiman

Department of Educational Foundations and Humanities, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya,

Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: Too few studies have assessed the relationship between an individual and religiousity,

which captured depth understanding of misbehavior, delinquency. This article investigates the role of

religion in behavior before partaking in delinquency and how it is able to influence the decisions made in

life. Moreover, this study focuses on the individual's religious practices from childhood, teen, and adult.

Analysis is based on qualitative data set collected from 4 delinquents who are already convicted and still

serving their sentences in the Henry Gurney School (juvenile school). This research uses focus group

interviews and personal notes which are combined and arranged into N-vivo software. The research sug

gests that being close to parents benefit their religious practices and their childhood is more on religious

practices compared to teen lives.

Keywords: religious; delinquents; practices; misbehavior
and protective factors are relevant for screening and intervention. School programs such as "The Good Behavior Game" and "The Fast Track Program" (Herrenkohl et al., 2001) and "Communities That Care" by Hawkins and Catalano, 1992 are created for adolescents' surrounding. As the child grows older and becomes integrated into society, potential of new risk factors related to peer influences, the school, and the community begin to play a larger role. Although focusing on risk factors is important, examining protective factors that reduce the risk of delinquency is as important for identifying interventions that are likely to work. The promising intervention begins with school (Herrenkohl, Hawkins, Chung, Hill, & BattinPearson, 2001) recommend a few such as conflict resolution and violence prevention curriculums, bullying prevention, after school recreation programs, mentoring programs, and school organization programs. Other interventions which focus on the surroundings are Parent Management Training (Patterson, Reid, & Dishion, 1992) and Functional Family Therapy (Sexton and Alexander, 2000); both interventions focus on the family while peer interventions (Coie and Miller-Johnson, 2001). Even though delinquency issues happened in each part of the world, still Malaysia is a unique country, which is multi-racial as it has the Malays (53.3%), who are Muslims and form the majority in the

country; while the other two main racial groups are the Chinese (26.0%), who generally follow Buddhism and Confucianism while the Indians (7.7%), who mostly follow Hinduism; clearly these races blended their cultures structures to

1 INTRODUCTION

Delinquency refers to unlawful acts which are com

mitted by youth under 18 from all backgrounds and

used as a common term to identify the scope of crim

inal behavior involving all types of status offenses

(Felson, 2003; Warr, 2002) while delinquent is the

youth committing the crime (Shoemaker, 2010).

These acts are identified such as alcohol drinking

and cigarette smoking, drug use, risky driving, early

sexual activity also known as youth substances (U.S

Congress, Office of Technology Assessment, Ado

lescent Health, 1991; Ferguson & Meehan, 2011),

running away from home, truancy (Aras, Gunay,

Ozan & Orcin, 2007), robbery, assault, rape, and

homicide (U.S Department of Justice, 1998).

Delinquency appears to be occurring because of

several factors and loads of research concerning on

these delinquency acts, a few aspects can be viewed

as factors especially those which directly involved

in adolescent development such as family (Amato

& Jacob, 2008) who has direct instruction on ado

lescent behaviors in the three main areas which

are home life, a child's community, surroundings or neighborhood, and parents. Adding in school effectiveness (Smith & McVie, 2003; McAra, 2004) on certain dimension such as teachers attachment; student against student, student against teacher, teacher against teacher or teacher against student (Fuchs, 2009), commitment to school, school vio lence (Debarbieux, 2006) and peer pressure (Smith, 2004).

By highlighting factors of delinquency; Profes sionals have learnt a great deal about which risk form Malaysia's uniqueness and diversity heritage (Ishak, 2009; Jamil & Abd Razak, 2010). Thus, religion is one of the important aspects in Malay sia as and can be said as the focal point is Malay sian context, therefore, studies related to religion bring an advantage to a country like Malaysia or other similar countries. Moreover, there aren't any religions that promote misbehavior, so it is relevant to say that being religious helps an individual to be a righteous person.

By reflecting on the purposes, religion can be used as a tool to help prevent high-risk urban youths from delinquent behavior and give them a greater sense of empathy toward others (John

son, Corbett & Harris; 2001). Thus, additional investigation on religion factors are needed to better understand factors behind delinquency acts. However, this research is mainly focused on a few selected felonious who are already arrested or behind bars. Researchers need to examine their history of lives, how do they got involved in crime and does religion plays a role in their decision.

2 RESEARCH FOCUS

Delinquency is definitely a common issue involv ing the youth and it is happening around the world and relatively a lot studies have specifically exam ined the affect of economy to these delinquencies misbehavior. Socio-economy statuses either in urban or rural areas have the influences on indi viduals to participate in crime (Fergusson, Swain Campbell, Horwood, 2004, Wilkinson, & Pickett, 2009, Tesser, 1995). This can easily be understood as the world requires money to live and even be the setter to one's status among the citizen. Some felonious plainly act in crime because they needed to, they steal because money is required. (Siegel, 2005: Horstkotter, Beghman, Corine, Krumeich & Guido, 2005) while some because they are jeal

ous or to fulfill their needs. However, Machin & Meghir (2004) stress that not only insecure economy and low wages but also the environment of the neighborhood aids the act of delinquencies. Tonnes of emergent data derived from a qualitative study indicates that the delinquents are acting accordingly to their environment, neighborhood; it just happened to them (Horstkotter et al. 2005). Earlier studies (Sampson, Jeffery & Thomas, 2002; Hoffman 2002) concludes that disorder and less facilities neighborhood is likely to be recognized as crime area due to insufficient facilities and less connection between the neighbor; disorganized area affect the social activities among the neighborhood. Nevertheless, continued study also showed that disorganized areas not only affecting the economy but also the social aspect called "Collective efficacy"; (Sampson, 2006) residents who concern and engage in each other lives. Destroying collective efficacy will make a huge turn to delinquency. Another related factor with the neighborhood is the environmental factors like parents and peers (Caspi, Brent & Rebecca, 2005). Some studies during early 20th, suggest environmental interferences such as parenting and peer factors do shape an individual to become a delinquent (Garnier, Stein, 2002 & Maxwell, 2002). In some longitudinal studies (Farrington, 2002, Loeber, 2008, Farrington, Coid, & Murray, 2009) highlight on family (parenting, reinforcement or motivation) becoming predictors in a child's conviction. These surveys show that if a family member is charged with a crime or arrested due to misbehavior, the potential of a younger member to commit crime later in their behavior development is high. In relation to Mc Ara & Mc Vie (2005) who emphasizes on the term called "usual suspect", once a

person is seen as a trouble maker, the label will stay along with them even though the suspect tries to be better. This results in no effort being made to change to be better. Other studies show that peers also play vital roles in misbehavior particularly throughout their adolescence years as peers share most of their amount of time together compared to family (Regnerus, 2002). On top of that, peer promotes various types of crime based on their age instances; addicting to illegal substances may happen in middle school and while bullying by not befriending with someone has happened in primary. There are types of delinquents, which requires them to be in group with the people they know such as vandalism and bullying; definitely involving peers (Wright, Nichols, Graber, Brooks-Gun, & Botvin, 2004). Nonetheless, Smith (2004) indicates a link between being a prey or victim regularly changing them to be the offender, part of it because they spent too much time with their friends in school. Apart from family and school, Smith (2006) mentioned that school affects the later development of misbehavior pattern and criminal acts. There is a wide agreement that school is part of delinquency and crime but with different aspects; for example, school climate, teachers' perception, and school economic support. Some researches center the school climate, which permits delinquency and range of crimes; such as truancy, bullying, drugs, and vandalism (Carra, 2009, Jenkin, 1997, & Karworski, 2008). While other researches investigate on the community within the school such as peers and teachers (Smith, 2006, & Siege, 2005). Even though both are looking at the same aspect, they

both end up with slightly different results. Smith

(2006) mentions that an attachment between stu

dents and teachers are related to lower the level of

misbehavior whereas Siege (2005) indicates that

usually people starts to label an individual after

involve in crime such as “pervert”, “thief”, or

even “rapist” even after the person was out from

prison. The label starts to follow and makes it hard

for the person to change into a better person and

sometimes use it as an excuse to commit crime in future.

For these reasons, the meaning of delinquency has been discussed in almost all factors such as economy status, neighborhood, and environmental aspects; family and peers, a few criteria of school; the climate, the relationship between teachers and the economic status. However, what remains to be explored is a study in relation to religion and focus Malaysia's delinquency issues. Despite an increas ing interest studies and cases on delinquencies in Malaysia, it is surprising to know that only a few research on the matter have been done especially in the perspective of religion; Islam. Very few studies have focused on the impact of religion and delin quency acts among Malaysian descriptively and conceptually.

Hence, this study positively gives new data or variables, which can help to minimize delinquency issues in future. Regnerus (2003) reveals that help ful influence of religion in youth help them to promote positive prosocial outcomes. Most of the studies focus on delinquents' outside factors and less on the spiritual insight. This research will focus on the delinquents' lives' experiences as well as reli

gion in their lives, their family, friends, and school practices. The main focus is to understand how an individual decides to be a delinquent and how much religion plays a role in their behavior during their childhood, teenager, and adult eras.

3 RESEARCH PURPOSES

This research aims to understand an individual's way of living during childhood before participating in delinquency and the beginning of religious practices in their lives and the person who influenced them the most in religion aspects.

4 OBJECTIVES

The objectives of the research are:

1. to know how Islam is taught throughout their lives, childhood and teen.

2. to see in which phase of lives the religious practices are well taught into their lives. 5 METHODOLOGY Research is a process consisting of a few systematic steps to understand various aspects of the world (Hancock, Ockleford & Windridge, 2009; Creswell, 2007; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007; Merriam, 1998). This particular research is to comprehend how the religion affects an individual's decision in misbehavior. The whole process is specified to remark these research questions: (i) How religion practices are taught in their lives in each era of lives; a) Childhood and b) Teenager, (ii) In which phase, the religious practices are well taught to these delinquents. This chapter is conducted in a school which is controlled under The Prison Department of Malaysia and using qualitative approaches as the main method. Both interview and personal notes are used in collecting the data. Group Interview consisting of four participants for about two hours are listened to thoroughly by three researchers assisted by an expert of the matter. The expert is used to ensure the trustworthiness in collecting data as no visual recording is allowed. While personal notes

consisting of a few questions related to the study are distributed to each delinquent and they are asked to write down the answers. Researchers seriously take ethics as an important matter, thus, all personal notes are confidential and participants are reminded not to put any initial or nicknames on their paper. The interviews are transcribed and personal notes are typed out and later arrange in the Nvivo 9 software to accommodate and to combine the data and also to see the patterns through the systems. The strategy taken to increase data trustworthiness and also ethical issue faced by the researcher. 6 FINDINGS Producing a perfect child has been a dream to all married couples and sometimes to those who are not married too. We are living based on several main essential aspects such as financial, physically healthy condition, mental stability, and even religiousity. Religion is seen as a guideline to ensure an individual to stay righteous so that there would not be any negative influence or incidents to happen. This study indicates parent as the main agent and in theory at the beginning of childhood especially in educating religious practices. All participants agreed that parents are the main roles that always applying religious advices in their lives; however, three of them specifically mentioned “mom” who influenced them the most.

“My mom. She always reminds me to follow my dad

to the mosque and evensending me personally to

class teaching me to read Al-Quran (Muslim bible)”

“I think my mom. She always asks me to join her

each time she wants to pray. I remembered she

called me and teach me wudhu.”

“Both of my parents always teach me about reli

gious practices but my dad was not always around,

he is a lorry driver. So, my mom will be the one

who always send me to religious class and even

teach me how to recite Al-Quran.”

Referring to the above, all participants agreed

that their childhood is more observed and

reminded compared to the teenagers and adults. Nevertheless, half of the participants indicate that their childhood was more on obeying and practicing the practices. Additionally, being a child at that time requires them to follow instructions and caning was part of the parents teaching methods.

“I think my childhood is strict because my mom will cane me if I did not perform my prayer (shalat)”

“My parents are strict but I know it is for my own good. Once, I lied to them, I went to play bicycle than attending my religious class (reciting Al Quran), my sister told my dad and my dad cane my legs. It hurts a lot but since that day, I never miss my class.”

Besides that, participants also mentioned that in their teenager years there was more freedom than childhood due to their proximity and distances with their parents. All of them stressed how their teen lives are far different from their childhood. All of them agreed that religious practices start to lose it grips.

“I feel more freedom during my teen life compared to childhood. None of my friends ever advice me to pray or anything.”

“Teen. When I was a child, I have to always report

myself; what am I doing, where am I going but

when I started to work, I don’t have to do them

anymore. Sometimes when I called my mom or

visit them, she did advice me not to forget shalat

but when I am on my own, I don’t do it”

“Erm my parents passed away when I was 10, then

I lived with my grandfather. My grandfather is not

strict like my dad. So my teen life is more freedom

and no one really care about my religious practices.”

“Teen. I quit school when I was 14. I started to

work at a cyber cafe in the city. My parents are in

the village. Erm my friend never remind me to pray

and I did not to.” 7 DISCUSSION In growing up, there are several phases of life; childhood, teen, and adulthood. These three phases definitely influence and trigger an individual maturity in making choices either independent or dependent decision. On top of that, religion is also an element of knowledge, which needs to be instilled in individuals and these three phases of lives do differ the degree of applying religious practices. Most childhoods are dominated by the parents or adults and the degree of knowledge imparted to them is depending on the people surrounding them, which are mostly adults, parents, teachers, or the community. However, there are individuals who received great religious attention from the parents but being blocked by other factors such as friends. The control starts to lose when they enter the second phase where friends, entertainment and other influences are setting into their lives. As a result, parents slowly start to lose the grip over their child and be more understanding or supportive. The roles of planting religious practices turns to facilitating either they implement them or not. Undeniably, childhood religious practices are more secure compared to teen phase and usually, teen is the stage where people judge the success of parents in raising the children. In comparing both stages; childhood and teen lives, most participants feel

that they started to change when they entered their teen lives. They believed that being far from the parents allows them to act freely as if there are fewer eyes watching their movement. In addition, there are no loud voices instructing them to “shalat” or recite AlQuran. Moreover, as the parents get older, their strictness and firmness gets older too. This results to no punishments being taken if they did not perform any religious practices, which is different from their childhood lives. This study can offer a lot but some limitation drawn by the gate keeper limits the depth to be discovered by the researcher. Some limitation such as no visual recording and time provided to affect the process. These two elements are worth fighting for in future research in furthering to understand the delinquency in the aspect of religion because religion is one of the basic needs in human lives; thus, it is relevant to study the matter. Apart from that, there are issues such as time consuming and practices. As this study involves certain organization with high security, the researcher does need to pass a few gate keepers and it takes a lot of time to settle for permission to access the school as well as the participants. As this involves interviewing participants who are already convicted and are still serving their punishments, it will be a bit high

affective to filter for both parties researcher and par

ticipants. Hence, it is valuable if researcher manages

to do a few rounds of pilot study or meeting just to

enhance trust and even practices skills to interview

them well. Therefore, future research will be con

ducted related to the variables but more in depth.

Amato, Paul R. and Jacob E. Cheadle. (2008). “Paren

tal Divorce, Marital Conflict and Children’s Behavior

Problems: A Comparison of Adopted and Biological

Children.” Social Forces 85(3): 1141-1161.

Aras, Ş., Günay,T., Özan, S. & Orçın, E. (2007). Risky

behaviors among high school students in İzmir. Ana

tolian Journal of Psychiatry, 8, 186-196.

Carra, C. (2009). Pour une approche contexturelle de la violence: Le role du la climat de cole. International Journal of Violence and School, 8, 2-23.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). Research methods in education. New York: Routledge.

Coie, J.D., and Miller-Johnson, S. (2001). Peer factors and interventions. In Child Delinquents: Development, Intervention, and Service Needs. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, 191-209.

Creswell, J.W. (2007). Qualitative inquiry & research design: choosing among five approaches. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Debarbieux, E. (2006). Violence à l'école: un défi mondial? Paris: Armand Colin.

Farrington, D.P. (2002). Families and crime. In J.Q. Wilson & J. Petersilia (Eds), Crime: Public policies for crime control, 2, 129-148.

Farrington, D.P., Coid, J.W. & Murray, J. (2009). Family factors in the intergenerational transmission of offending. Criminal Behavior And Mental Health, 19(2), 109-124.

Felson, M. (2003). The process of co-offending. Crime Prevention Studies, 16, 149-167.

Fergusson, D., Swain-Campbell, N. and Horwood, J.

(2004). How does childhood economic disadvantage lead to crime? Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 45(5), 956–966.

Ferguson, C.J., and Meehan, D.C. (2011). With friends like these.. .: Peer delinquency influences across age cohorts on smoking, alcohol and illegal substance use. European Psychiatry, 26, 6–12.

Fuchs, M. (2009). Impact of school context on violence at schools. A multi-level analysis. International Journal on Violence and Schools, 7(1), 20–42.

Garnier, H.E. & Stein, J.A. (2002). An 18-year model of family and peer effects on adolescent drug use and delinquency, Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 31(1), 45–56.

Hancock, B., Ockleford, E., & Windridge, K. (2009). An introduction to qualitative research. National Institute for Health Research. The NIHR Research Design Service for the East Midlands.

Hawkins, J.D., and Catalano, R.F. (1992). Communities That Care. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. Herrenkohl, T.I., Hawkins, J.D., Chung, I.J., Hill, K.G., and Battin-Pearson, S. 2001. School and community risk factors and interventions. In Child Delinquents: Development, Intervention, and Service Needs, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc., pp. 211–246. Hoffman, J.P. (2002). A contextual analysis of differential association, social control, and strain theories of delinquency. Social Forces 81, 753–785. Horstkotter, D., Beghman, R., Corine de Ruiter, Krumeich, A. & Guido de Wert. (2005). We are also normal humans, you know? View and attitude of juvenile delinquents on antisocial behavior, neurobiology and

prevention. International Journal of Law and Psychiatry, 35, 289–297. Jenkins, P.H. (1997). School delinquency and the school social bond. Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, 34(3), 337–367. Johnson, B.R., Ronald, P., Corbett, Jr., & Kay M.H. (2001). Reviewing and clarifying the role of religion in reducing crime and delinquency, 65(3). Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. Karwowski, M. (2008). Creative climate as a preventive factor for youths' risk behaviors. New Educational Review, 16 (3–4), 175–184. Machin, S. & Meghir, C. (2004). Crime and economic incentives. Journal of Human Resources , 39(4). Maxwell, J.A. (1996). Qualitative research design: An interactive approach. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. McAra, L. (2004). Truancy, school exclusion, and substance misuse. Edinburgh Study of Youth Transitions and Crime Research Findings, No. 4. Merriam, S.B. (1998). Qualitative research and case study applications in education (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. Montgomery, K.L., Thompson, S.J. & Barcyzk, A.N. (2011). Individual and relationship factors associated with delinquency among throwaway adolescent. Children and Youth Service Review, 33, 1127–1133. Patterson, G.R., Reid, J.B., and Dishion,T.J. (1992). Antisocial Boys.Eugene, OR:Castalia. Patton, M.Q. (2002). Two decades of developments in qualitative inquiry. Qualitative Social Work, 1, 261–283. Regnerus, M.D. (2002). Friends influences on adolescent theft and minor delinquency: A developmental test of peer-reported effects. Social Science Research, 31, 681–705. Sampson, R.J., Morenoff, J.D., Gannon-Rowley, & Thomas. (2002). Assessing ''Neighborhood Effects'': Social processes and new directions in research. Annual Review of Sociology 51, 443–478. Shoemaker, D.J. (2010). Theories of Delinquency. New York: Oxford University Press. Siegel, L.J. (2005). Criminology. California: Thomson Wardsworth. Smith, D.J. (2004). The links between victimization and offending. Edinburgh Study of Youth Transitions and Crime Research Findings No. 5. Smith, D.J. and McVie, S. (2003). 'Theory and methods in the Edinburgh Study of Youth Transitions and Crime'. British Journal of Criminology, 43(1), 169–195.

Tesser, A. (1995). Advanced Social Psychology. Boston:

McGraw-Hill.

Warr, M. (2002). Companions in crime: The Social

Aspect of criminal conduct. New York: Cambridge

University.

Wilkinson, R., & Pickett, K. (2009). The spirit level: Why

more equal societies almost always do better. Leader

ship and Policy in Schools, 11:1, 129–134. Wright, A.J., Nichols, T.R., Graber, J.A., Brooks-Gun, J. & Botvin, G.J. (2004). It's not what you say, it's how many different you can say it: Link between divergent peer resistance skill and delinquency a year later. Journal of Adolescent Health, 35, 380–391. Yin, R.K. (2008). Case study research design and method. California: Sage Publication Inc.

Mental health literacy among undergraduate students in selected

universities in Malaysia

Rafidah Aga Mohd Jaladin, Ngu Ka Yun & Ida Hartina Ahmed Tharbe

Department of Educational Psychology and Counselling, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya,

Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: This study examines general knowledge of mental health literacy among undergradu

ate students from selected public and private universities in Malaysia, differences between art stream

and science stream of the undergraduate students on mental health literacy, their help-seeking intention

and their stigmatising attitudes towards people with mental illness. A total of 80 undergraduate students

had participated in this study. A questionnaire on "Attitudes and Beliefs about Mental Health Problems:

Professional and Public Views" had been distributed to the participants through a snowball sampling

technique. The result of the study showed that general knowledge of mental health literacy among under

graduate students was low-to-moderate. However, there was no significant difference between art stream

and science stream undergraduate students. The findings of this study promoted understanding on mental

health literacy among undergraduate students and could assist in developing counselling services that are

more responsive to their need.

Keywords: mental health literacy; undergraduate student
self-help interventions, (d) knowledge and beliefs about professional help available, attitudes which promote appropriate help-seeking, and (e) recognition and knowledge of ways to obtain mental health information (Jorm, 2000). Jorm recognised the importance of the ability of an individual to diagnose specific mental disorders in facilitating early treatment. Most people with mental disorder are having insufficient professional knowledge about it during their first attack and therefore unable to identify the early sign of mental disorder. They respond to the disorder according to their own judgement and beliefs about the causes of illness. For example, beliefs in supernatural causes will result in greater use of traditional healers and poorer compliance with medication, resulting in a delay of proper treatment (Jorm, 2000; Jorm, 2012). In most situations, self-help skills are important especially for those who are unwilling to seek professional help during mental attack. Generally, the public rate professional help negatively. Most of them prefer ‘natural’ remedies to professional help. This will often lead to resistance to seek medical help and lack of compliance with any medication recommended. Knowledge on how to seek proper mental health information is important for an individual to learn where to get help as well as how

1 INTRODUCTION

Health literacy has been the focus of research in

the health sector but mental health literacy has

only been specifically studied by a few researchers.

Health literacy provides knowledge to the public

on the prevention, diagnosis, and treatment of dis

eases. People can carry out early intervention when

they detect early warning signs of a disease and get

proper treatment for major physical diseases. On the contrary, most of the people were lacking of knowledge on proper prevention measures and management of mental disorders (Jorm, 2000). As a result, treatments are often being delayed, resisted or questioned with suspicion. The general public is also uncertain on how to assist those with mental disorders.

Jorm et al. (1997) observed this phenomenon and tried to draw attention to that area. Therefore, he and his colleagues created the term “mental health literacy” and defined it as “the knowledge and beliefs about mental disorders which aid rec ognition, management or prevention”. Mental health literacy is further divided into six compo nents which are (a) the ability to recognize specific mental disorders or different types of psychologi cal distress, (b) knowledge and beliefs about risk factors and causes, (c) knowledge and beliefs about to do self-help intervention towards specific men tal disorder. Sometimes, self-help strategies can be used under the guidance of healthcare profession als for better control of mental disorders (A. F. Jorm, 2000; Anthony F. Jorm, 2012).

Furthermore, public attitude can affect the

treatment of mental disorders. Social support from family and friends is regarded as important in improving mental health conditions. However, if the person who suffers mental disorders is sur rounded by friends and relatives that are having prejudice or reluctant to discuss about mental dis orders, he or she will be unable to seek treatment for specific mental disorders (A. F. Jorm, 2000; Anthony F. Jorm, 2012). Supportive family and friends can help people with mental disorders to cope with their illness better.

The intent of this study was also to find out the way to bring up awareness among public on men tal health literacy. The researcher wished to come out with some tips for public to learn the self-help skills on early symptoms of mental disorders, as well as being supportive to those who suffer from mental disorders.

1.1 Statement of problem

Mental health literacy is knowledge and beliefs about mental disorders which help an individual to recognise, manage or prevent from mental dis orders. Because of high prevalence of mental dis orders over human’s lifetime, it has been argued that everyone has the possibility of develop one

of these disorders themselves or getting in con
tact with someone who has mental disorder. Early
awareness on this potential can help us cope with
the normal stresses of life, can work productively
and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution
to his or her community (WHO, August 2014).
Previous research related to mental health literacy
focused on five perspectives: individual's ability
to recognize disorders in order to facilitate help
seeking; knowledge of professional help and treat
ments available; knowledge of effective self-help
strategies; knowledge and skills to give first aid;
and support to others and knowledge of how to
prevent mental disorders (Loureiro et al., 2013).
According to previous research, mental health
literacy level is associated with a higher level of
depression symptoms (Lam, 25 September 2014).
Severe depression will also lead to complete sui
cide (Andrew, 5 August 2014). The suicide rate in
Malaysia is about 1.3 for every 100000 people from
2007 to 2010,without including the unreported sui
cide cases (Joseph Sipalan, 29 May 2013). This situ
ation shows the importance of examine the mental
health literacy among Malaysians. I choose young
adult who are undergraduates as my research target because

they are in the transition state from adolescence to adult, and hence they are having challenges from being independent from family, to earn academic qualification, and to build up their social status. However, the mental health literacy is not being emphasized and instilled in their study, and thus mental health literacy among undergraduates in Malaysia will be low. Overview the Malaysian education system, we are more academic based and less emphasize on mental health literacy. Students can only gain very little knowledge on mental health in some of the course subjects. As we know, Malaysian education system consists of two major academic streams which are art stream and science stream. Science stream students have higher opportunity exposed to courses that promote information on mental health literacy, such as Biology. Thus, science stream undergraduates will present better mental health literacy than art stream students. According to a Malaysian research, the outcome expectation of an individual will influence his willingness to seek counselling (Ibrahi & Ahmad, 2013). Thus, help-seeking intention among Malaysians is also important for this study since it may influence the readiness of Malaysians to gain help in mental health aspect. According to a study, Asians were having more negative counselling attitudes which hindered their willingness in seeking help from counsellor (Yakunina, 2012). In accordance with this, the undergraduates' help-seeking intention may be low. 1.2 Research objectives This research attempts to identify the mental health literacy among undergraduate students in a public university in Malaysia. Specifically the study is aimed at: a. Identifying their mental health literacy. b. Determining whether there are significant differences in mental health literacy among undergraduate students enrolled in different academic stream. c. Finding out the undergraduate students' intention in seeking help from professionals on mental health issues. 2 LITERATURE REVIEW 2.1 Concept of mental health literacy According to Jorm et.al. (1997) defined mental health literacy as "knowledge and beliefs about mental disorders which aid their recognition, management or prevention". This definition had been widely used in many researches until now. Mental

health literacy comprises several components

which are (a) knowledge on how to prevent men

tal disorders; (b) knowledge about the diagnosis of

mental disorders; (c) knowledge of help-seeking

options and treatments available, (d) knowledge of effective self-help strategies for milder problems, and (e) first aid skills to support others who are developing a mental disorder or are in a mental health crisis.

Many people have insufficient knowledge of the major risk factors of mental health disorders. Some risk factors are traumatic life events, asso ciation between cannabis use and risk of psycho sis, and the role of parenting. In addition, there is also a lack of research which examines community beliefs about prevention measures. Both experts and communities agree on a number of activities that can help to prevent mental disorders such as physical activity, keeping in contact with family and friends, avoiding use of substances, and mak ing time for relaxing activities. Additionally, the professionals suggest that avoiding stressful situa tions is important to prevent mental disorders.

Many people have delayed or failed to get pro fessional help when they have mental disorders. One of the reasons for this situation is the lack of recognition about mental health literacy. This will worsen the conditions of those who suffered from mental disorders. Moreover, most of the people

have their first onset of mental disorders during adolescence or early adulthood. At that period of age, people are usually underdeveloped in terms of their knowledge and experience. As a result, young people need the guidance of their parents or other supportive adults to provide them with informa tion about their disorders and professional help available. Parental guidance can greatly increase the chance of getting early treatment and prevent the conditions of the patients from getting worse. Moreover, self-help strategies can be used under the guidance of health professionals. People often view self-help as a better strategy than professional mental disorder treatments. Some of the strategies can help an individual to decrease their levels of anxiety and depression whereas some strategies are less helpful in certain situations. Most of the peo ple will choose to apply self-help strategies when their level of depression is low and prefer profes sional help only when their depressions become more severe.

Furthermore, people should equip themselves with knowledge and first-aid skills to help those with mental disorders. Most of the people who experience mental disorder will not be able to draft

out what is happening to them and thus fail to seek

help from appropriate sources. In this situation,

family members play an important role in provid

ing social support to an individual who is suspected to have mental disorder. The patients will be more likely to seek professional help if someone close to them suggests it to them. However, there are not much strategies available to improve mental health first aid skills and educate the public about this kind of knowledge. Therefore, it is necessary to increase the mental first aid knowledge and skills of the public so that they can assist an individual with mental health disorders. 2.2 Knowledge on mental health literacy There were some researches which had been done on young people and proved that young people had insufficient knowledge on mental health literacy. For instance, a survey was carried out on 4938 Portuguese youths to evaluate their mental literacy about depression. This survey involved questions about recognition of the disorder, knowledge of professional help and treatments available, knowledge of effective self-help strategies, knowledge and skills to five first aid methods and support to others, and knowledge on the prevention of mental disorders. The results showed that mental health literacy among Portuguese youth was unsatisfactory and thus, program related to mental health literacy is needed (Loureiro et al., 2013). Another study applied population-based crosssectional health survey. This kind of survey utilise a two-stage random cluster sampling design. It was done in China on 1678 high school children aged between 13-17 years. The results showed that the students failed to identify depression. The researchers also suggested that an inadequate mental health literacy level is associated with a higher level of depression symptoms (Lam, 25 September 2014). In the United States, a study was done on 193 students from four middle schools in different parts of the United States. A self-report questionnaires concerning knowledge, attitudes and social distance related to mental illness was used in this study. The results showed that the recognition of mental health disorder among middle school students was low. However, the results showed some inconsistency and thus may vary with different types of disorders (Wahl, Susin, Lax, Kaplan, & Zatina, July 2012). Apart from that, gender is also one of the factors which can cause an impact on mental health literacy. A cluster-controlled trial research had been done in Norwegian. Pre-test on both control and intervention group had been done and followed by threeday

intervention. Two months after the pre-test, follow-up study was performed in both intervention and control schools. This study involved 1070 students from secondary schools with the age of 13–15 years old. The results showed that girls and older

adolescents scored higher in recognising the symp

tom profile of mental disorders and also had lower

levels of prejudiced beliefs (Skre et al., 2013).

Moreover, another study was carried out in

United Kingdom to examine the extent to which

mental health literacy of depression is influenced

by individual psychological differences. This study

was conducted by surveying 1218 general public

of age 18–78. The results showed that respondents

were indicated that a female was easier suffer from

mental health disorder compared to male (Swami,

November 2012).

Furthermore, a study was done on 400 univer

sity students from four British universities. The

results proved that females who were emotionally

intelligent, open-to-experience, and studied rel

evant academic subjects were better informed in

mental illness. This study was carried out by using

survey and other sources such as NEO Personality

Inventory ad Trait Emotional Intelligence (Furn

ham, Cook, Martin, & Batey, 2011).

2.3 Community attitudes towards people with mental illness

Although sometimes community will accept peo
ple with mental disorders, they may still holding
stereotyping beliefs and attitudes. A cross-sectional
mental health literacy survey had been done in
late 2007 on 240 systematically-sampled commu
nity members and 60 purposively-sampled village
health workers. The results showed that there exists
some false beliefs and negative attitudes of com
munity towards those with mental disorder (Ker
mode, Bowen, Arole, Pathare, & Jorm, 2009).
Another cross-sectional descriptive design
was carried out in India to compare the attitudes
towards mental illness among undergraduate stu
dents. 268 undergraduate students enrolled in
nursing courses and Bachelor of Business Man
agement courses were asked to complete Attitude
Scale for Mental Illness (ASI) and the Opinions
about Mental Illness in the Chinese Community
(OMICC) questionnaires. The results showed
that their attitudes towards those with mental ill
ness were significantly depending on the course
that they enrolled (Vijayalakshmi, Reddy, Math, &
Thimmaiah, 2013).

2.4 Other researches in Malaysia

There are some researches done in Malaysia which

are related to mental health literacy. There were two researches which examined public knowledge and beliefs about depression among urban and rural Malays and Chinese in Malaysia. Questionnaire which presented two cases of depression and a series of items about the causes and best treatments for depression had been delivered to 153 urban and 189 rural Malays participants. The results of the study showed that urban participants use psychiatric labels (depression) whereas rural participants used generic terms (emotional distress) to describe the two vignettes (Swami, Loo, & Furnham, 2010). In another study, 409 participants were requested to fulfil the same task like what was done in the study mentioned above. The results showed that Chinese Malaysians presented moderate depression literacy (Loo & Furnham, 2012). These two study provided some information about the mental health literacy among Malaysians. A cross sectional and descriptive population-based survey used questionnaires with 21 items validated to explore the perception among Malaysians about the causes of depression. 1037 respondents from Pulau Penang, Malaysia had been approached for research purpose. 843 completed questionnaires were analyzed and the results showed that most of the participants neglected the biological reasons of depression. This would hinder their ability to seek help at the early stage of depression (Khan, Sulaiman, & Hassali, 2009). Research on caregivers had also been carried out in Malaysia. In 2008, 24 family caregivers were involved in a study through semi-structured interviews. This study had listed out the benefits of using mental health services and barriers to access these services. Through this study, it was shown that mental health services in Malaysia can help to provide mental health literacy to the caregivers. The health services allowed the caregivers to gain information and practical knowledge on mental health literacy. Besides, they also received emotional support through counselling service (Mohamad et al., 2011). 3 METHODOLOGY 3.1 Research site and participants Participants whom had been selected are undergraduate students from University of Malaya. A total of 80 undergraduate students had been randomly chosen as samples, with 34 females and 46 males. Snowball sampling had been used in this study. 3.2 Instrumentation A cover letter was attached to the survey to explain the purpose of the study, its relevance and

obtain their agreement to participate in this study. The survey used in this study was divided into Part A: background questionnaire and Part B: Attitudes and Beliefs about Mental Health Problems: Profes sional and Public Views.

In Part A, the information which had been collected are participants' age, gender, ethnicity, residential area, father's and mother's occupation and educational level, participants' year of study, faculty and their bachelor degree which they were currently enrolled in.

In Part B, it is a questionnaire which Prof. Anthony Jorm used for the 2011 National Survey of Mental Health Literacy and Stigma. The questions which had been listed in the questionnaire are the self-completed questionnaires that Prof. Anthony Jorm and his group used for parallel postal survey of mental health professionals in Australia. The questionnaire had been further translated, adapted and validated for Malaysia population.

The questionnaire had been divided into 6 sec tions. Question 1 is to examine the ability of par ticipants in recognised the mental health disorder which related to the situation given. Question 2 and 3 are about the help-seeking beliefs and inten tions. Question 4 is about first aid intentions and

beliefs/self-help strategies. Question 5 and 6 are examining participants' beliefs about outcomes, causes and prevention.

3.3 Research design

A cross-sectional quantitative study had been carried out through delivery of the questionnaire through social media. The questionnaire is a self completion version of the interview schedule used for the national survey of Australian adults in 2011. With the permission of Prof Anthony Jorm, we used the questionnaire as our measurement in examining the mental health literacy among undergraduate students in a public university in Malaysia. The questionnaire had been transferred to google questionnaire and send to the undergraduate students from a public university.

3.4 Data collection procedures

The link of the google questionnaire was shared to undergraduate students from a public university by using social media. Undergraduate students had been requested to fill in the questionnaires voluntarily. The result of the study had been assigned with numerical values and transferred to Microsoft Excel 2013 and SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) for data analysis.

3.5 Data analysis procedures

Analysis of the questionnaire had been done by

using Microsoft Excel 2013 and SPSS version 22

(SPSS, 2013). The frequencies and percentages of nominal variables such as gender, race/ethnicity, and years of study of the participants will be calculated. After that, the analysis of the questionnaire had been calculated by using frequencies and percentages. The general knowledge of mental health literacy among art stream students and science stream students had been compared in SPSS by using t-test. 4 RESULTS The findings are divided into several parts: (a) demographic variables, (b) ability of undergraduate students in recognising specific mental illness, (c) comparison of the ability in recognising specific mental illness among art stream and science stream undergraduate students, (d) general help-seeking intention among undergraduate students 4.1 Demographic variables There were 80 undergraduate students from University of Malaya participated in this study. The sample included 46 males (57.5%) and 34 females (42.5%). The age range of the participants was 20 to 25 with a mean of age 22.46 (SD = 1.23). There were 72 Chinese (90.00%), 5 Malays (6.25%) and 3 Indians (3.75%) involved in this study. Among the participants, it was found that 34 participants (42.50%) are studying art stream courses whereas 46 participants (57.50%) studying science stream courses. There were 8 first year undergraduate students (10.00%), 15 second year undergraduate students (18.75%), 30 third year undergraduate students (37.50%) and 27 final year undergraduate students (33.75%) participated in this study. Table 1 showed the frequencies and percentages for these demographic variables. 4.2 Ability of undergraduate students in recognising specific mental illness The ability of undergraduate students in recognising the mental illness was calculated. There were 28 participants (35.00%) successfully recognised the vignette which presented as depression, followed by medical diagnosis such as stress, insomnia and Anorexia Nervosa (28, 35.00%), non-medical diagnosis such as family problem, love problem, sick and ‘emo’ (18, 22.50%) and unsure (6, 7.50%). 4.3 Comparison of the ability in recognising specific mental illness among art stream and science stream undergraduate students The recognition level among art stream undergraduate students (34, 42.50%) and science stream undergraduate students (46, 57.50%) was compared

in this study by using t-test. The result showed that

there was no significant difference in the scores for

art steam students (M = 1.7059, SD = 0.4625) and

science stream students (M = 1.6087, SD = 0.49344);

t (0.894) = 78, p = 0.374.

4.4 General help-seeking intention among undergraduate students

General help-seeking intention among undergrad

uate students was calculated by using frequencies data. Health professional which considered as helpful were counsellor (72.8%), followed by psychologist (64.2%) and psychiatric (51.9%). Informal supportive systems chosen by participants were help from their close family (69.1%) and help from some close friends (63.0%). Besides that, the medicine which rated as most helpful was antidepressants (33.3%), followed by vitamins and minerals, tonics or herbal medicines (30.5%). In contrary, the option which rated as most harmful was tries to deal his problems by his own (39.5%). The most harmful medicine which rated by participants was antibiotics (34.6%), followed by sedatives/hypnotics (28.4%), analgesics and antipsychotics (27.2%). The results of the study are shown in the Table 4.

Table 2. Frequencies data about general knowledge of

mental health among undergraduate students.

Diagnosis Frequency Percentage (%)

Depression/Depressed/

MDD 28 35.00

Medical Diagnosis 28 35.00

Non-medical Diagnosis 18 22.50

Not sure 6 7.50

Table 3. Comparison among art stream and science

stream undergraduate students on recognising specific

disorder. Course Art Stream Science Stream T Df

Diagnosis 1.7059 1.6087 0.894 78 (0.46250) (0.49344) 0.903 73.654

Table 1. Frequencies and percentages of responses to

demographic variables.

Descriptive Variable Frequency Percentage (%)

Gender Male 46 57.50 Female 34 42.50

Ethnicity Malay 5 6.25 Chinese 72 90.00 Indian 3 3.75

Course Art Stream 34 42.50 Science Stream 46 57.50

Years of Study First Year 8 10.00 Second Year 15 18.75 Third Year 30 37.50 Final Year 27 33.75

Note: n = 80. Table 4. Percentage of respondent endorsing potential types of help from other resources (N = 80). Helpful Harmful Neither, depends or don't know Different people who could possibly help A typical GP or doctor 25.6 8.5 65.9 A typical chemist (pharmacist) 6.2 12.3 81.5 A counsellor 72.8 7.4 19.8 A social worker 32.1 8.6 59.3 Telephone counselling service e.g. Lifeline 44.4 12.3 43.4 A psychiatrist 51.9 8.6 39.5 A psychologist 64.2 7.4 28.4 Help from his close family 69.1 7.4 23.5 Help from some close friends 63.0 9.9 27.1 A naturopath or herbalist 13.6 12.3 74.1 The clergy, a minister or a priest 21.0 14.8 64.2 Amirul tries to deal with his problems on his own 13.6 39.5 46.9 Medicines Vitamins and minerals, tonics or herbal medicines 30.5 6.1 63.4 Analgesics 4.9 27.2 67.9 Antidepressants 33 21.0 45.7 Antibiotics 4.9 34.6 60.5 Sedatives/hypnotics 7.4 28.4 64.2 Antipsychotics 7.4 27.2 65.4 Tranquilisers such as Valium 7.4 24.7 67.9

The result of question 10 is presented in the

Table 5 The result shows that most of the partici

pants are willing to accept the behaviour which

had been presented in the question except "have

Amirul married into your family". There were only

22.0% of respondents willing to accept Amirul into

their family, whereas 53.6% of the respondents are unwilling to do so and 22.0% of the respondents remained don’t know.

5 DISCUSSION OF THE RESULT

Hypothesis 1: Mental health literacy among undergraduate students is low.

Through the result which gained from this study, it shows that only 35% of the participants suc cessfully recognised the specific disorder which provided in the vignette. This is congruent with the previous studies which presented that public, especially young people had deficient knowledge in mental health literacy (Lam, 25 September 2014; Loureiro et al., 2013; Skre et al., 2013; Wahl et al., July 2012). In view of the mental health literacy among undergraduate students is low, future interventions need to be taken to improve the mental health literacy among undergraduate students.

As a part of health professional, counsel lor could play their role in planning some programme like mental health awareness cam paign and talks that promote mental health in order to facilitate mental health literacy among undergraduate students. Besides that, publi

cation of newsletters and bulletin is another

way to raise undergraduate students' aware

ness on mental disorder. New updates on sta

tistics and research regarding mental disorders

can be published to undergraduate students

so that they can have better insight on men

tal health literacy. All the interventions listed

above can help to increase the mental health literacy among undergraduate students and promote mental health among them. Hypothesis 2: Science stream students will have better mental health literacy than art stream students. Malaysia's education system was generally divided into two main streams which are art stream and science stream. Art stream students are studying courses such as art and language, whereas science stream students are studying about scientific field such as Biology, Chemistry and Physics. Thus, it was assumed that science stream students have higher mental health literacy than art stream students. However, the result of the study does not support the hypothesis. This might be due to most of the science stream students do not gain sufficient information and practical knowledge on mental health literacy in their study. Mental health education does not occupy a specific topic in all the major courses offered in their study, other than the mental health care subject. However, students are also not taking subjects related with mental health as major or minor courses unless they are interested in it. Since that is not their field of study, they would not present well in mental health literacy. Another factor that might affect the research outcome is the overall awareness on mental health literacy of the participants. A previous study, which done in Malaysia also showed that the general knowledge of mental health literacy among Chinese was moderate (Loo & Furnham, 2012). As the majority of the samples for this study are Chinese, the possibility for them to know more about mental health literacy is high. The outcome of this study shows that there is no significant different on the courses which enrolled by the undergraduate students. This situation allow mental health profession reconsider about the alternatives which can help in promoting mental health literacy in different courses.

Table 5. Behaviour of participants towards character in the vignette.

Behaviour	Definitely Willing	Probably Willing	Probably unwilling	Definitely Unwilling	Don't Know
Move nextdoor to Amirul	11	35.4	20.7	9.8	20.7
Spend anevening socialising with Amirul	26.8	56.1	11	1.2	2.4
Make friends with Amirul	36.6	53.7	6.1	0.0	1.2
Have Amirul start working closely with you on a job	12.2	48.8	19.5	4.9	12.2
Have Amirul marry into your family	6.1	15.9	26.8	26.8	22

Hypothesis 3: Help-seeking intention among Malaysians was low

The general help-seeking among undergraduate students in public university is satisfied according to the result of the study. Previous studies suggested that young adult had low help-seeking intention (Rowe et al., 2014). There was study presented that higher level of mental health literacy would trigger greater intention to seek help from professional sources (Smith & Shoshet, 2011). However, this study shows that samples had lower mental health literacy, but they would like to seek for professional helps. The result of the study does not support the previous research.

The deviate of the result may because of the

sample which has been used in this study is dif ferent with the previous research. The research which had been used in previous research was psychology students (Smith & Shoshet, 2011) whereas the samples for this study were combina tion of art stream and science stream undergradu ate students. Besides that, another research was comparing self-harm behaviour with help-seeking intention (Rowe et al., 2014). However, in this study, it was only examine help-seeking behav iour and thus, the participants may not link the help-seeking intention to self-harm behaviour. As a result, they would not consider about the stig matising attitudes which the previous research considered in their study.

This study shows that help-seeking intention of undergraduate students is high. In accordance with this, counselling organisations should play their role in providing more information about help seeking resources. This can help the undergraduate students to have a better knowledge on where to seek for appropriate help according to their needs.

Hypothesis 4: Undergraduate students holding stigma towards those with mental illness.

Previous studies showed that most of the people

would hold false beliefs and stigmatising attitudes towards those with mental illness (Kermode et al., 2009; Vijayalakshmi et al., 2013). The result of this study partially support the previous research in which some stigmatising attitudes were supported by the participants, especially their viewed on pub lic stigmatising attitudes towards those with men tal illness.

The difference of the result may because of the study which showed that most of the people hold ing negative beliefs and stigmatising attitudes was carried out in India (Kermode et al., 2009; Vijay alakshmi et al., 2013). The different culture in India and Malaysia may develop different levels of stigmatising attitudes towards those with mental illness. 5.1 Limitation There are several limitations in this study which need to be addressed. First and foremost, the majority of the respondents in this study are Chinese (90.00%). Therefore, this may not be able to represent the undergraduate students in public universities. In addition, the small sample sizes which only taken from a university also lower the generalisability of the findings. Moreover, the reliability and validity of the questionnaire used in this study are not found. It is an Australian survey which was used in the 2011 National Survey of Mental Health Literacy and Stigma. Although some justification had been done on it, there is no pilot test done towards the questionnaire. Therefore, the suitability for the application of questionnaire in Malaysia context remains unclear. This study is a self-report study and thus, some of the answers which responded by the participants in the study may not be able to represent the real situation. Participants may provide socially desirable response in this study. 5.2 Recommendations and implications In the future, researchers can examine the mental health literacy

by including more participants from different cultures and races such as Indians, Malays, Ibans, Kadazans, and others as Malaysia is a multicultural country. This would provide a better view on the general knowledge of mental health literacy among undergraduate students as well as Malaysians. Furthermore, pilot test should be done on the questionnaire in order to investigate the reliability and validity in applying the questionnaire in Malaysia context. This will help the researchers to get more reliable results in future studies which examine mental health literacy among Malaysians. 6 CONCLUSION This study examined the general knowledge of mental health literacy among undergraduate students in a public university. The result of the study proved that undergraduate students have low mental health literacy. The courses which they enrolled in does not have significant impact for them to gain knowledge in mental health literacy. Finding from this study also shows that general help seeking intention among undergraduate students is high. Most of them will prefer mental health professionals when they are facing mental health problems. Lastly, stigmatising attitudes among undergraduate students show moderate results from this study.

Andrew, Louise B. (5 August 2014). Depression and

Suicide. from http://emedicine.medscape.com/

article/805459-overview.

Anynomous. (27 November 2013). More Young People

Having Mental Health Problems, Borneo Post Online.

Retrieved from http://www.theborneopost.com/2013

/11/27/more-young-people-having-mental-health

problems/.

Art. (n.d.) American Heritage® Dictionary of the Eng

lish Language, Fifth Edition. (2011). Retrieved May

31 2015 from http://www.thefreedictionary.com/art.

Furnham, Adrian, Cook, Richard, Martin, Neil, &

Batey, Mark. (2011). Mental Health Literacy Among

University Students. Journal of Public Mental Health, 10(4), 198-207.

H, Minas, R, Zamzam, M, Midin, & A, Cohen. (2011). Attitudes of Malaysian General Hospita Staff towards Patients with Mental Illness and Diaetes. BMC Public Health, 14(11).

Ibrahi, Ruziliza, & Ahmad, Jamaludin Haji. (2013). The Influence of Outcome Expectations and Willingness to Seek Counseling Among Students. University Putra Malaysia, Malaysia.

Jorm, A.F. (2000). Mental Health Literacy: Public Knowledge and Beliefs About Mental Disorders. Brit ish Journal of Psychiatry, 177, 396-401.

Jorm, A., Korten, A., Jacomb, P., Christensen, H., Rodg ers, B., & Pollitt, P. (1997). Mental Health Literacy: A Survey of the Public's Ability to Recognize Mental Disorders and Their Beliefs About the Effectiveness of Treatment. Medical Journal of Australia, 166(4), 182-186.

Jorm, Anthony F. (2012). Mental Health Literacy: Empowering the Community to Take Action for Bet ter Mental Health. American Psychologist, 67(3), 231-243. doi: 10.1037/a0025957.

JosephSipalan. (29 May 2013). Suicide Rate On The Rise In Malaysia, The Star. Retrieved from http://www.the

star.com.my/News/Nation/2012/06/05/Suicide-rate

on-the-rise-in-Malaysia/.

Kermode, Michelle, Bowen, Kathryn, Arole, Shoba,

Pathare, Soumitra, & Jorm, Anthony F. (2009). Atti

tudes to People with Mental Disorders: A Mental

Health Literacy Survey in a Rural Area of Maharash

tra, India. Soc Psychiat Epidemiol, 44, 1087-1096.

Khan, Tahir Mehmood, Sulaiman, Syed Azhar Syed, &

Hassali, Mohamed Azmi. (2009). The Couses of

Depression? A Survey Among Malaysians About Per

ception for Causes of Depression. Asian Journal of

Pharmaceutical and Clinical Research, 2(2), 174-177.

Lam, Lawrence T. (25 September 2014). Mental

Health Literacy and Mental Health Status in Ado

lescents: A Population-Based Survey. Child And

Adolescent Psychiaty And Mental Health. doi:

10.1186/1753-2000-8-26.

Lifeline. (n.d.). What Is Help-Seeking. file:///C:/Users/

yun91_000/Downloads/What%20is%20Help-seeking.

pdf.

Loo, Phik-Wern, & Furnham, Adrian. (2012). Public

Knowledge and Beliefs about Depression Among

Urban and Rural Chinese in Malaysia. Asian Journal

of Psychiatry, 5, 236-245. Loureiro, Luis M, Jorm, Anthony F, Mendes, Aida C, Santos, Jose C, Ferreira, Richardo O, & Pedreiro, Ana T. (2013). Mental Health Literacy about Depression: A Survey of Portuguese Youth. BMC Psychiatry,

13(129). malaysiandigest.com (Producer). (28 October 2013). More Malaysians Will Experience Mental Illness By 2020. Retrieved from

Wahl, Otto, Susin, Janet, Lax, Amy, Kaplan, Lorraine, &

Zatina, Dayna. (July 2012). Knowledge and Attitudes

About Mental Illness: A Survey of Middle School

Students. Psychiatric Services, 63(7), 649-654.

WHO, World Health Organization. (August 2014). Men

tal Health: A State of Well-being. from http://www.

who.int/features/factfiles/mental_health/en/.

Yakunina, Elena Sergeeva. (2012). Asian International

Students' Intentions to Seek Counseling: Integrating Cognitive and Cultural Predictors. (Doctor of Philosophy), University of Akron, US. Yap, Marie Bee Hui, Reavley, Nicola J., & Jorm, Anthony Francis. (2013). Associations Betwen Stigma and Help-Seeking Intentions and Beliefs: Findings from an Australian National Survey of young People. Psychiatry Research, 210(3), 1154-1160.

Anti bias education practice in pre-school education in rural Malaysia

Abdullah Kadir, Mariani Md. Nor, Fonny Hutagalung & Jain Chee

Department of Education Psychology and Counseling, Faculty of Education,

University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: This study will aim at describing the Preschool Education Anti-Bias practice in rural

Malaysia. It explores two key aspects. Firstly, teacher demographics which influenced anti-bias education

teaching practice in pre-school. A few factors are scrutinized namely gender, academic educational back

ground and teacher service period. Both methods and teachers' classroom teaching strategy are examined.

Researchers concentrate on teacher application to develop interest, knowledge and pupil understanding

of anti-bias educational practice. This study is a qualitative case study. Research respondents consist of

2 groups. A total of 4 pre-school teachers and 16 pupils will be involved as study participants. Data collec

tion will be done through interview, lesson observation and document analysis. Triangulation technique

and expert examination will be used to ensure trustworthiness and credibility.

Keywords: anti-bias education; preschool; rural malaysian
Through it, students learn how to manage an environment in critical and creative ways; as a result, each student is allowed to have a positive self-identity, be confident and more concerned (DermanSpark & Olsen, 2010). The practice of freedom is also bridging the differences among students. This allows existence of multiple communication, critical thinking and skill to stand alone in the face of injustice. In an Islamic perspective, the concept of AntiBias Education Practice translates as nature educator-Justice on behavior, balanced or match (Abdullah Nasih Ulwan, 2008). Justice here is also related to the conduct of the teachers not to be extreme in the process of nurturing students. They were also seen placing justice in the right place and not being harmful. This is in contrast with the views of Muslims now that puts fair education in terms of equal position or equality of rights. The concept of effective education is the practice of teaching and educating students in accordance with their capabilities, and their learning style (Yusuf Al-Qardhawi, 2003; Al-Ghazali, 2010). This is because what benefits a person does not necessarily benefit someone else. Its implication is that effective teachers properly convey their knowledge appropriate to the maturity level of the students. In education, it is considered an injustice to educate the non-committed members or students in a manner that the students cannot afford.

1 INTRODUCTION

Malaysian society is composed of a variety of reli

gions, languages, ethnic groups and cultures. The

diversity of the Malaysian population is seen in the different ethnic customs and beliefs that have filled the background with unique cultural and ethnic practices. Therefore, anti-bias education practices are important in Malaysia in order to integrate the students at all levels of education.

2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Preschool education context shows that the prac tice of anti-bias education has a broad applica bility. This can be approached through western researchers' view as well as the Islamic perspective. Based on studies in the West, the concept of Anti Bias Education Practice is a concept that promotes equality of teaching human rights in the classroom. According to Derman-Sparks and Olsen (2010), the Anti-Bias Education Practice is a concept and an approach that gives special privileges to every human being to be treated with respect, dignity, equality and justice without distinction (Derman Sparks & Olsen, 2010; Lin, Lake, & Rice, 2008). Anti-bias education practice requires educators to fulfil "the practice of freedom" (Freire, 2000). This practice gives the students exposure and practice facilities for socialization with decency.

3 REVIEW PROBLEMS

Pre-school teachers play an important role in deliv
ering the anti-bias education practices to students.
According to Mariani (2012), anti-bias education
practice teaching in Malaysia is considered impor
tant because Malaysian society is a plural society that
diverse in terms of cultures, ethnicity and religion.
Its implementation is seen as a necessity to educa
tion policies and programs that serve as prevention
and encourage partnerships between communities.
Several factors can be put forward as challenges in
teaching practice-driven anti—bias education.
In the education sector, Saedah Siraj and
Mohammed Sani Ibrahim (2012) stated that the
community generally is more confident of the
long-serving teachers who are more knowledge
able and committed. This is because teachers with
limited background experience are associated with
less effective presentation in the classroom. This is
consistent with findings in other countries showing
nearly 80% less effective delivery of new teachers
(Parsad, Lewis, & Farris, 2001). While in Malay
sia, about 50% of the teachers are teaching at the
effective level category (MOE, 2012). Among the
causes of teacher teaching being seen as less effec
tive, is that educators lack pedagogical mastery and

are less ready when faced with students comprising various ethnic, background and culture differences (Parsad et al., 2001).

People living in rural and remote areas require intelligent commitment and more motivated high school managers (Haznurah Zainon & Mohd Zuri Ghani, 2012; Syed Ismail & Ahmad Subki, 2010). This requirement aims at eliminating the rural urban students' achievement gap. In addition, this challenge is trying to bridge the local commu nity relations with educators (MOE, 2012). The results from Amar, Hazri, and Passes (2013) show that teachers and school managers' socialization is more likely to reflect the ethnicity as negative socialization processes. This situation can cause minority pupils to feel marginalized and have "low self-esteem to succeed" (SUHAKAM, 2010, 2012).

Educators need to intelligently handle the con fines of negative issues, especially bias in practice, behavioral bias, gender bias, language bias, the stereotypical attitudes and attitudes of prejudice. Preconceptions towards pupils only pose less con fident teaching especially of minority students (Derman-Sparks & Ramsey, 2006; SUHAKAM,

2010). This group requires a teacher to exhibit

anti-bias and put pupils at ease, making them feel

always appreciated and well managed. Wise teach

ers create a learning system that is fair and leads to

formation of character and personality of pupils.

This is because pupils desire a varied instruction involving multicultural understanding and flexible methods. The pupils require such a teaching of anti-bias involving the use of language, ethnicity, culture, and methods that are understood (Carol Smith, 2013; Derman-Sparks & Edwards, 2010). Teaching with bias will only put students in a corner and make them fail to manage the environment properly. 4 OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY This study has the following objectives: 1. Demographic Profiling of teachers involved in teaching educational practices in terms of gender bias, anti, academic educational background (professional qualifications) and length of service (work experience). 2. To analyze and identify the method applied in the classroom by the teacher to foster antibias practice in pre-school education from the aspect of building interest and knowledge, increasing awareness of pupils and developing critical thinking students. 5 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION The following are definitions of words, phrases and terms as they are used in the study: 5.1 Preschool This context of study suggests operational refers to preschool class built and supervised by the Ministry of Education Malaysia. Preschool pupils consist of children aged five and six years. This preschool is using the Standard National Curriculum for preschool curriculum, teaching and learning (MOE, 2010). 5.2 Bias In the context of this study, operational definition of bias applies to explain the issues of disbelief, fear, suspicious, guilt, unfair and prejudiced. Bias in this study also is a tendency or attitude of prejudice to one person or group (Mariani, 2012; Van Keulen, 2004). 5.3 Anti-Bias Anti-bias in this study applies based on the opinion of scholars of Islam and the West. Anti-bias refers to actions contrary to the acts of bias. These include fair practices, respect, trust, not fear change, and open-minded. This practice also referred to the

intention, simplicity, sincerity, equality and values

(Abdullah Nasih Ulwan, 2008; Derman-Spark &

Ramsey, 2006).

5.4 Practice Anti—Bias Education

In the context of this study, anti-bias education practice refers to internal and external behavior of teachers in teaching. This behavior was fulfilled on the basis of sincerity without compulsion, holy faith, confidence and responsibility. The result will build interaction with ethnic diversity, cultural diversity, developing critical thinking and skill to stand alone to face injustice (Al Ghazali, 2010; Freire, 2000; Lin, 2008; MOE, 2009).

6 MANAGEMENT OF TEACHING AND LEARNING IN PRESCHOOL

Relevant pedagogical knowledge is important in preschool. It plays a role in shaping the culture of learning without affecting the identity of students' cultural heritage. Its implementation allows teach ers to incorporate elements of culture, ethnicity and language in planning teaching (James, 2014). This practice emphasizes the similarities and differences of rights among students. In addition, it develops the power of creative and critical thinking that ulti mately strengthen pupils ranging from various ethnic groups and cultures in the classroom. This is seen as important because all forms of action and nursery teachers in preschool gave more positive impact to

the development of pupils (Marzano et al., 2003).

In preschool teaching, teachers need to imple ment the method of learning through play. By implementing this method, the teacher can get involved with building positive communication with pupils. This method is seen as the key in the process of teaching pupils in preschool. Playing is a natural nature preschool students who are able to upgrade the skills of pupils to optimum levels (Broadhead, 2004; Brock et al., 2009; Drake, 2001; Mariani, 2012; Riley, 2003). Method of play helps preschool students to explore their thinking skills, social skills and emotional skills.

Emphasis on language manners and positive regard will impact on preschool students. Pre school students adore good speeches and names that suit them. This is because the use of the name, skin color, physical form, language, behavior in the classroom is a symbol of ethnic identity and cul ture practiced at home (Najeemah Mohd Yusof, 2010; Miriam Giugni, 2008). Therefore preschool teachers need to avoid classroom practices that are inappropriate or less polite. For that, teachers need to be more creative in creating rules that can apply to a wide range of students and ethnic cultures. In

addition, play can also prevent pupils from feeling bored and get rid of fear of preschool peers of different ethnicity, language and culture. The use of personal dolls in teaching is one of the techniques that expose students to appreciation of differences in ethnicity, language and culture in their environment (Mariani, 2005; Van Keulen, 2004). Play is said to be able to train the pupils in self-control, emotion control, socializing and sharing experience with power (Carol Smith, 2013). It directly provides an opportunity for students to tolerate and accept others and to share power. 7 THE RESEARCH DESIGN OF THE STUDY Qualitative research design is used in the study. Case study method is applied because the researchers want to explore the situation about teaching practice-driven anti-bias education in preschool in depth and in detail (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006; Merriam, 2009). In this study, researchers will undertake data collection through document analysis, observation and interview. Preschool teachers and students are the most important and key information providers in this study. Preschool teachers studied will consist of 2 males and 2 females, while the preschool students will consist of 8 males and 8 females of different ethnic groups. Location of the study will be in Education Ministry preschool classes located outside the city which have basic facilities and are implementing the Standard National Curriculum for Preschool. For effective data analysis, researchers will apply three analytical methods which involve making summaries, reflective annotations and current information gathering through memoing. After data collection, data filtering, data presentation, forming conclusions will be applied to obtain the results. This process will make the review more robust and achieve the targeted objectives. REFERENCE
Abdullah Nasih Ulwan. (2008). The Muslim Awlad FilTarbiyyatul (translation: children’s education in Islam by Syed Ahmad Semait. Volume One of Two) Singapore: Pustaka Nasional. Al Ghazali. (2010). Guidance on seeking the pleasure of God. (Trans. Syed Ahmad Semait). Singapore: Pustaka Nasional. Anita Abu Hasan, Noryani Md Yusof, & Husni Jazam (2015). Budaya dan pembelajaran: Siri Teks Profesional IPG. [Culture and learning: Professional Text Series for IPG]. Johor Bahru, Malaysia: Pelangi Professional. Banks, J. A. (2002). Teaching strategies for ethnic studies (7th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Banks, J., & Banks, Cherry A. McGee (2010). Multicultural

education: Issues and perspectives (8th ed.). New York,

NY: Wiley.

Broadhead, P. (2004). Early years play and learning: Developing social skills and cooperation. London: Routledge.

Brock, A., Sylvia, D., Jarvis, P., & Olusoga, Y. (2009). Perspectives on play: Learning for life. England: Pearson.

Carol L. F. Smith, (2013). Using personal dolls to learn empathy, unlearn prejudice: Personal doll training. South Africa. The International Journal of Diversity in Education, 12.

Derman-Sparks, L., & Ramsey, P.G. (2006). What if all the kids are white: Anti-bias multicultural education for young children and families. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Derman-Sparks, Louise, & Julie Olsen Edwards. (2010). Anti-bias education for young children and ourselves. Washington DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Derman-Sparks, Louise, & Ramsey, Patty. (2005). Anti-bias/ multicultural education with white children. Washington, DC: NAEYC. Retrieved from http://www. achievementseminars.com/seminar_series_ 2007_2008/ readings/sparks_antibias%20 multicultural.pdf.

Derman-Sparks, Louise, & Ramsey, Patty. (2007). A framework for culturally relevant, multicultural and antibias education in the twenty-first century. Retrieved from http://www.achievementseminars.com/seminar_ series_2007_2008/readings/sparks_from%20a%20 framework.pdf.

Derman-Sparks, Louise. (2007). Goals and teaching guidelines for anti-bias education with young children. Retrieved from http://www.achievementseminars.com/ seminar_series_2007_2008/readings/sparks_goals%20 and%20teaching%20 guidelines.pdf.

Drake, J. (2001). Planning children’s play and learning in the foundation stage. London: David Fulton.

Fraenkel, J.R., & Wallen, N.E. (2006). How to design and evaluate research in education (7th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Freire, P. (2000). Pedagogy of the oppressed. New York, NY: Continuum.

Hamdi Ishak, Ab halim Tamuri, Rosadah Abdul Majid & Safani Bari. (2013). Amalan pengajaran guru dalam pengajaran dan pembelajaran pendidikan Islam di Sekolah Kebangsaan Pendidikan Khas (masalah pendengaran). [Teaching practice in teaching and learning of Islamic Education in National Special Education Schools (Hearing Impaired)]. Journal of Islamic and Arabic Education, 2(4), pp. 11-24.

Haznurah Zainon, & Mohd Zuri Ghani (2012). Tekanan dalam kalangan guru Pendidikan Khas di sekolah intergrasi. [Emotional stress among Special Education teachers in integrated schools]. Journal of Special Needs Education, 2. Universiti Sains Malaysia.

Mariani, M.N. (2005). Persona dolls: Lawful or prohibited? Issue Papers of CEIEC, University of Melbourne, 3(4).

Mariani, M.N., & Mohd Sofian Omar Fauzee. (2012). Trend and issues in children's play and creative expression: Asean perspectives. Kuala Lumpur: Pearson Malaysia.

Merriam S.B. (2009). Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. Merriam, S.B. (1998). Qualitative research and case study application in education. San Francisco, CA: JosseyBass. Merriam, S.B. (2002). Case study. Qualitative research in practice: Examples for discussion and analysis (pp. 178-180). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. Miranda Lin & Alan Bates. (2014). Who is in my classroom? Teachers preparing to work with culturally diverse students. International Research In Early Childhood Education, 5(1), p. 27. Miranda Lin, Vickie E. Lake, & Diana Rice. (2008). Teaching anti-bias curriculum in teacher education programs: What and how. London: NAECH. Miriam Giugni. (2008). Multiculturalism, anti-bias and social justice in children's services. Retrieved from http://www.cscentral.org.au/Reources/Exploring_Multiculturalism.pdf. Najeemah Mohd Yusof. (2005). Multicultural education practice among teachers in national secondary schools: A case study in Kedah. Journal of Educators and Education, 20, pp. 7-11. Najeemah Mohd Yusof. (2010). Language and ethnic boundaries among students of various ethnic groups in secondary schools in Malaysia. Kuching: The Collection of Conference. Parsad, B., Lewis, L., & Farris, E. (2001). Teacher preparation and professional development. Washington, DC: US Department of Education, NCES. Riley, J. (2003). Learning in the early years. London: Paul Chapman. Saedah Siraj, & Mohammed Sani Ibrahim, (2012). Teacher competency standards. Kuala Lumpur: The Faculty of

Education, University of Malaya. Siti Zuraidah Maaruf. (2014). Pedagogical module development responsive to traditional craft culture Visual Arts Education High School. Unpublished Doctoral thesis, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya. Suhakam. (2010). Malaysia Annual Report. Human Rights Commission of Malaysia. Suhakam. (2012). Status Reports Children Education Rights of Indigenous People. Human Rights Commission of Malaysia. Syed Ismail, S.M., & Ahmad Subki, M. (2010). Asas kepimpinan dan perkembangan professional [Foundations of leadership and professional development]. Puchong, Malaysia: Multimedia. The Ministry of Education. (2001). National preschool curriculum. Kuala Lumpur: Curriculum Development Centre. The Ministry of Education. (2010). A standard national curriculum for preschool. Kuala Lumpur: Curriculum Development Division. The Ministry of Education. (2012). Preliminary report of the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025. Putrajaya: Ministry of Education Malaysia. The government's response to the annual report of Malaysia. (2010). The Prime Minister's Department, Malaysia. Van Keulen, A. (Ed.) (2004). Young children aren't biased, are they? Amsterdam: Bernard van Leer Foundation. Yusuf Al-Qardhawi. (2003). Sunnah: sumber ilmu dan peradaban. [Sunnah: Source of knowledge and civilization. (Trans. Muhammad Firdaus)]. Gombak, Malaysia: The International Institute of Islamic Thought.

Do we have salt & pepper on the table? (teaching style & learning

style importance)

Revatde Nadarajan, Zahra Naimie & Rana Ahmed Abuzaid

University of Malaya, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: Teaching and learning are important components in an educational setting. Effective

learning happens when the learners are able comprehend what is being taught by the teacher. Teaching

Styles and Learning Styles are like both sides of a coin where both sides are equally important in an

education system. When learners faced problems in understanding what is being taught by a teacher, it

is important for the teacher to use an appropriate and significant teaching and learning styles so that the

students can comprehend the lesson. Thus, it is important for the teacher to know which styles to use,

therefore, the teaching and learning takes place smoothly.

Keyword: teaching style; learning style; educational setting; learning styles inventories; teaching style

inventories the learning process. This article will discuss importance of teaching style and learning style. Caldwell and Goldin (1987, 1979) have concluded that this is one of the important parts of a study as it introduces the whole part of research. It discusses both teaching styles inventories and learning style inventories and approaches being used in education. Various learning inventories are discussed with focus on how they relate to the education process. The research questions are designed to investigate the relationship between teaching styles and learning styles in student's mathematics achievement. This literature review also explores the main subjects in this study, which are teaching styles, learning styles, relationships between teaching style and learning style, and list of inventories in this area. 2 IMPORTANCE OF TEACHING STYLE A successful learning environment is formed when the students benefit from the teaching style. A study has said that an educator should be able to use various ways to deliver knowledge and various ways in learning for the best student outcomes. Though the teacher is teaching the same subject, student's accomplishment is diverse from important factors in which not only teaching quality but teaching style and learning style also (Beck, 2001; Naimie et al., 2010; Wirz, 2004). Moreover, every single teaching style shown by a teacher had an encouraging outcome on students with excellent learning styles. It is also mentioned

1 INTRODUCTION

Teaching and learning are two most important

processes in a classroom environment. The most

effective learning environment happens when the

pedagogy is based on the preferred ones. Most

importantly the two-way communication between

teacher and students must be effective. The teach

ing style, also known as command style, is the most teacher-directed (Mosston, 1992). In this type of style the teacher is the exclusive decision maker. Decisions on what to do, how to do it, and the level of achievement expected are all determined by the teacher (Nichols, 1994). Grasha (1996) has concluded that there are five types of teaching style which are expert, formal authority, personal model, facilitator, and delegator. Teaching style in this study refers to the method of delivering knowledge used by teachers on their daily teaching process. Keefe (1991) defined learning style as a specific mental process or behavior which is affecting and psycho logically helping learners to understand their learn ing respond to what is taught, and interacts with peers. In sum, there is currently no widely accepted definition of learning style. Learning is how indi viduals perceive the knowledge using their inter est and preference. Grasha & Riechmann (1974) has mentioned that there are six types of learning styles: competitive, collaborative, avoidant, partici pant, dependent, and independent. Learning style in this study refers to student's way of perceiving knowledge and information given by the teachers, or a medium that is used by the student throughout

that a student loses learning opportunities due to the same teaching style used in every classroom and numerous learning styles (Grasha, 2002). A solid proof highlighting the teaching style of an educator is the foremost factor that contributes directly (Beck, 2001; Hughes, 2009; Zhang, 2005) and indirectly to student learning style (Kaba dayi, 2007; Vaughn & Baker, 2001). One study indicates that when a teaching style is divergent from learning style it could cause problems such as boredom in the classroom, dropouts, skipping lessons, and students building their own negative concept on that particular subject. This contrib utes to low student achievement (Kinshuk et al., 2009; Vaughn & Baker, 2001). Many research ers have suggested that a teacher should dis cover various teaching styles and learning styles of their students in order to design a meaning ful lesson throughout the learning process and it should vary from one to another (Claxton & Murrell, 1987) cited in Damrongpanit & Reu trangul, 2013). Teachers' teaching style can be seen in many ways. A teaching style includes the principles and approaches such as directed learning, workshop; tutorial and etc. are used for

instruction. Teaching style is also known as the teacher's pedagogy skill used in delivering knowledge. All teachers have their own unique way of teaching their students. Generally, the teaching style depends on the content the teacher wants to deliver (Brookfield, 1990).

3 IMPORTANCE OF LEARNING STYLE

Learning styles can be defined, categorized, and recognized in many diverse ways. Learning style can also be defined as a set of causes, deeds, and approaches that enables learning for an individual in a given condition. The research literature on learning styles has come out with several corrections which contribute to the unrelated, varying, and often different evidence regarding what learning styles are. A study by DeBello (1990) gives numerous definitions about learning styles and their theories as well. According to Steinberg (2001) many of these learning styles are still original and have not been duplicated by any source. Mares (1998, p. 65) proposed that learning style is not something fixed; it can, however, be identified in many ways. It can be noticed in many activities, which are carried out during the learning environment and it takes a longer time to be known. To

be more accurate Felder and Henriques (1995, p.

21) defined learning style as the way an individual

typically obtains, holds, and saves information.

Stewart and Felicetti (1992) regarded learning

style as an educational guideline, which most pupils are interested to learn. Learning styles were broadly defined as the individual way frequently used for acquiring, gathering, processing, and understanding to be an expert (Davis, 1993; Kolb, 1984; McCarthy, 1987). Studies have also established that learning style means student's behavior that conveyed from individual competence and knowledge in mental cognitive, affective, and psychomotor areas when the students cooperate with their fellow classmates in the learning and schooling environment (Duff & Duffy, 2002; Honey & Mumford, 1992). Kinshuk et al. (2009) said that every student can learn in various ways, but only can perform well in one way in which they are confident. According to Boyd and Apps (1980, pp. 100-101), learning is the performance or development that takes place when the behavior changes, knowledge, abilities, or talents and approaches are gained. According to Kolb's Model (1984), which is also called as the experiential learning theory that is said to emerge from the surrounding between the students and teachers, Dede (2011). Peker (2003) stated that students require four different ways of learning in order to learn effectively. The four different ways are Concrete experience, reflective observation, Abstract conceptualization, and active experimental. Ergür Derya (2000) added that Kolb's model as learning amalgamation within the stages rather than producing behavioral and cognitive approaches. 4 MATCHING TEACHING STYLE AND LEARNING STYLE Numerous research was found relating both teaching style and learning style (Fischer, & Fischer, 1979) and some others also studied the matching between teaching and learning style (Damrongpanit & Reungtragul, 2013). Some research also talks about students' preferred learning style and teachers' teaching strategies (Wilson, 2011). Various studies were found relating to teaching style and learning style, these including Joaquin, Ganadan, and Ibe (2010), Kopsovic (2001), Cassidy (2004), Yilmaz & Soylu and Akkoyunlu (2009) and Wang, Wang, Wang, and Huang (2006). There are several studies on effective teaching style and its influence on student achievement (Bietenbeck, 2011; Branton, 2000; Haas, 2002; Schwerdt & Wuppermann, 2008).

Nevertheless, studies support the fact that there is a relationship between the teacher's teaching style and student's learning style (Fischer & Fischer, 1979; Giuliani, 2005; Grasha, 1996). Many researchers have found that the identical teaching style and learning style will improve learning, attitudes, motivation, and behavior (Ehrman, 1996; Jones, 1997; Littlewood et al., 1996; Willing, 1988,

cited in Naimie et al., 2009). Findings of research by

Damrongpanit and Reungtragul (2013) indicated

that teachers should comprehend their teaching

styles and should obtain information on students'

learning styles in the classroom for planning the edu

cation process. It should emphasize equal opportu

nity to learn in the entire teaching process, such as

teaching media, team learning methods, assessment

methods, or homework assignments. Wilson (2011)

has mentioned that the study did not provide much

support on the relationship, but also did not deny

the option that such relations might happen. Dunn

and Dunn (1993) noted that when teaching style is

well-matched with learning style students will learn

more attentively. However, only the learning style

has been presented in many ways than the teaching

style. Gilakjani (2012) said that the match between

teaching styles and learning style motivates stu

dents to learn better and create a positive learning

environment. When there is congruence or match

ing between teaching style and learning style it has

a positive impact on achievement and satisfaction (Felder, Felder & Dietz, 2002).

5 CONCLUSION

Teaching and learning are the two most important processes in a classroom environment. The most effective learning environment happens when the pedagogy is based on the preferred ones. Most importantly the two-way communication between teacher and students must be effective. Each stu dent holds a bit of every learning style. Prefer ably, one would have a stability of all the learning styles. Nevertheless, most people fall toward one or two of the learning style favorites. Learning pref erences are possible to change as one meets new life and learning understandings. In fact, Grasha (1996) has proposed that specific teaching styles might inspire students to accept assured learning styles (p. 177). Consequently, teachers and stu dents can change their teaching and learning style according to the situation; therefore, teachers and students are not directed or pushed to use only one style. Instead, they both can use multiple styles for a better teaching and learning environment. Many studies have been designed in this area, for example, by Baneshi, Karamdoushi and Hakimza

deh (2013), Hamidah, Sarina, and Jusoff (2009),

Baykul et al. (2010).

Baneshi, A., Karamdoust, N., & Hakimzadeh, R.

(2013). Validity & reliability of the Persian version

of Grasha-Riechmann student learning styles scale. Journal of Advances in Medical Education & Professionalism, 1(4), pp. 119-124. Retrieved from http://jamp.sums.ac.ir/index.php/JAMP/article/view/23. Baykul, Y., Gürsel, M., Sulak, H., Ertekin, E., Yazıcı, E., Dülger, O., Aslan, Y., & Büyükkarcı, K. (2010). A Validity and reliability study of Grasha-Riechmann student learning style scale. International Journal of Human and Social Sciences, 5(3), 177-184. Beck, C. T. (2001). Predictors of postpartum depression: An update. Nursing Research, 50, 275-285. Bietenbeck, J. (2011). Teaching practices and student achievement: Evidence from TIMSS. Yayimlanmamics y,uksek lisans tezi. CEMFI, 114. Boyd, R., & Apps, J. (1980). Redefining the discipline of adult education. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. Branton, R. A. (2000). The effects of teaching styles on student learning of DNA. (B.S. thesis, University of Louisiana, Monroe). Retrieved from http://etd.

Dunn, R. S., & Dunn, K. J. (1993). Learning styles/teach

ing styles: Should they can they... be matched? Educa

tional Leadership, 36(4), 238-244.

Ehrman, M. (1996). Second language learning difficulties:

Looking beneath the surface. Thousand Oaks, CA:

Sage.

Ergür Derya, O., 2000. The Effect of Personal Character

istics of the Basic English Students on Their Learning

Styles and Its Reflection on Teaching Process. Hacet

tepe Universitesi Egitim Fakultesi Dergisi-Hacettepe

University Journal of Education, (39), 173-184.

Felder, R. M., Felder, G. N., & Dietz, E. J. (2002). The effects of personality type on engineering student performance and attitudes. Journal of Engineering Education, 91(1), 3-17.

Felder, R., & Henriques, E. (1995). Learning and teaching styles in foreign and second language education. Foreign Language Annals, 28(1), pp. 21--31.

Fischer, B., & Fischer, L. (1979). Styles in teaching and learning. Educational Leadership, 37, 245-254.

Gilakjani, A. (2012). A match or mismatch between learning styles of the learners and teaching styles of the teachers. International Journal of Modern Education and Computer Science (IJMECS), 4(11), p. 51.

Giuliani, E. (2005). Cluster absorptive capacity why do some clusters forge ahead and others lag behind? European Urban and Regional Studies, 12(3),269-288.

Grasha, A. F. (1996). Teaching with style: Practical guide to enhancing learning by understanding teaching and learning styles (1st ed.). Pittsburgh, PA: Alliance Publishers.

Grasha, A. F. (1996). Teaching with style: Practical guide to enhancing learning by understanding teaching and learning styles (1st ed.). Pittsburgh, PA: Alliance Publishers.

Grasha, A. F. (2002). The dynamics of one-on-one teach

ing. College Teaching, 50(4), 139-146.

Grasha, A. F., & Reichmann, S. W. (1974). A rational approach to developing and assessing the construct validity of a Student Learning Style Scales Instru ment. The Journal of Psychology, 87, 213-223.

Haas, M. S. (2002). The Influence of Teaching Methods on Student Achievement on Virginia's End of Course Standards of Learning Test for Algebra I.Retrieved from http://scholar.lib.vt.edu/theses/available/etd 10062002-202857

Hamidah, J. S., Sarina, M. N., & Jusoff, K. (2009). The social interaction learning styles of science and social science students. Asian Social Science, 5(7), p. 58.

Honey, P., & Mumford, A. (1992). The manual of learning styles. Maidenhead: Peter Honey.

Hughes, G. B. (2009). Students' perceptions of teach ing styles in mathematics learning Environments. Mathematics Teaching-Research Journal Online, 3(2), 1-12

Joaquin, M., Ganaden, M., & Ibe, M. (2010). Goal modi fication, learning styles, and achievement in Mathe matics. Education Quarterly, 66(1).

Jones, N.B. (1997). Applying learning styles research to improve writing instruction. RELC Seminar on Learners and Language Learning, Singapore, April

1997.

Kabadayi, A. (2007). Analyzing the cognitive teaching

Willing, K. (1988). Learning styles in adult migrant edu

cation. Adelaide: NCRC.

and teachers' instructional strategies: Correlations

between matched styles and academic achievement

(Doctoral dissertation, Liberty University).

Wirz, D. (2004). Students' learning styles vs. professors'

teaching styles. Inquiry, 9(1), 1. Yilmaz-Soylu, M., & Akkoyunlu, B. (2009). The Effect of Learning Styles on Achievement in Different Learning Environments. Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology-TOJET, 8(4), 43-50. Zhang, L. (2005). Does teaching for a balanced use of thinking styles enhance students' achievement? Personality and Individual Differences, 38,1135-1147. This page intentionally left blank

Identifying motivation factors of the participation of local community

in tourism industry in National Park, Pahang, Malaysia

M.R. Noorhayati, I. Mohd Hasmadi & H.Z. Pakhriazad

Faculty of Forestry, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia

A. Khairil Wahidin

Faculty of Economy and Management, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: This study attempts to identify and elaborate a motivation factor to influence participa

tion of local community in tourism industry in Kuala Tahan National Park, Pahang, Malaysia. Using

random stratified sampling techniques, a total of 400 respondents were selected from seven villages in

Kuala Tahan National Park. A theory of push and pull factor

were applied in this study. Results showed

that most of the local communities were more motivated by pull factors. The motivation by pull factor

is due to reasons that this tourism industries offer jobs to local people. They realize the tourism activities

are one of fastest growing economy in their area and provide an employement in order to augment their

socioeconomic.

Keywords: tourism industry; push and pull theory; local communities; National Park the community will simply engage in destination planning and development when doing so is likely to benefit them. In the tourism context, community has been recognized as one component for understanding the development of the tourism industry and it's also important to appreciate how community affects local tourism development (Aref et al., 2010). One of the core elements of tourism development is to encourage local communities' participations, it is central to the sustainability of the tourism industry (Muganda et al., 2013). Telfer and Sharpley (2008) claimed that, local communities are increasingly being drawn into tourism not only from the demand side, as tourist actively seek out new destinations and communities to experience, but also from the supply side, as communities are becoming aware of the potential of the products they can offer to tourist and the economic gains that can be made. Human motivation has been studied since the early 1900s (Silva and Franca, 2012). Guay et al., (2010) said motivation refers to "a reasons underlying behavior". Motivation requires a constellation of beliefs, perception, values, interest, and actions that are all closely related, as a result, various approaches to motivation can focus on cognitive behaviors (such as monitoring and strategy use), non-cognitive aspects (such as perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes), or both (Lai, 2011).

1 INTRODUCTION

In 2014, Malaysia tourism is the sixth largest con

tributor to the Malaysian economy and the second

largest foreign-exchange earner after goods manu

facturing. In fact, Malaysian government recognized

tourism as a part of their effort to diversify and expand the opportunities for economic growth in this country. Furthermore, tourism development affects the regional development and it interconnected with other industry. This ecotourism initiative represents national park, nature reserves and conservation area. Due to the location of tourism resources in this country, ecotourism encourages widespread of local community to participate in the industry.

National Park is one of the most popular eco tourism destinations in Malaysia. Local commu nities can be defined as groups of people with a common identity and who may be involved in an array of interrelated aspects of livelihoods (Scherl and Edwards, 2007). According to WHO (2002) it is a method where community participate and channel their voice opinions and get involved in the decision-making process. Community par ticipation can be outlined as a form of action in which individuals confront the opportunities and responsibilities of citizenship (Tosun, 2000). Bronkhorst et al., (2010) said that, local commu nity participation is a voluntary process in which The concepts of push and pull are widely accepted for use in tourism research and marketing

(Kim and Lee, 2002). Several studies empirically support significant connections between push and pull factors (Kim et al., 2003 and Kleosky, 2002) and one pull factor may correspond to multiple push factors. Push factors have been conceptualized as motivational factors or needs that arise due to a disequilibrium or tension in the motivational system (Kim et al., 2003).

Goossens (2000) defines the push factor as cause by people emotional needs. Ibrahim et al., (2013) agrees with the Goossens definition on push factors. He strongly believed that, the push factors are more related to internal or emotional aspects. Jamieson (2011) listed out 5 main reason that pushes influence community partiticipation in tourism industry namely poverty, lacks of jobs, loss of community control, unemployement and environmental degradation. Meanwhile pull factors is contrast to push factor (Ibrahim et al., 2013). Goossens (2000) claimed that they will engage in an exchange as long as they make a ‘profit’, namely as long as they receive more benefits from tourism. Overall, push and pull factors have generally been characterized as relating to two separate decisions made at two separate points in time-one focus

ing on whether to go, the other on where to go (Klenosky, 2002).

In Kuala Tahan National Park, the study on motivation and community involvement on tour ism industry is lacking, thus the factors of the influence and participation are not well under stood. Therefore, the objective of this study is to identify and elaborate a motivation factor influ ence participation of local community in tourism industry in Kuala Tahan National Park, Pahang, Malaysia.

2 METHODS

2.1 Study area

Kuala Tahan is one of the main entrants to a National Park, which located in Jerantut district, Pahang (Figure 1). National Park was established in 1939 and covers a total area of about 4,343 sq. km. The primary tropical rainforest estimated to be more than 130 million years old. The total popu lation of Kuala Tahan is 2,166 residents and most of the residents were Malays communities. Due to location of Kuala Tahan as entrants to National Park, the tourism industry is a major industry that generates employment and income opportunities for the local communities in Kuala Tahan. Their partic

ipation in the tourism industry is more on services

sector, which can divide into two main categories

as employees and as employers. Most of the local people work as boatman, nature tour guide, tourism agents, recreation facility operator, restaurant operator, accommodation operator and retailing. 2.2 Data collections A multiple methods (structured questionnaire survey, structured interviews, document analysis, and field observations) were used. A total 400 respondents from 1,922 populations were selected by random stratified sampling techniques from 7 villages which are located near to Kuala Tahan. In order to gain a rich understanding the contents of this study, both qualitative and quantitative data were brought forth and analyzed and used to complement each other. The respondents were male and female from the range 18–48 years old and above. The majority of the respondents were Malay (96.5%) and others belong to aborigines' people (3.5%). Most of the respondents attend secondary school (27.3%), primary school (23.3%), illiterate (21.8%), diploma (10.5%), degree (4.8%) and 12.5% were others type of education field. In-depth interviews were conducted with local villagers, local government officers and tourists in order have outstanding image about their opinion on linkage among local communities and tourism industry. 2.3 Data analysis Descriptive analysis was run in SPSS software to analyze the quantitative data. Calculation of frequency distribution, mean and standard deviation provide descriptive statistical analysis of quantitative data collected by the questionnaire survey. Qualitative data from open questioner were treated purely as qualitative data, as they focused more on meaning drawn from the content of the data. Figure 1. A map of Peninsular Malaysia showing the study area.

3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study indicates that most of the local com

munities were more motivated by "pull factors".

The most significant reason for engaging in tour

ism are these industries offers jobs to local people

(mean 4.26, SD 0.54). Local communities realized

the potential of the National Park as tourism area

due to the geological and biological attraction in this park. This finding can prove the statement on local community's knowledge of positive impact in the tourism industries which stated "The tourism indus try offers job opportunities directly or indirectly to the local community" (Table 1). Local people real ize that tourism industries are one fastest growing industry and can be one of employment options.

Second reasons for local people engaging in the tourism industry are personal satisfaction (mean 3.92, SD 0.83). Most of local people who work as a nature tour guide and boatman claimed that, working in this industry are more enjoying as they can more flexible in managing their own time (mean 3.29, SD 0.92), gain new experiences and challenges in the workplace.

Local boat driver, Ahmad (2013) agrees that, working in tourism industry give him a new experi ences and challenges to posses his work. His claim that riding a boat in Kuala Tahan was one of chal lenging job for him, as he has to execute it as one of income sources to carry out his family. Usually he will gain net income around RM100 to RM200 a day. He was satisfied with his job as he can pro mote it by introducing the beauty of the national

park to the tourists.

The third reason motivated the local community was the impact of tourism itself in improving the quality of life (mean 3.90, SD 0.82). Most of them have agreed that, tourism industry acts as catalyst in improving their quality of life. Participation in these industries that devote them a space to involve in planning and decision-making in tourism devel opment to ensure the developers brings benefit to their socioeconomic.

Government officer, Noor Azin (2013) believed that, tourism industry brings many economic ben efits to rural area such as job opportunities; provide goods; services and other economic benefits to local people. This will improve in living standards and increase quality of life among local communities.

Local communities also agree that, living close to the family (mean 3.80, SD 0.85) is one of the factors that prompted the local people’s involve ments, as more or less of them were promoted by their own family (mean 3.63, SD 1.01). They claim that, it’s easy for them to work close to their fam ily and well-known environment as they don’t have to consider in getting any movement to another urban center and some of them are personally

close to their kin. One of local restaurant workers, Azman (2013) said that, some of his friends plan to move out of this area to another city, but they have to consider to switching jobs or getting another one, find a new house and other things as well. The geographical location of Kuala Tahan as an entrant to National Park also gets one of motivational factors influence local community participating in this industry (mean 3.67, SD 0.90). Local communities realize the potency of this industry (mean 3.68, SD 0.84) in offering additional sources of income (mean 3.71, SD 0.69). This finding can prove the statement on local community's knowledge of positive impact in the tourism industries which stated "Tourism industry plays a role in the development of society through generating income" (Table 2). Participation in the tourism industry also makes a beneficial opportunity to local people gaining knowledge and experience in entrepreneurship (mean 3.51, SD 0.53) as it also helps local communities to market their manufactured product (mean 3.49, SD 0.71) to tourist. Retailing such stall, souvenir store, wash and groTable 1. Local community knowledge of the positive impacts of tourism. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements on local knowledge of positive impact in the tourism industries? Mean a SD Tourism industry plays a role in the development of society through generating income. 3.81 0.68 Development of a rural area as a tourism zone, give a positive impact to the local socioeconomic. 3.54 0.71 The tourism industry offers job opportunities directly or indirectly to the local community. 3.68 0.82 Local communities have a role in the management of natural resources and the awareness of the importance of environmental concern. 3.49 0.73 Tourism is also promoting a variety of cultural activities of the local community. 3.51 0.90 a The higher the mean score, the stronger is the agreement.

cery shop are an instance of economic activities

that own by local people.

Local community claims that participation in

tourism industry doesn't require high qualification

(mean 3.31, SD 1.03) but more require technical

skill (mean 3.55, SD 0.64). Most of local commu

nity involve in the nature tourist guide and boat

man are more required for their mental strength

and physical fitness.

Local people, who participated in the nature

tourist guide, must attend nature tourist guide

courses which is conducted approximately 2 weeks by Department of Wildlife and National Park before can guide tourists. Support from local government (mean 3.41, SD 0.65) in providing a good infrastructures, accommodations, transportation and services to Kuala Tahan also one factor which motivated the local people's participation in the tourism industry. Under the push factor there are three main reasons that have been identified, such as lack of experience working in others sector (mean 3.19, SD 0.98), dissatisfaction with former job (mean 3.14, SD 0.97) and unemployed (mean 3.03, SD 1.07). They claim that, lack of experience working in other sector becomes one of the barrier to them in finding a job and unemployed. This problem occurs due to differences in skills, education level, and personal interest among local people. Lack of information, advice, and guidance has exposed them to another sector which is also why it's becoming one of the main reasons they are choosing tourism industries as their vocation, since this career was encouraged by family who are involved or inspired by friends and other people success (mean 3.24, SD 0.89) in this industry. Dissatisfaction with former jobs has also become one of the factors, that bear on the local people involvement in the tourism industry. They claim that, this ascribable to their unpleasant workplace and job stress. Realizing the potential of tourism industry make them believed that, tourism industries offered an alternative option for jobs and unemployment as the government is also concerned in giving support for development of tourism industries in planning, providing basic infrastructure and training programs which provide a positive contribution to the tourism sector, social, and economic well-being of local communities. One of strategic in order to improve the development in Kuala Tahan, local government has launched "Rancangan Kawasan Khas Kuala Tahan 2020" (RKK Kuala Tahan) on 20 December 2012. The principal aim of this action plan is to plan and reorganize the development of Kuala Tahan and the surrounding regions. RKK Kuala Tahan is also one of transformation platform to Kuala Tahan in creating a desirable environment to live and generating more economic activity, which will be capable to generate

economic benefit to the local community by drawing more people and investors to the expanse, especially tourists who like to move and pass time visiting the National park by the year 2020. Results showed that tourism industries and community participation have linkage as one factor in the development of the tourism industry through the involvement of local people. The participation which empowers the local community and the tourism industry so they can develop an appreciation and knowledge regarding local and individual

Table 2. Motivation of local communities in tourism

industries.

No. Items Mean SD

Pull factors

1. The tourism industry offers jobs to the local community 4.26 0.54

2. Personal satisfaction 3.92 0.83

3. Improve the local community quality of life 3.90 0.82

4. Living close to family 3.80 0.85

5. Offering an additional source of income 3.71 0.69

6. See the potential in this industry 3.68 0.84

7. Tourism geography provides opportunities 3.67 0.90

8. Encouraged by family 3.63 1.01

9. More required skill 3.55 0.64

10. Give a good opportunity to gain knowledge and experience in entrepreneurship 3.51 0.53

11. Helps local community to market their manufactured product 3.49 0.71

12. Support local government 3.41 0.65

13. To prove own ability to be successful 3.34 0.90

14. Doesn’t require high qualification 3.31 1.03

15. More flexible in managing own time 3.29 0.92

16. Inspired by friend and other peoples' success 3.24 0.89

Push Factors

17. Lack of experience working in others sector 3.19 0.98

18. Dissatisfaction with former jobs 3.14 0.97

19. Unemployed 3.03 1.07

issues and costs associated with developing tour ism personal factors such as motivation are one of the key factors, involving the participation of local people in this industry. Local communities were motivated by the benefit from the sustainability of the tourism industry through economic devel opment in offering job, revenues and improving the quality of life among them. An intrinsic con nection between tourism industry success and the availability of an appropriate labor supply (Liu and Wall, 2005), will improve services that will ensure increased revenues and quality of life among local communities.

A suitable skill and attribute have always been an important component of efficient and success ful participation in the tourism workplaces (Wang, 2009). The personal interest qualities, skills, abili ties and experiences in tourism are the main char acteristic that can develop local person's career

in this industry. The ecotourism destination like Kuala Tahan National Park promote and advertise an exemplify the challenge of these locations that had an attracting and retaining skilled workers (Solnet et al., 2014).

Government revenues from tourism industry also can be categorized as direct and indirect ben efits gain from the tourism industry. In fact, gov ernment and other related agencies are playing a crucial role in the development of the country's tourism industry. The tourism industry is one of the sources of revenue (foreign exchange earn ings, tax receipts) to the government and because of its multiplier effect, it also provides opportuni ties for local economic development by the direct upstream, and downstream industries involved in tourism activities which bear the potential for creating sectorial linkages and economic opportu nities in the localities (Javier and Elazigue, 2011). Therefore, both the protected area manager and the tourist provider have a special responsibility in such circumstances to ensure that the community is listened to, and its views allowed to help shape the form of tourism that takes place in a sustain ability way (Figgis and Bushell, 2007).

4 CONCLUSION

This study identified that, one of the factors that influences participation of local communities was more motivated by pull factors. There three main reasons enlisting for engaging in this tourism indus try are the industry offers jobs to local people, per sonal satisfaction and improvement of the local community quality life. The tourism industry can be seen as an opportunity for local community to display their region distinct. Local people realize

Kim, S. S., Lee, C. K. and Klenosky, D. B. (2003). The influence of push and pull factors at Korean national parks. Tourism management. 24, 169-180.

Klenosky, D. B. (2002). The pull of tourism destinations: A means-end investigation. Journal of travel research, 40 (4), 385-395.

Lai, E. R. 2011. Motivation: A literature review. Pearson's research reports, 1-43. Retrived June 15, (2014) from http://images.pearsonassessments.com/images/tmrs/motivation_review_final.pdf.

Liu, A. and Wall, G. (2005). Human resources develop ment in China. Annals of tourism research. vol. 32, 689-710.

Muganda, M. Sirina, A. and Ezra, P. M. (2013). The role local communities in tourism development: Grass

roots Perspectives on Tanzania. Journal human ecol

ogy, 41 (1), 553-66.

Noor Azin. (2013). Benefit of tourism industry and

contribution to local community in Kuala Tahan.

Interviewed by Noorhayati Mohd Rashidi [in person]

Kuala Tahan, June 27, 2013.

Silva, F. B. D. & Franca, A. C. C. (2012). Toward under

standing the underlying structure of motivational fac

tors for software engineers to guide the definition of

motivational programs. Journal system and software.

vol. 85, issue 2, 216-226. Scherl, L. M. and Edward, S. (2007). Tourism, indigenous and local communities and protected areas in developing nations. In Bushell, R. & Agles, P. F. J. (Ed.), Tourism and protected areas: benefits beyond boundaries (pp. 71-88). United Kingdom: Athenaeum Press, Gateshead. Solnet, D. J., Ford, R. C., Robinson, R. N. S., Ritchie, B. W. & Olsen, M. (2014). Modeling location factors for tourism employment. Annals of tourism research. vol. 45, 30-45. Telfer, D. J. and Sharpley, R. (2008). Tourism and development in the developing world. Abingdon (Oxon) and New York: Routledge. Tosun, C. (2000). Limits to community participation in tourism development process in developing countries. Tourism management, 21, 613-633. Wang, J. (2009). Job Ready Graduates: A Tourism industry perspective. Journal of hospitality and tourism management. vol. 16, issue 1, 62-72. World Health Organization.(2002). Community participation in local health and sustainable development: approaches and techniques. European sustainable and health series 4. Retrieved June 13, 2014, from www. health.vic.gov.au/localgov/downloads/who_book4.pdf.

Best practices with revenue sharing authentic assessment

of preschool students' learning problems

Rashidah Mohd Rasul & Madhya Zagan

Department of Educational Psychology and Counseling, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya,

Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: This study aims to develop a list of best practices in sharing authentic assessment outcome

with family members as a guide to parents and pre-school teachers in the Malaysian Integrated Preschool

Program. Data were collected using three iteration rounds of the Delphi technique. In the First Iteration

Round, interviews were conducted with 9 education experts. Meanwhile the second and third iteration

round, questionnaires were distributed to the same experts. Interview data were analyzed using thematic

analysis. Data for the second and third iteration rounds of data were analyzed using descriptive statistics

such as median scores and inter-quartile range. Results found that there are 23 elements of best practices

in sharing authentic assessment outcome with family members who have preschoolers with learning dis

abilities. This research suggested that preschool teacher's integration of special education program imple

ment the best practices in order to ensure transparency in assessing children with special needs.

Keywords: best practices, authentic assessment; preschool
teacher, and to determine the factors that affect student achievement incidentals such as health, counseling parents at home and the services provided in schools (Meisels et al., 2002). In 2010, the Ministry of Education (MOE) has formulated the National Preschool Curriculum Standard (DSS) to replace the National Preschool Curriculum (KPK), which was implemented from 2003 to 2009 with the aim of ensuring that potential students can be developed in a comprehensive, balanced, and integrated compliance with the level of functionality of students aged 4 to 6 years. The curriculum also aims to ensure that special needs students master basic skills to foster positive attitudes and behaviors and adapt to the school environment in preparation for primary school (Jamie, 2012). For meeting the needs of individuals, learning and teaching in the Special Education Program is made flexible and coincides

with the Regulations of Education (Special Education) Act 1997, which states that “teachers can modify the methods and techniques of teaching or learning, the timing of activities and the set of activities, subjects and teaching aids in order to achieve the objectives and goals of Special Education.” Students with special needs have different learning abilities due to a variety of disabilities suffered. Academic achievement of pupils is too low and most often left behind in the teaching and learning because they could not follow the curriculum Perdana. Artikel 28 of the

1 INTRODUCTION

Authentic assessment is the process of gathering

information about the development and progress

of students using a variety of methods. It is part

of the learning and teaching process that is carried

out continuously (Curriculum Development Cen

tre, 2010). In the Malaysian context, the purpose of

the assessment was made which is to track student

growth in line with the age, intelligence, and iden

tify potential students to strengthen and enhance

their overall development, identify strengths and

weaknesses in student learning over time, provide

feedback on student progress in all the aspects

contained in the National Preschool Curriculum

Standard (DSS) and track the effectiveness of

teaching (Curriculum Development Centre, 2010).

Assessment results are analyzed to help teach

ers plan a proper follow-up action to develop the

potential of students to an optimal level in the

domain of cognitive, affective, and psychomo
tor recovery can also be created and the quality
of learning and teaching can be improved and
enhanced through the results of the assessment.
According to Meisels et al., 2002, assessment
of quality can not only provide information about
learning each individual can even be used as a
resource in making decisions for the improvement
of services in high-quality assessment of education
program was also said to be forming school policy,
Persons with Disabilities Malaysia 2008 confirms
that students with special needs should be given
support to help them achieve equality in education
(Jamie, 2012). Accordingly, such a student would
suggest using an initial curriculum modified by
their achievement levels of students with learning
disabilities or curriculum modified by the learning
needs of each. The development of their learning
assessed through Individual Education Plan (RPI)
and several other methods of assessment stand
ards set by the Ministry of Education. Assessment
should be carried out on the knowledge, skills, and
attitudes that are included in the Standard Curricu
lum Preschool Special Education Learning Issues.
Appraisal practice has become an integrated

part of early intervention and early education of children with special needs. Throughout the history of the study of early childhood education, special education, focusing on assessment practices have been given. This study aims to develop best practice strategies that can be implemented by teachers in sharing assessment results with parents or family members so that it becomes a guide for teachers in Special Education Preschool Program integrated throughout Malaysia.

2 OBJECTIVE OF STUDY

This study aims to develop a list of best practices that can be implemented by teachers in sharing the results with family members Authentic Assessment preschool students with learning disabilities. This is a list of best practices specific to guide pre-school teachers of Special Education Integration Program in the implementation of Authentic Assessment efficiently and effectively.

3 METHODOLOGY

This study used the Delphi technique & Barrutia three around. According Landeta (2011), this technique is suitable to be used if the researcher to get more information.

Delphi study is to achieve a high level of consen

sus among experts about best practices that can be

implemented by teachers in sharing the results with

family members Authentic Assessment preschool

students with learning disabilities to efficiently and

effective. Accordingly Weaver (1971) Delphi tech

nique is an approach to balancing views a group of

experts to reach an agreement that seeks to build,

rehabilitate and find solutions on problems and

issues within future. According Martino (1983),

the Delphi technique is a technique that is designed

with a systematic approach to gather information

or opinions from professionals or experts. The first stage aims to design Delphi interview protocol to be used in the first round Delphi study. Interview questions based on previous studies of the main features of Authentic Assessment Authentic assessment and implementation strategies for assessing students with learning disabilities to efficiently and effectively. The next item is reviewed by three individuals who have expertise in the field of special education and has over 10 years of experience in this area to test the validity and reliability of the instruments. Gay and Airasian (2006) propose the selection of a qualitative study, at least one and no maximum limit for the number of fixed and their views have been supported by Miller and Salkind in the selection of a qualitative study participants. In this study, researchers chose 9 panel with experience in Preschool Special Education and Assessment to be interviewed. Delphi study session of the second round and third place to develop questionnaire items. In the second round of sessions, study participants interact with the questionnaires that have been developed from the findings of the interview. Data analysis session the first round Delphi study found a total of 23 practices related to assessment revenue sharing with parents. The second round of data was analyzed using descriptive statistical measure of central tendency (UKB), a median, and interquartile range (JAK). Median scores were able to show individual views of experts compared the use of balanced mode

(Martino, 1972) while Inter Quartile Range score (JAK) also determine the relationship of each item with study participants. Guided surgery and Paris Saleh (2008), the level of agreement between the experts of the items specified as in Table 1. A second round of Delphi has also received several suggestions as additional items and improvement of existing item of specialists 9. There were 2 new items added in the questionnaire and 4 items were dropped based on the recommendations of the expert panel. This brings the total number of items contained in the questionnaire to 23 items in total. For the third round of sessions, set the questionnaire that had been purified after taking into account the views of the expert panel, administered to all of the experts involved with the aim of bridging the gap between expert evaluations. Table 1. Determination based expert level agreement between Quartile Range Value (QRV). Value of QRV Level of Agreement 0.00 to 1.00 High 1.01 to 1.99 Moderate 2 above None

Delphi round session ended in the third round

after all the items showed the highest median score

of 5 and the high level of agreement among experts

(QRV value are 0.00 to 1.00).

4 FINDINGS

A total of five elements have received high

approval by experts as an element to be factored

into share assessment results with family members.

A total of 23 practice agreed at the highest level by

all experts as a best practice revenue sharing with

family members authentic assessment Preschool

Students with learning disabilities.

Here is a list of the practices by the respective

elements:

Element 1: Effective strategies that can be per

formed by teachers in the assessment of sharing with

parents

1. Teachers need to show the results of the assessment reports to parents in the form of easy to understand and not only the score counts.

2. Definition of terms should be included in the assessment report should involve technical words and elusive.

3. Teachers report student strengths and needs in a transparent manner.

4. The teacher told limitations encountered during the assessment. For example; language students.

5. Families are given sufficient time during assessments revenue sharing to exchange views before a decision is taken to follow up.

6. Teachers need to report in detail the steps taken if a student is not able to master a skill due to its inability and the steps taken to resolve the issue.

7. The teacher sums up the overall development of children annually (summative) for the preparation of the annual meetings of the revised RPI / IFSP

8. Teachers can suggest the involvement of additional family members or anyone who is meeting with students while sharing the results of the assessment

Element 2: Items that could be shared by the teacher

in the student's performance report

9. The level of proficiency in a skill.

10. Report on the development of Preschool Students with Learning Disabilities in detail by month.

11. Proposed Learning and next Teaching Strategy.

12. The challenges faced by teachers in the learning and teaching of students. 13. The challenges faced by students in the implementation of the Learning and Teaching or activities 14. The ways parents can help improve students' interest or inclination. Element 3: Purpose and limitations of information to parents 15. Limitations must be cleared

to ensure no unexpected expectations expected by the parents. 16. Limitations must be described in a positive form that can give confidence to parents Element 4: What parents can do after obtaining the assessment results 17. Upon the report of the assessment, parents can talk to the teacher or therapist related reports and follow-up actions can be taken by parents in helping their children. 18. Parents should discuss with the teacher if there are any statements or information that are unclear. 19. Parents are supposed to cooperate with teachers in planning and implementing learning strategies. 20. Parents need to help students, particularly after the RPI was formed and began learning and teaching. Element 5: Revenue sharing pays to the student assessment special needs 21. If the collaboration between parents and teachers is well done, Preschool Students with Learning Disabilities to benefit through Authentic Assessment as they are given attention at school and home to the identified weak and needs help 22. The process of learning and teaching will be smooth and according to the requirements, needs, and abilities Preschool Students with Learning Disabilities can provide input to parents, therapists, and teachers regarding interventions continued to do as well as improvements in the implementation of these interventions. 5 DISCUSSION Score assessment results, can not explain in detail the weaknesses of students. In this study, the majority of the panel's view, the teacher should show the results of the assessment to the parents in a form that is easily understood and not simply by counting the score, and this view is in line with Sandall & Smith (2000), which states the report assessment should be viewed as understood by parents because there are several factors that play a role

unnoticed. The definition of the terms should be

included in the assessment report should involve

technical words and elusive.

Teachers are responsible for reporting the

strengths and needs of students in a transparent

manner. Teachers told limitations encountered dur

ing the assessment. For example, limitations in terms

of the language students. Restrictions and limitations

should be explained to the parents to ensure that no

unexpected expectations are to be expected by the parents. Limitations should be described in a positive form that can give confidence to parents. To avoid the limitations, the assessment should be carried out in a controlled environment that is at least equal to the actual environment of the child in accordance with the standard have been standardized. Assessment should be administered in a quiet, and relatively free environment. If the assessment is often interrupted or if the child's attention is attracted to other things, an inaccurate result will be obtained. Creating this environment is quite challenging because the space in the preschool integration of special education pro gram relatively small and limited. Teachers also must report in detail the steps taken if a student is not able to master a skill due to ineligibility and steps taken to resolve the issue.

According to Sandall & Smith (2000), teachers or professionals should take the initiative to help students with special needs have the potential to do a task on its own without help. Once reported, the parents should be given a period of time sufficient to exchange views before a decision is taken to fol low up. Teachers can also suggest the involvement of additional family members or anyone else who is

close to MBK while sharing the results of the assess
ment. This view is in line with the recommendations
Bagnato (2005), confirming the involvement of
other individuals who recognize students with spe
cial needs are encouraged to ensure that no infor
mation is left behind. Teacher sums up the overall
development of children annually (summative) for
the annual meeting of the revised integration lesson
plan. Teachers must report to a level of skill. When
reporting student achievement, teachers can tell
the next PDP reserves. Teachers may also discuss
ways parents can help improve students' interest or
inclination. This view is consistent with Brown &
Snell (2000), which states that the interest and the
positive affirmation of children with special needs
should be identified in order to reduce unwanted
behavior and increasing concentration of children
with special needs to complete their assignment.
After obtaining the results of the assessment,
parents can talk to the teacher or therapist related
reports and follow-up actions that can be imple
mented by parents in helping their children. Par
ents need to cooperate with teachers in planning
Gay, L. R., Mills, G. E. dan Airasian, P. (2006). Educa
tional Research (8th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ:

Pearson.

Jamila K.A. Mohamed.(2012).Penerapan Kemahiran Lit

erasi Bagi Murid Prasekolah Bermasalah Pendengaran

di Sekolah Kebangsaan Pendidikan Khas. Tesis DR.

Falsafah Fakulti Pendidikan Universiti Kebangsaan

Malaysia.

Landeta, J. y Barrutia, J. (2011). People consultation to

construct the future: A Delphi application. Interna

tional Journal of Forecasting.

Martha E. Snell, Fredda Brown (2000). Instruction of

students with severe disabilities. Upper Saddle River,

N.J.: Merrill.

Martino, J. P. (1983). Technological forecasting for deci

sion making. New York: North-Holland.

Meisels, S.J., Atkins Burnett, S., Xue, Y., Nicholson, J.,

Bickel, D., & Sons, S. (2002). Creating A System Of Accountability: The Impact Of InstructionalAssessment On Elementary Children's Achievement Test Scores. American Educational Research Journal, 39(1),3-25. Saedah dan Mohd Paris Saleh (2008), Jangkaan Masa Depan Terhadap Aplikasi Teknologi dalam Pengajaran dan Pembelajaran Peringkat Sekolah Menengah: Pandangan Pakar. Fakulti Pendidikan, Universiti Malaya, Kuala Lumpur. Sandall, S., Mc Lean, M.e., & Smith, B.J (2000). DEC Recommend Practices in early intervention/early childhood special education, Longmont, CO: Sporis West. Weaver, W. T. (1971). The Delphi forecasting method. Phi Delta Kappan, 52 (5), 267-273. This page intentionally left blank

Buhalis D. 2000. Marketing the competitive destination

of the future. Tourism Management, 21: 97-116.

Clifton, R. 2010. The Economist: Brands and Branding.

In Profile Books (ed.).

Gunare, M. 2009. The role of cultural heritage in the

marketing of tourist areas. Time for M.I.C.E 1: 16-19.

Saint-Petersburg.

Imber J., Toffler B.A. 2008. Dictionary of Marketing

Terms, 4th ed. Barron's Business Guides: 47.

Ivanovic M., Milicevic B. 2009. Some challenges of cre

ating a new brand of Serbian tourism: case study -

the Republic of Uzice. In University Novi Sadn (ed.),

International Scientific Journal "Tourizam", 13 (1):

17-27.

Kotler Ph, Gertner D. 2002. Country as brand, product

and beyond: A place marketing and brand manage

ment perspective, In Henry Stewart Publications (ed.),

Journal Brand Management 9(4-5): 249-261. Makatrova N.S. 2014. How to attract tourists and become a tourist brand of Russia. In Concretica Consulting Company (ed.). Moscow. Messer C.C. 2004. Community Tourism Development. Manual, 2nd ed. University of Minnesota Tourism Centre (ed.), Minnesota: 62-75. Middleton, V., Fyall A., Morgan M., Ranchhod A. 2009. Marketing in Travel and Tourism, In ButterworthHeinemann (ed.), Oxford: 275-281. Roberts, K.J. 2005. Lovemarks: The future beyond brands. In Repaul Classic (ed.), Moscow. Roberts, M.V. 2012. The Role of Tourism in the Sustainable Economic Development of the Region. Scientific enquiry in the contemporary world: theoretical basics and innovative approach. In L&L Publishing (USA), 5: 151-155. Vladimir Region: Welcome to

visit and do business in. Investment Guide. 2013. In “Arkaim” Publishing House, Vladimir: 5-34. This page intentionally left blank

Formation of methodological approach to evaluation

of the national innovative environment

R. Fedosova

Financial University under the Government of the Russian Federation, Moscow, Russia

B. Kheyfits

Antique Arms, LLC, Moscow, Russia

M. Ilyina

Institute of Economics, Russian Academy of Sciences, Moscow, Russia

ABSTRACT: There are results of an original research, conducted within the customized research

project. Based on the study of world famous researches there are basic principles for understanding and

maintenance of the national innovative environment. There is a comparison showed between the USA

and Russia in terms of innovative development. There is an evaluation methodology of the national

innovative environment on PEST analysis, which has been certified according to official data of Russian

informative and statistical of Russian informative and statistical sources. There are strategic factors that

define quality of innovative style. There are strategic factors, which determine the quality of national

innovative environment. There are offers and recommendations concerning development of the national

innovative environment in Russia.

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Application

Over the last years in Russia there is a positive tendency in innovative activities, but, as you can see, the results of only a small volume of scientific researchers are brought into a real sector (Table 1). More recently, the Russian market of venture capital in the forming stage demonstrates growth dynamics. However, the use of venture capital, and, even more so, its conversion into assets of a real sector of economy are extremely inefficient and do not meet market needs. So, it is still too early today to talk about vector of Russian devel opment based on innovative scenario. It should be only claimed about the stage of situation interpre tation, and to speed this up it is required to form innovative environment that would meet modern requirements. The current situation is evidenced by innovative development comparison data in Russia and the USA, presented in Table 2.

Presented data clearly indicate that the actual problem in the formation of the national innova tion system is a formation of knowledge system in this area. It is extremely important not only the identification of processes and phenomena in the researching area, but their quantitative

assessment. Global experience in forming and developing national innovative systems indicates about the importance of building of knowledge system in this sphere. That's why international experts, Russian legislators, national economy entities pay attention to issues of speeding up and increasing efficiency of innovative development, the process of solving which is quite long term in real life and takes several decades. The current situation requires consideration and definition of basics for formation of the national innovative environment, which is smoothly integrated in the general system of national economy. The main focus of development is formation of conditions in Russian experience enabling to commonly activate innovative process at all stages and in all spheres of the national economy. 1.2 Research methodology As a part of the study to solve the set up problems were used such group of methods as bibliometrics, logical, and statistical. The main method of assessment of the national innovation environment is adapted PEST analysis, which allows fully estimate the degree of influence of external factors affecting on quality of the national innovation environment.

1.3 An issue's degree of development

All countries put a great emphasis on the problems

of innovation of national economy development.

To determine promising lines of research in the

area of innovative development there was per

formed an analysis of the most significant publica

tions, presented in Web of Science, Scopus, Google

Scholar, and RSCI.

Results are as follows:

1. The first research papers in the sphere of inter

est appeared in the end of the previous century

(Shumpeter 1982, Rosenberg 1982, Freeman

1987, Fonotov 1986, Tinbergen 1980, Toffler

1987);

2. The highest interest to this scientific problem was in the nineties of the previous century (Amable & Boyer 1998, Stoneman 1995, Nelson 1993, Metcalfe 1995, Patel & Pavitt 1994, Lund vall 1992). Apparently, the reason is that during that period there was rise of a new technological mode, generated by information revolution and computer technologies. Scientific and public life started being involved in the process of under standing of a new economic formation. Then, up to the present moment the main focus in the development of innovative process was trans ferred to business environment. Newly appeared scientific interest to the problems of innovative development is caused by the necessity to comprehend 15 years experiences of countries, its constructive analysis and search of directions for improvement and efficiency upgrading in innovative development; 3. The biggest activity in the area of research concerning innovation management during the last century is typical for the USA, Western European countries, and Pacific Asia region. Considering new historical conditions, Russia is still expected to gain this position (Spielkamp & Vopel 1998, Porter & Stern 1998, Hu & Mathews 2005, Davenport & Daellenbach 2003, Cooke 2001); 4. Results of the research indicate that the Russian scholar school in the area of innovation management remains short of the foreign ones (Lenchuk 2005, Abalkin 2004, Golichenko 2005, Atoyan 2003, Semenov & Kashirin 2006, Bortnik 2004, Folom'ev 2005). One of the main reasons for such situation is inconformity of conditions for development, implementation of innovations, and bringing them to consumers. That's why nowadays it is extremely important for Russia to form national innovative environment that will help increase innovation activity of all national economy entities.

Table 2. Comparison of innovation development in Russia and the USA.

Comparable indexes USA Russia Problems of Russian innovative environment

Share of seed capital in the total

amount of venture capitalç 83% 11% Imbalance in the supply structure of venture capital

Priorities in stages of investment Early Late Low efficiency of entities of innovative activity

The share of high-tech products,

supplies the world market 36% 0.3-0.5% Poor quality of innovation, built on the basis of Russian developments which could be of interest and motivate business

Level teamwork of entities of

innovative High Low Weak system of organizational-economic relations of venture capital market participants

The prevailing model of

commercialization Non-linear model Linear model Implementation of a linear model commercialization

Source: Ilyina M. (2011) Basic approaches to exits of venture projects in Russia: problems and prospects. Bulletin of

the University (State University of Management), No. 23, 115-123.

Table 1. Result of innovation activity in Russian from 2009 to 2013. Indexes 2009 2010 2011 2012 2013

1 Advanced manufacturing technology (unit) 789 864 1138 1323 1429

2 The share of innovative goods, works, and services in the total volume of shipped goods, works, services, goods (%) 4.5 4.8 6.3 8.0 8.2

3 The number of sold out of venture projects (unit) 10 25 25 27 28

Source: Russian Federation Federal State Statistics Service, Russian Venture Capital Association analytic

catalogue,

2004-2013.

1.4 The goal and objectives of the study

The subject of research is national innovative envi ronment. Analysis of the notion “national innova tive environment” in national and foreign literature showed that is appeared in the early 1980s and was used to examine system conditions, which can be formed by the country generating new ideas, prod ucts, organization of new productions, and devel opment of new markets.

The subject of research is verification and devel opment of a methodological approach to evalua tion of national innovative environment.

1.5 Research methods

National innovative environment is numerous and non-uniform in its composition. It includes a large amount of factors that have different influence on innovative process in terms of degree, nature, and frequency. When solving tasks concerning its analysis in order to determine the most significant (strategic) factors that influence innovative activ ity, there was used PEST analysis. This analysis was conducted according to political, economic, tech nological, natural and climatic, sociodemographic,

international, and cultural conditions, on the part of which subjects of national innovative system experience impact. These conditions were quantitatively described using 40 factors from 2004 up to 2013. Considering particular characteristics of information society, technology factor was used as a resulting factor out of selected ones when conducting correlation analysis. It characterizes post industrial technological mode, in particular, created (developed) advanced manufacturing technologies.

1.6 Research information base

Political vector of macro-environment defines political stability in the country, having a great influence on economic activity of the private sector of economy. Legitimacy and stability of business operations depend on efficiency of enacted legislation and legal regulations. Its main parameters are: current legislation in market (regulatory legal acts that regulate business activities at the federal level), changing frequency of legislative environment (number per annum), state control of business activities, a number of federal programs supporting business, size of tax burden on business (in Gross Domestic Product (GDP) %), realizable monetary and customs policy of the state, specially created

infrastructure for business (SEZ, TDR, ZST, and

OEZ), state share in business, a number of projects

of the public private partnership, a number of

institutes for development in economy, established

by state for business support. Economic component defines general level of economic development, where organizations are functioning. Basic parameters in the research are: dynamics of the place of Russia in the international rating of global competitiveness of the World Economic Forum (The Global Competitiveness Index), real GDP, GDP considering purchasing power parity, inflation rate, refinancing rate, labor productivity movements, net inflow (+)/ outflow (-) of capital into a private sector), foreign direct investment in non-financial sector, credit rates for businesses and organizations, return on assets change index. Changes in these macroeconomic values have effect on demand fluctuations, investment policy, and company's profitability. Sociodemographic component provides social processes of the tendency, occurring in the society and influencing company activities. It includes: level of employment and unemployment of population, amount of minimum monthly wage, distribution of total money income and characteristics of income differences of population (including 20-percent population groups, in %), Human Development Index, level of economic activity of population, population size with money income lower than the level of the cost of living (millions of people), changing components for general population. Technological component includes scientific and technological factors, development of which enables companies to renovate an old product and make a new one, develop innovations. Its basic parameters: the Global Innovation Index, capital under control of all active funds on Russian market of direct and venture investment, created (developed) advanced manufacturing technologies—total, patent granting (for design inventions), percentage of companies dealing with technological innovations in the accounting year, in the total amount of inspected companies, percentage of innovative goods, works, services in the total volume of shipped goods, performed works, services, a number of implemented exits from venture projects. International component is related to activities of international economic and financial companies, which introduce new trading conditions, as well as international economic activity of the state, which influences activities of national companies. They include: balance of visible

trade, value of external trade, external debt of the country, membership in international companies, changes in the ruble's exchange rate to the US dollar. Cultural component determines importance of general vision, goals, standards, and behavior when taking risk and risky activities, as well as culture inside the company, which are followed when it comes to development. They include: percent of objects of cultural heritage, condition of which is satisfactory (no need to conduct accident-prevention operation and major capital works), in the total amount of objects of cultural heritage of federal ownership, amount of participants of cultural events, amount of Russian cultural promotions, which are carried out abroad, publication of books and leaflets for educational, scientific and cultural purposes, percent of new author's works of professional art in the general repertoire of performers, theatres, and concert organizations.

Components of macro-environment are closely connected to each other and have mutual influence as well. Change of condition of one of the components influences other parts of macro-environment, which can lead to their change and bigger influence on organizations.

2 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

2.1 Scope of "national innovative environment"

National, regional, and local management levels provide "growth" of national innovative environment, which, in return, appears as a factor of

regions' appeal in terms of location of investment and making modern competitive productions.

National innovative environment includes the following elements (objects and conditions):

1. legal entities and individuals, in particular, founders of innovations (innovators), subjects of innovations (customers), manufacturing facili ties of new technology, innovative mediators, investors, state, and innovation consumers;

2. complex of conditions (legislative regulations, formal, and informal rules etc.), which have influence on interrelation between them. The aim of their interrelation is solving economic, social, and ecological problems in the country.

Analysis of subjects of innovative activities and study of a global experience made it possible to make the following conclusion: innovative activity should be expressed not only by specialized sub jects of national innovative system, but all other subjects of national economy. Moreover, it is nec essary to point out the following groups: scientists, who make scientific discoveries and inventions, innovators, who know how to turn discoveries and inventions into innovations, and also entrepre neurs, who make innovative products.

2.2 Evaluation methods of national innovative environment

Finding strategic conditions, having a great influ

ence on the development of innovative process,

was performed in several stages: 1. determination of the list of conditions (by expertise); 2. selection of values that characterize conditions (by expertise); 3. selection of resulting values; 4. gathering values from reliable sources; 5. building of correlative model and analysis of obtained correlation dependences; 6. finding key conditions that have influence (positive and negative) on development of innovative process; 7. building of regression model and its test for representativeness; 8. analysis of regression model; 9. making conclusions; 10. finding key conditions and guarantees for development of innovative process considering particular characteristics of the current situation. 2.3 Evaluation results of national innovative environment of Russia Result analysis of pair correlation has shown that the condition and dynamics of innovative process development in Russia are influenced by the following factors: – changing frequency of legislative environment (–0.9); – monetary state policy (–0.8); – inflation (–0.91); – net inflow (+)/outflow (–) of capital into a private sector (–0.91); – level of economic activity of population (–0.79); – percentage of companies dealing with technological innovations (+0.77); – changes in the ruble's exchange rate to the US dollar (–0.83). Obtained results of pair correlation dependence tell that positive influence on innovative process development in the last decade is due to the increase of percentage of companies dealing with technological innovations. Other factors adversely affect innovative process development, and this mostly appeared after crisis in 2008. Regression analysis made it possible to build a real model: Y = – 5707. 2 + 84.9 X1 + 14.8 X2 – 8.7 X3 where, Y – created (developed) advanced manufacturing technologies; X1 – level of economic activity of population; X2 – percentage of companies dealing with technological innovations;

X3 – changes in the ruble's exchange rate to the

US dollar.

Thus, results of building of a regression model

(1) show that only three conditions are strategic and

they determine development of current innovative process. Moreover, increase of economic activity of population and growth of percentage of com panies dealing with technological innovations has positive effects and constant changes in the ruble's exchange rate to the US dollar—negative.

3 CONCLUSION

Increase of economic activity of population and companies dealing with technological innovations requires development of motives and incentives not only for organization and companies dealing with innovative activities, but for the whole popu lation of Russia, starting from preschool age. It is necessary to form a special model of innovative culture of population, according to which appear ance of innovations became a usual function for everybody. Changes in the ruble’s exchange rate to the US dollar are a nationwide level problem and its solution lies in modernization of native industry at a new technological platform. Increase of companies dealing with technological innova tions depends on the quality of training of person nel that is competent in creating, supporting, and organizing innovative activities.

Performed evaluation made it possible to make

the following conclusions:

– Russia takes formation of national innovative environment as daily needs for development of innovative process;

– strategic conditions for development of innovative process are level of economic activity of population, percentage of companies dealing with technological innovations and changes in the ruble's exchange rate to the US dollar;

– a number of priority areas for formation of national innovative environment shall include, first of all, modernization of native industry at a new technological platform as a basis for innovative transformation, development of activation motivating innovative activity of instruments of economic, social, and psychological nature, and, certainly, qualitative personnel preparation of a new formation, which implement innovation oriented behavior model.

Assessment, I. (2010). Innovative Assessment for the 21st Century. Assessment, 49–68. http://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4419-6530-1. Banai, M., Chanin, M. & Teng, B.S. (1999). Russian managers' perceptions of prospective Russian–US joint ventures. International Business Review. http://doi.org/10.1016/S0969-5931(98)00036-5. Birkinshaw, J.M., Hamel, G. & Mol, M.J. (2008). Management innovation. Academy of Management Review, 33(4), 825–845.

http://doi.org/10.5465/ AMR.2008.34421969. Calori, R., Melin, L., Atamer, T. & Gustavsson, P. (2000). Innovative international strategies. Journal of World Business. http://doi.org/10.1016/ S1090-9516(00)00042-0. Carmeli, A. & Spreitzer, G.M. (2009). Trust, Connectivity, and Thriving: Implications for Innovative Behaviors at Work. The Journal of Creative Behavior, 43(3), 169-191. http://doi.org/10.1002/j.2162-6057.2009. tb01313.x. De Jong, J. & den Hartog, D. (2010). Measuring Innovative Work Behaviour. Creativity and Innovation Management, 19(1), 23-36. http://doi. org/10.1111/j.1467-8691.2010.00547.x. Elenkov, D. (2005). Top Management Leadership and Influence on Innovation: The Role of Sociocultural Context. Journal of Management. http://doi. org/10.1177/0149206304272151. Faria, A.P. & Barbosa, N. (2014). Does venture capital really foster innovation? Economics Letters, 122(2), 129-131. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.econlet.2013.11.014. Fedosova, R. & Kheyfits, B. (2010) Grouping of domestic defense companies on the basis of cluster analysis. Macroeconomics, 4, 13-17. Fedosova, R. & Yussuf, A. (2013). Assessment of investment attractiveness of the region in the innovation economy: an integrated approach. Actual problems of management in Russia: the formation of effective systems of strategic management in the Russian Federation at the federal and regional levels: 205-209. St. Petersburg.: Center of the Faculty of Economic SPSU. Fedosova, R. (2012). Human development in the innovation economy. Bulletin of the University (Financial University under the Government of the Russian Federation, 4, 97-100. Fedosova, R. (2014). Strategic Development of Small Businesses in Russian Regions. Asian Social Science, 13. Vol. 231-238. DOI - 10.55.39/ass.v10n13p231/. Fedosova, R., Filimonova, N. & Kheyfits, B. (2014). Contemorary Research Fronts for Integrating Russia into Global Value Chains. Conference Book “The International Conference on Management and Technology in Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality 2014 (SERVE 2014)”, Indonesia, 27-28 September 2014. DOI - 10.55.39/ass.v10n13p231/. Godin, B. (2009). National Innovation System: The System Approach in Historical Perspective. Science, Technology & Human Values. http://doi. org/10.1177/0162243908329187. Gokhberg, L. (2004). Russia’s National Innovation System and the “New Economy” Problems of Economic Transition, 46(9), 8-34. Golichenko, O. (2008). The Innovation Activity of Russian Enterprises: Effectiveness, Factors, Bottlenecks. In 3rd European conference on entrepreneurship and innovation, 91-99.

Goncharov, M. (2012). Russian Underground 101.

Retrieved from http://www.trendmicro.com/cloud content/us/pdfs/security-intelligence/white-papers/ wp-russian-underground-101.pdf.

Guler, I. & Guillén, M.F. (2010). Institutions and the internationalization of US venture capital firms. Journal of International Business Studies. http://doi.org/10.1057/jibs.2009.35.

Gurkov, I. (2004). Business innovation in Russian indus try. Post-Communist Economies. http://doi.org/10.10 80/1463137042000309548.

Gurkov, I. (2011). Innovative actions and innovation (in) capabilities of Russian industrial companies: A further extension of observations. Post-Communist Economies. http://doi.org/10.1080/14631377.2011.62 2572.

Hirshleifer, D., Hsu, P.H. & Li, D. (2013). Innovative efficiency and stock returns. Journal of Financial Economics, 107(3), 632–654. http://doi.org/10.1016/j. jfineco.2012.09.011.

Ilyina, M. (2011). Basic approaches to exits of venture projects in Russia: problems and prospects. Bulletin of the University (State University of Management), 23, 133–144.

Ilyina, M. (2012). The mechanism of formation and management of venture capital: Russian reality: Rus

sia 2030 through the eyes of young scientists. In 3rd

All-Russian scientific conference: Moscow, 26th of

April 2012, 133-136.

Linz, Susan J. (2003). Job satisfaction among Russian

workers. International Journal of Manpower. http://

doi.org/10.1108/01437720310496139. Official website of Ministry of Economic Development of the Russian Federation. http://economy.gov.ru/. Ryumkin, A. (2009). Development of innovative clusters based on business-government partnership using the example of Tomsk. Studies on Russian Economic Development. http://doi.org/10.1134/ S1075700709040066. Sarkar, M. B., Echambadi, R., Agarwal, R. & Sen, B. (2006). The effect of the innovative environment on exit of entrepreneurial firms. Strategic Management Journal. http://doi.org/10.1002/smj.534. Schertler, A. & Tykvova, T. (2011). Venture capital and internationalization. International Business Review, 20(4), 423-439. http://doi.org/10.1016/j. ibusrev.2010.07.009. Shmatko, A. & Rastov, M. (2014). Innovative activity of the organization: Dilemmas and choice. Economic Annals-XXI, 3-4 (1), 39-42. Retrieved from http://www.scopus.com/inward/record.url?eid=2-s2.0-84904871087&partnerID=40&md5=a8280bf2cd8251 3923161b732bf9366f. Smits, R. (2002). Innovation studies in the 21st century: Questions from a user's perspective. Technological Forecasting and Social Change, 69 (9), 861-883. http://doi.org/10.1016/S0040-1625(01) 00181-0. Spielkamp, A. & Vopel, K. (1998). Mapping Innovative Clusters in National Innovation Systems. Zentrum für Europäische Wirtschaftsforschung, Mannheim (ZEW)\nCentre for European Economic Research. Thamhain, H.J. (2003). Managing innovative R&D teams. R&D Management, 33(3), 297-311. http://doi. org/10.1111/1467-9310.00299.

A practical approach to modeling of regional state support system for small business development

Y.V. Kuznetsov

Saint-Petersburg State University, Saint Petersburg, Russian Federation

N.M. Filimonova

Vladimir State University, Vladimir, Russian Federation

R.N. Fedosova

Financial University under the Government of the Russian Federation, Moscow, Russian Federation

ABSTRACT: The necessity to develop small and medium businesses at the present stage is determined

by its crucial role in social and economic development of countries. Despite its social and economic impor

tance, small business faces a large number of problems. The purpose of this research is development of a

structural model of state support of small business in the region based on opinions of entrepreneurs using

Structured Analysis And Design Technology (SADT). This research has applied the following methods:

a) questioning of managers of small and medium businesses of Vladimir region with the purpose to

assess importance and quality of performing functions of support system; b) re-engineering of business

processes that enable quality and importance of performing any given business process in the sphere of

support of small and medium businesses; c) methodology of a structured analysis and design SADT that

enable to design and visualize a model for support system of small and medium businesses. Results of the

research showed the following main functions in the area of support of small and medium businesses:

research and update of a regulatory and legal framework; resource support; coordination and motivation

of support authorities for small business; assistance in technology transfer; and protection of entrepre

neurs' interests. on realization of corporate strategies of small and medium businesses (Aykan et al., 2013),

influence of consulting activity on development indicator of small business in the USA (Cumming & Fischer 2012), development of business incubators in the USA (Phillips 2002) etc. Much attention is given to researches in the area of support of innovative small and medium businesses. Materials of foreign scientists consider issues concerning impact of state financing on technological innovations in the sector of small and medium businesses in South Korea and prove high efficiency of such support (Doh & Kim 2014). Kaufmann and Tödtling's paper, which is based on assessing the level of direct financing of innovative projects and analyzing technological centers arrives at conclusions that these forms of support are mostly effective, however, the principal focus should be on commercialization of innovations, consulting implementation (Kaufmann & Tödtling 2002). A range of researches show that direct subsidies used separately or jointly with tax advantages consolidate innovative potential of the company, as well as increase efficiency of innovative activities (Radas et al., 2014).

1 INTRODUCTION

The necessity to develop small business at the present stage is determined by its crucial role in social and economic development of countries. Despite its high social and economic importance, small business faces a large number of problems. The result is that according to one estimates, about 30% of new small businesses are terminated within two years, and about 50% – within five years (Solomon et al., 2013), and according to other estimates—about 60% of enterprises are terminated within three years (Mrva & Stachová 2014). Aiming at increasing efficiency of small business, all countries use different mechanisms for its support and development.

Problems of assessing efficiency of state support

of small business are highlighted in the articles of a number of Russian and foreign scientists. Works of foreign scientists evaluate different instruments for state influence on small and medium busi nesses: usage of financial support in terms of small businesses of Slovakia (Bondareva & Zatrochová 2014), lending to small and medium businesses (Riding & Haines 2001), usage of public procure ment (Nakabayashi 2013), support program impact Regarding operation of a Russian support sys tem of small business, its efficiency is at a quite low level, as evidenced by the researches of a number of Russian scientists (Kuznetsova 2014, Ulitsky 2014). Nevertheless, despite different efficiency evaluation of state support of small business, all scientists come to a general agreement that it is a necessary condition for development of social and economic systems. Comparison between the level of development of small and medium businesses in Russia and for eign countries shows lower level of development of Russian small business.

A lot of programs and legal acts are developed and approved annually, and infrastructure facili ties for development and support of small busi ness are established as well. Programs approved

by central and local authorities are not completely fulfilled, which is not only due to economic and organizational reasons. The main reasons are lack of sufficient procedural framework to develop pro grams, ambiguous definition of objectives, and tasks to reach target goals. As a result, despite major works, the effect of these activities does not correspond to those efforts and requirements for economic development.

The purpose of this research is working-out of a structural model of state support system for small business development in the region based on opin ions of entrepreneurs using SADT.

In this paper, we have defined the following three research questions. How to evaluate the effective ness of the support system in terms of business? What functions of support system is most impor tant for entrepreneurs? How should be formed a support system for small businesses development?

2 METHODOLOGY

Our study included three main stages. On the first stage a survey of entrepreneurs was held. Question ing of entrepreneurs was performed in order to iden tify the necessary functions of the support system of small and medium businesses. Within the research

in this regard were developed questionnaires, which help not only define structure of functions, but also assess their importance for small and medium busi nesses, as well as quality of performing.

On the second stage functions which require optimization were revealed. This paper uses approaches of business process re-engineering (Robson & Ullah 1997) in order to define processes subject to optimization for successful operations of support authorities for small business.

And finally, formation of the support system for small business is designed by means of structured analysis and design technique SADT (Marca & McGowan, 1987), which is intended for functional modeling, according to which support system for small and medium businesses is presented as a complex of interacting processes/works/functions. Functional model of business processes of a support system for small and medium businesses is made in order to provide their visualization, assess optimality of interaction both between different business processes and inside of one business process. Usage of the above-mentioned methods and technologies will help form adaptive support system for small business, which shall: • provide conditions not only for system operation of small businesses, acting on the basis of different forms of ownership, but also their effective and sustainable development; • be dynamic system, give rise to emergence of new partner interaction communication with its components; • fit the requirements of business organizations considering their industry and functional specialization, handling capacity etc; • be available to all business organizations (in terms of dislocation, cost of business services and their quality, awareness of real opportunities etc.) and guarantee solubility of the most important problems concerning

development of small business (access to information networks, provision of property and informational support, solving personnel problems, financial and tax consultations etc). 3 RESULTS Processes having direct influence on development of small business were chosen by means of re-engineering of business processes based on questioning of small business managers of Vladimir region. Factor having direct influence on successful development of small business are chosen as critical success factors. Figure 1. Evaluation of the importance of the functions and the quality of their execution by owners of small and medium-sized businesses.

Zone 1: Here are more crucial processes, which work in inappropriate way. They include strategy development and provision of service support.

Zone 2: These processes have less effect on work of support system for small business. They include development of support programs for small business, examination and selection of investment projects, advisory activity, training, coordination and adjustment of support authorities, stimulation of innovative activity, creation of positive image, and protection of entrepreneurs' interests. Zone 3: These processes have minimal influence and leave comparatively less opportunities for improvement. Analysis results did not detect such processes. Based on specific development priorities there is a model, which shows the way support system for small business should be formed from entrepreneur's point of view in accordance with the structured analysis and design technique SADT. The main objective for modeling is actual support of small business. This objective provides maximum performance of the following functions: • research and update of a regulatory and legal framework; • resource support; • coordination and motivation of support authorities for small business; • assistance in innovation transfer; • protection of entrepreneurs' interests. Business model is presented from entrepreneur's point of view and considers influence of external factors and coordinated interaction of authorities, support system for small business and business entities themselves. Step-by-step approach for modeling support for small business, which is performed by means of IDEF 3.1 software program, is presented in Figure 3. The function of research and update of a regulatory and legal framework is performed by support infrastructure authorities for small business, and then offers are brought to approval of a Legislative meeting. Management is performed on the basis of active legislation, support programs for small business

and methods for analysis and research. The result of function performing is the developed strategy and updated regulatory and legal framework. On the first stage to form strategy it is required to use existed information. Periodically adjusted regulatory and legal framework and action strategy are the main among all functions. The strategy is the most principal and important arrangements, plans, intentions directed at development of small business. To perform functions of resource support it is necessary to implement the following subfunctions: development of an investment project; expert estimation of the project; supplying information on resource sources; using mechanisms to involve resources; project implementation; and efficiency monitoring of the used resources. The function of coordination and motivation of support authorities for small business considers development of the motivating model of their activities. This stage reveals deficient, weak, and duplicate functions. Besides, due to constantly changing social and economic and political situ

Figure 2. The ranking of processes:

Critical success factors and main functions

in the area of small business support are shown

in Figure 1. A number of critical success factors

show relative function importance by expert evalu

ation method according to the scale from 1 to 8 (it

depends on the number of critical success factors).

We have selected the following critical success fac

tors using expert judgment methods: taxation;

simplicity and transparency of the registration and

licensing procedures; adequate information; quali

fied business owners; skilled labor; financial and

credit support; technical support; and complex

legal support. Processes influencing a great num

bers of factors are critical for support authorities

for small business. Quality of work performance is assessed by expert judgment method according to the scale from 1 to 5.

By using the built matrix (Figure 2), it is possi ble to determine functions in order of importance in compliance with zones.

ations in the country, there must be provided long term functions. Coordination process is performed under revealed functions within the activities of the support authorities considering horizontal and vertical integration. For successful implemen tation of assigned tasks there is necessity for moti vation of support authorities for business.

Formation of a motivation system, which is based only on financial encouragement, is inap propriate in modern Russian conditions due to deficiency of financial resources. Development of staff motivation mechanism to labor and pro fessionalism increase should not be performed “by a pattern.” The highest labor productivity in different equal can be reached in case of person nel individual motives and mechanism adapta tion of their satisfaction. And the effect is bigger, if employee is able to participate in development of the corresponding program. When focus is

only on salary, specialist's feedback is expected

minimal. That’s why coordinative and motivation

policy should be aimed at development of small

business.

The function of assistance in innovation trans

fer is performed by support authorities for busi

ness. Except for the above mentioned regulatory

factors, there are assessment criteria for investment

projects. The result of performing this function is

new products, goods, and services. Profit is formed

by commercialization of innovative ideas. The function of protection of entrepreneurs’ interests is necessary for carrying out business activities. It leads to precedents and their preliminary analysis. Concept implementation starts with assigning an authorized person to control the program (project manager). Support authorities for small business are involved in implementation of all functions. When implementing “coordinate and motivate” function, it is necessary to make a structural subdivision in the Support center for small business, which could intentionally satisfy his objectives. Considering structure of the deep-laid model for support of small business, it is necessary to develop a program for high priority activities, which are focused on reaching the desired objectives. 4 CONCLUSION Analysis of small business support system has shown its multifunctional character, availability of duplication, and overlap in its activities. Training, consulting activity, and information support are the most common functions that do not require significant financial costs. We have selected functions that require improvement and identified a number of new directions by using business process reengineering. The model shows how the business support system should be formed in terms of the entrepreneur

Figure 3. Model of small and medium businesses support.

built by using the SADT, and it allows updating

and adapting to changes in the external environ
ment. The following new features were included in
the model: research and update of a regulatory and
legal framework, coordination, and motivation of
support authorities for small business. The develop
ment is realized through the following key processes
included in the model: research and update of a
regulatory and legal framework; resource support;
coordination and motivation of support authorities
for small business; assistance in innovation transfer;
and protection of entrepreneurs' interests. The pro
posed model determines the order of the functions
and can be detailed.

As can be seen from the above, analysis of busi
ness processes of support authorities for small
business and thereupon formation of functional
model shall become favorable methods to increase
system efficiency, as:

• concept of activities of support authorities for
small business as completing a complex of busi
ness processes enables to have a new vision of
their functioning, in order to avoid unreasona
ble duplication of functions, addition of already
existing functions with new ones due to constant
changes in social and economic and political sit

uation in regions;

• introduced definition system enables to perform final decomposition when creating a functional model, which illustrates structure and interrela tions of business processes of support authori ties for small business and their components;

• functional model of business processes of sup port authorities for small business is a source of information about functions and relations between them (i.e., business processes and their interrelations), and this information can be extracted from the model and presented in the form of a separate database, which can further be used to solve different tasks;

• updated functional model of business processes, which is built based on the results of changes can become a subject for analysis and optimization for several times before reaching the best results.

Aykan, E., Aksoylu, S., & Sönmez, E. (2013). Effects of Support Programs on Corporate Strategies of Small and Medium-sized Enterprises. Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 99, 938-946. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.10.567. Bondareva, I., & Zatrochová, M. (2014). Financial Support for the Development of SMEs in the Slovak Republic. Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 110, 541-548. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.12.898. Cumming, D.J., & Fischer, E. (2012). Publicly funded business advisory services and entrepreneurial outcomes. Research Policy,

41(2), 467-481. doi:10.1016/j. respol.2011.09.004. Doh, S., & Kim, B. (2014). Government support for SME innovations in the regional industries: The case of government financial support program in South Korea. Research Policy, 43(9), 1557-1569. doi:10.1016/j. respol.2014.05.001. Kaufmann, A., & Tödtling, F. (2002). How effective is innovation support for SMEs? An analysis of the region of Upper Austria. Technovation, 22(3), 147- 159. doi:10.1016/S0166-4972(00)00081-X. Kuznecova, Ju.A., Murtazina, Je.Z. (2014). Ctrategija razvitija malogo i srednego predprinimatel'stva v respublike Bashkortostan: ocenka rezul'tativnosti. Rossijskij jekonomicheskij internet-zhurnal, 1, 11. Marca, D.A., & McGowan, C.L. (1987). Sadt: Structured Analysis and Design Techniques. Mcgraw Hill Software Engineering Series. Mrva, M., & Stachová, P. (2014). Regional Development and Support of SMEs – How University Project can Help. Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 110, 617-626. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.12.906. Nakabayashi, J. (2013). Small business set-asides in procurement auctions: An empirical analysis. Journal of Public Economics, 100, 28-44. doi:10.1016/j. jpubeco.2013.01.003. Phillips, R.G. (2002). Technology business incubators: how effective as technology transfer mechanisms? Technology in Society, 24(3), 299-316. doi:10.1016/ S0160-791X(02)00010-6. Radas, S., Anić, I.-D., Tafro, A., & Wagner, V. (2014). The effects of public support schemes on small and medium enterprises. Technovation. doi:10.1016/j. technovation.2014.08.002. Riding, A.L., & Haines, G. (2001). Loan guarantees. Journal of Business Venturing, 16(6), 595-612. doi:10.1016/ S0883-9026(00)00050-1. Robson, M., & Ullah, P. (1997). A practical guide to business process re-engineering. Long Range Planning, 30(1), 140. doi:10.1016/S0024-6301(97)86595-8. Solomon, G.T., Bryant, A., May, K., & Perry, V. (2013). Survival of the fittest: Technical assistance, survival and growth of small businesses and implications for public policy. Technovation, 33(8-9), 292-301. doi:10.1016/j.technovation.2013.06.002. Ulickij, M.P., Holodova, A.O. (2014). Razvitie sistemy gosudarstvennoj podderzhki MSP v Rossijskoj Federacii s uchetom mirovogo opyta. Vestnik Moskovskogo avtomobil'no-dorozhnogo gosudarstvennogo tehnicheskogo universiteta (MADI), 3(38), 60-65. This page intentionally left blank

The evaluation of physical and environmental factors

in low-cost housing

W.R.A. Jiram, A.A. Bujang, I.A. Zairuslan & H.A. Zarin

Department of Real Estate, Faculty of Geoinformation and Real Estate, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia,

Johor Bahru, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: Physical and environmental aspects of the residential buildings are the factors that deter

mine the level of satisfaction measurement residence. This study attempts to identify the factors that affect

the physical and environmental satisfaction of low-cost housing schemes, and measures the relationship

between the physical environment and the factors that contributes to social problems. The instrument

used was questionnaire as to obtain feedback from respondents. Descriptive analysis and Chi-Square test

were performed to analyze the data. The study reveals that physical and environmental elements have a

significant relationship with social problems. and environmental elements that affect the satisfaction of the low-cost housing scheme. The study also sought to evaluate the relationship between physical and environment characteristics that contribute to social problems. 2 HOUSING NEEDS AND SATISFACTION 2.1 Conceptual From the theoretical aspects of housing needs, an individual will be motivated to achieve his objectives and meet the needs of his own until they feel enough satisfaction. According to Wahba & Bridgewell (1976), Maslow's hierarchy needs' theory from Islamic perspective has always been referred to basic human requirements (1908-1970). In the Maslow's theory of housing needs, housing is defined as personal and family needs, and it represents the physical boundary that separates one family with another family, and between men and women from different families (Golland, 2004). Therefore, the factors that determine housing needs should be considered. Demographic structure, credit facilities and household income are an important element to determine housing needs (Hasmah et al. 2004). The concept of housing or residential satisfaction is often employed to evaluate residents' satisfaction of the physical and environmental quality of their housing units (Michelson, 1977; Galster & Hesser, 1981; Ogu, 2002; Bonaiuto et al. 2003; Van Kamp et al, 2003 Mohit & Nazydah, 2011). Indicators of housing satisfaction used by many building designers, planners,

developers and policy makers in planning and creating a form of housing that is suitable

1 INTRODUCTION

The establishment of the National Housing Policy (NHP) is to outline the direction to the planning and development of affordable and comfortable housing to improve the welfare of the people. The establishment of this policy is to address the complex issues and challenges faced by the housing industry to ensure sustainable growth in the housing industry. Significant agenda to be implemented is the provision of low-cost housing. First Malaysia Plan (1966–1970) put more emphasis on improving the welfare of low-income people by providing low-cost housing to them. But now, the emphasis should be given to streamlining strategy in affordable housing delivery system and to provide high quality homes and residential environments that foster healthy and sustainable (Malaysia, 2011).

Therefore, rapid development of low-cost housing alone simply does not reflect to the quality of life and residential satisfaction. The quality of human life is associated with basic human needs' fulfillment, which is housing and environmental quality (Nurizan, 1998). According to

Lane & Kinsey (1980), Savasdisara et al. (1989), Zakiyah et al. (2000), Ogu (2002), and Mohit & Nazydah (2011), the physical aspects of building and housing environment play an important role in residents' satisfaction.

Therefore, the question that arises is whether the current occupancy of low-cost housing units provides residents' satisfaction. Then, what are the characteristics of the physical buildings and hous ing environments affecting resident satisfaction. Thus, the study attempts to identify the physical for a variety of community groups (Ukoha & Beamish, 1997). It works as a valuation measure ment to assess the success of a project housing development undertaken by either the public or private sector (Djebarni & Al-Abed, 2000).

Morris & Winter (1975) introduced the idea of housing deficit and housing satisfaction as a dynamic process. In a model adjusted for residential housing, they argue that households assess hous ing conditions according to personal or cultural norms. An incongruity between the actual housing satisfaction and housing norms causes the housing deficit. This leads to some form of housing adjust ments, which are to review the needs and aspira

tions of existing housing, including low-income earners who occupied housing provided by the public and private sectors because they suffer from various problems, particularly in terms of housing affordability.

Large gap between the capabilities of the sale price of existing houses has forced them to live in poor housing quality, basic facilities uncomfort able that directly affect their housing satisfaction. Therefore, low-cost housing program introduced by the government is an alternative or solution to help low-income people to own a home. How ever, the development of low-cost housing projects alone will not make any difference if residents can not enjoy a comfortable life.

2.2 Physical determinants and housing environment determinants

Many studies provide a result that satisfaction with housing is an important element affecting the quality of life (Peck & Stewart, 1985; Husna & Nurizan, 1987; Lawrence, 1995). Dissatisfied with housing can lead to various forms of implications such as environmental pollution, congestion, affect mental health and family problems (Nurizan, 1998). Thus, in identifying the satisfaction level

of a housing element, it is including physical fac

tors and the housing environment factors (Lane &

Kinsey, 1980; Savasdisara et al. 1989; Zakiyah et al.

2000; Ogu, 2002; Mohit & Nazyddah, 2011).

Physical factor that influence the satisfaction

of low-cost housing are accommodation aspect

(Zakiyah et al. 2000) accomodations sizes (Sulong,

1984; Husna & Nurizan, 1987; Nurizan and Hali

mah, 1992; Razali, 1993; Zakiyah, 1995), internal

building facility unit (Husna & Nurizan,1987; and

Mohit et al, 2010), and building support facilities

unit (Ukoha & Beamish,1997).

The environmental factors that influence the

satisfaction of low-cost housing are public ameni

ties (Tiun, 2006), neighborhood development

(Parkes and Kearns, 2004; Ross, 2000; 2001),

social environment (Nurizan, 1998; Francescato

et al. 1987). 3 METHODOLOGY A survey method was employed for the study, and structured questionnaire were pilot tested and distributed to the resident of low cost housing scheme, Jentayu Apartment in the district of Kangkar Pulai City to obtain their feedback on the physical and environment satisfaction of the housing scheme. Sample was derived from Taro Yamane (1973) formula at 85% of confidence interval. The questionnaires were distributed to 41 respondents. The items in the questionnaire were largely drawn from previous studies from Nadia, Sharifah & Afifah (2000); Nuriz (1998); Nadia (2001); Hafazah (2008); and Mohit & Nazyddah (2011). The questionnaire is thus divided into 3 parts; Part (A) compiles the background information of the respondents; Part (B) gathers information on the satisfaction of residents with physical and environmental factors, housing and Section (C) also aims to look at the

relationship between physical factors and residential environments that contribute to social problems. Residents' satisfaction level was assessed on a 5-item rating scale indicated as (1) very dissatisfied, (2) dissatisfied (3) neutral, (4) satisfied and (5) very satisfied. Survey data were analysed by using the descriptive statistics and further analyses of Pearson chi-square statistic were used to evaluate the significant relationship of the items based on profile variables. 4 ANALYSIS AND INTREPRETATION 4.1 Respondent profile 4.2 Evaluation of physical and environmental determinants Table 1 shows the satisfaction level of the physical factors for low-cost housing scheme. It comprises with accomodation aspects, sizes of each accommodation, internal building facilities unit and building support unit. Majority of the respondents dissastified with accommodation aspects of each unit provided. The results show that the internal building facility of physical element is important in determining the housing satisfaction, with the highest mean score of 3.70. Meanwhile, for the accommodation and the size of each unit, the analysis shows that this aspect has the lowest mean score of 2.78. Table 3 shows the environment elements that affect the level of residents' satisfaction of low-cost housing. Public amenities facilities is an element of housing environment that plays an important role in influencing the level of housing satisfaction. Table 3 also shows that most respondents gave a moderate satisfaction with public utility facilities such as open space, lobby space, roads,

Table 1. Respondent profile.

Profile Percentage

Ethnicity

Malay

Chinese

Indian 71.9 12.3 15.8

Age group

31-35

36-40

41-45

46-50

Above 50 3.5 15.8 21.1 24.6 35.1

Marital status

Single

Married

Divorcee 8.8 80.7 10.5

Period of occupancy

1990-1995

1996-2000

2001-2005

2006-2010 29.8 47.4 8.8 14

Household income

1000-2000

2001-3000

Above 3000 68.4 22.8 8.8

Household number

1-3

4-6

Above 6 3.5 82.5 14

Table 2. Satisfaction Level with Physical determinants.

Physical Factors Mean Score Average Mean Score

Accommodation Aspects

Bathroom/toilet

Kitchen

Lounge/Family area

Bedroom numbers

Dining Area

Living Area 3.02 2.84 2.79 2.77 2.65 2.60 2.78

Sizes Aspects

Sizes of master bedroom

Sizes of bathroom/toilet

Sizes of Kitchen Area

Sizes of Living Area

Sizes of Lounge/Family Area

Sizes of Dining Area

Sizes of additional bedroom 3.75 2.91 2.86 2.56 2.56 2.56
2.28 2.78

Internal Building Facilities Unit

Ventilation System

Piping/Water Supply

Electric ‘socket point’ 3.86 3.86 3.37 3.70

Building Support Unit

Staircase condition

Corridor condition

Drainage conditions: drains

and ditches

Garbage collection services Fire

Fighting System Condition 3.77 3.74 3.72 3.63 3.37 3.65 and
retail facilities, where these elements scored 4.00
respectively. For neighborhood development, majority of
respondents are satisfied with the distance to the
clinic/hospital and also the distance to the nearest
police/fire station where the mean score shown is 4.28.

They also satisfied with the distance to the markets and public transport provided in which the mean score shown is 4.00. The moderate satisfaction given by the respondents to the distance to office/work and also to the shopping center where the total mean score was 3.16 and 3.53. However, respondents dissatisfied with the distance to the city center where the lowest mean score was demonstrated at 2.86. In addition, the respondents also not satisfied with the social environment as well as the crime, noise and, air pollution occurs. This is where a low mean score at 2.02 explains that the high level of dissatisfaction, followed by the total mean score 2.28 and 2.56. However, for social environment like water pollution, accident, and neighborhood, the mean scores shows the moderate sattisfaction among the respondents. Table 3 shows the average mean score for each factor that affects the level of satisfaction with elements of the housing environment. The analysis found that the main factors influencing the level Table 3. Satisfaction level of environment factors of housing. Environment Factors Mean Score Average Mean Score Social environment Neighbourhood Water pollution Accident Air pollution Crime Noise 3.89 3.75 3.58 2.56 2.28 2.02 3.01 Public Amenities Facilities Open Space Lobby space Road facilities Retails store facilities Parking space area Children’s playground Worship house Public phone facilities Walkways 4.00 4.00 4.00 4.00 3.93 3.91 3.74 3.53 3.51 3.85 Neighbourhoods Developments Distance to clinic/hospitals Distance to police/fire station Distance to school Distance to market Public transportation; bus, taxi etc. Distance to shopping centre Distance to office/work Distance to city centre 4.28 4.28 4.00 4.00 4.00 3.53 3.16 2.86 3.76

Table 4. The relationship between period of occupancy and satisfaction level with physical and social environment

of housing.

Physical and Social

Environmental Elements Analysis Value df (Degree of redeem) Asymp. Sig. (2 Sided) Housing Satisfaction Accommodation Aspects

Bedroom Nos.

Living area

Dining area

Lounge/family area

Kitchen area

Bathroom/toilets Pearson’s Chi-Square 26.091 24.979 20.803
19.044 18.097 21.673 6 6 6 6 3 6 .000 .000 .002 .004 .000
.001 Significant Sizes Aspects

Sizes of additional bedroom

Sizes of Kitchen Area

Sizes of living area

Sizes of lounge/family area

Sizes of dining area

Sizes of bathroom/toilet Pearson’s Chi-Square 43.133
19.433 30.572 11.319 11.319 20.711 6 6 6 3 3 6 .000 .003
.000 .010 .010 .002 Significant Internal Building
Facilities Aspects

Electric ‘socket point’ Chi-Square 21.100 6 .002
Significant Public Ammenities

Walkaways

Public phone Pearson’s Chi-Square 14.426 13.177 6 3 .025
.004 Significant Significant Social Environment

Neighborhood Pearson’s Chi-Square 20.604 9 .015 Significant

of respondents’ satisfaction is a public amenities

facilities with an average mean score 3.85, followed

by the neighborhood development with total mean

score 3.76, and the social environment with aver

age mean score 3.01.

Table 3 shows that the majority of respondents

expressed a moderate satisfaction to all elements

of this housing environment. The results show that

the housing environment elements such as public

amenities facilities, neighborhood development

and the environment gave the moderate level of

satisfaction for low-cost housing dwellers.

4.3 The relationship between physical and environment factors of housing that influence the residents' satisfaction level of low-cost housing

In the evaluation of physical elements and hous

ing environment that affects the level of resi

dents satisfaction, Pearsons' Chi-Square statistic

was employed. Pearson's Chi-Square was used to

observe wether there is significant relationship

between each item at 0.05 (Zakiyah et al. 2000).

Table 4 shows the result of the Pearson's Chi

Square analysis of the period of occupancy with

physical and environmental elements of the hous

ing. Based on the analysis of the housing elements, there are 16 physical characteristics and housing environment has the significant value less than 0.05. Table 5 shows the result of the Pearson's ChiSquare analysis on the total number of households with physical and environmental elements of the housing. There are 15 physical characteristics and housing environment significantly less value than 0.05. It can be concluded that all the physical and environment characteristics of the housing those found in Table 5 is influence the level of residence satisfaction at this housing scheme. 5 FINDINGS Based on the analysis, it can be concluded that the physical elements of the building and the housing environment greatly influence the level of housing satisfaction of low-cost housing in the study area. Zakiyah et al. (2000) in their study on the level of occupant satisfaction in low-cost housing in Jitra, Kedah, found that the level of occupant satisfaction is influenced by physical factors and home environment. Some of its elements is the aspects of accommodation/space, sizes/area, the internal building facilities unit, building support units, public amenities

facilities, surrounding/neighborhood develop
ment and social environment. For elements that do
not achieve the desired level of satisfaction by the
residents, it can lead to many implications, includ
ing environmental pollution, congestion, affecting
the mental health and social and family problems
(Sooman & Macintyre, 1995; Nurizan, 1998; Dan
nenberg et al. 2003; Srinivasan et al. 2003)
Therefore, it can be concluded that the design of
the housing unit is very important in ensuring the
satisfaction to the population. Housing accommo
dation elements should be given serious attention
by developers in order to reduce social problems,
particularly among residents of low-cost housing.
Dissatisfaction with physical factors and the envi
ronment will lead to negative social impacts to the
population.

6 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the physical elements of the build
ing and housing environment is as important
factors in determining the level of housing satis
faction, especially for low-cost housing residents.
In the design of low-cost housing projects, devel
opers must comply with the guidelines issued by
the state government. Government also needs to

monitor every housing development project under

Table 5. The relationship between number of household and satisfaction level with physical and social environment

of housing.

Physical and Social

Environmental Elements Analysis Value df (Degree of redeem) Asymp. Sig. (2 Sided) Housing Satisfaction Accommodation Aspects

No. of bedroom

Living area

Dining area

Kitchen area

Bathroom/toilets Pearson’s Chi-Square 10.803 22.148 66.121 8.995 16.025 4 4 4 2 4 .029 .000 .000 .011 .003 Significant Significant Significant Significant Significant Sizes Aspects

Sizes of additional bedroom

Sizes of Kitchen Area

Sizes of lounge/family area

Sizes of dining area

Sizes of bathroom/toilet Pearson’s Chi-Square 14.587 9.500 8.341 8.341 17.676 4 4 2 2 4 .006 .050 .015 .015 .001 Significant Significant Significant Significant Significant Internal Building Facilities Aspects

Electric ‘socket point’ Chi-Square 26.215 4 .000 Significant Building Support Unit Facilities

Drainage conditions:drains, etc.

Garbage collection services Pearson’s Chi-Square 10.581 6.663 2 2 .005 .036 Significant Significant Social Environment

Air pollution

Neighbourhood Pearson’s Chi-Square 11.057 18.618 4 6 .026 .005 Significant Significant

Galster, G.C., & Hesser, G. W. 1981. Residential satisfaction compositional and contextual correlates. Environment and behavior, 13(6), 735-758.

Golland, Andrew. 2004. Housing Development: Theory, Process and Practice. Routledge.

Hafazah A.K. (2008). The Satisfaction of Residents on Community Facilities in Shah Alam, Malaysia. Asian Social Sciene, Vol. 4, No. 11.

Hasmah, Bujang & Fildaus 2004. Kesan Pembangunan Kolej Universiti Teknologi Tun Hussien Onn (KUiTTHO) Terhadap Keperluan Perumahan Kakitangan (Kajian Kes: Parit Raja, Batu Pahat, Johor): Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.

Husna, S., & Nurizan, Y. 1987. Housing Provision and Satisfaction of Low-Income Households in Kuala Lumpur. Habitat International, 11(4), 27-38.

Lawrence, R.J. 1995. Housing Quality: An Agenda for Research. Urban studies, 32(11): 1155-1664.

Michelson, W. 1977. Environmental choice, human behavior, and residential satisfaction. New York: Oxford University Press.

Mohit, M.A., Ibrahim, M., & Razita, Y. 2010. Assessment of residential satisfaction in newly designed public low-cost housing in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. Habitat

International, 34(1), 18-27.

Mohit M.A. & N. Nazydah. 2011. Social Housing Pro
gramme of Selangor Zakat Board of Malaysia and
Housing Satisfaction. J. Hous. And the Built Environ
ment, 26:143-164.

Mohit, M. A., Ibrahim, M., & Rashid, Y.R. 2010. Assess
ment of residential satisfaction in newly designed
public low-cost housing in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.
Habitat International, 34(1), 18-27.

Morris, E.W., & Winter, M. 1975. A Theory of Family
Housing Adjustment. Journal of Marriage and the
Family, 37, 79-88.

Ministry of Housing and Local Government Malaysia
(2010). Malaysia Housing Policies. National Housing
Department.

Malaysia (2011). Tenth Malaysia Plan (2011-2015).
Putrajaya: Prime Minister's Department.

Nazaruddin M.Y.; Khairul A.O.; Khadafi H.R.; Nizho
A.R. & Azman M.Z. 2004. Pembudayaan Nilai Islam
dalam Rekabentuk Rumah Tradisional Masyarakat
Melayu. Fakulti Pengurusan Awam dan Undang-un
dang dan Fakulti Sains Kognitif dan Pendidikan.

Nurizan, Y. 1993. Space Deficit in Low-Cost Household of
Peninsular Malaysia. Kajian Malaysia, 11(1), 56-75.

Nurizan Y. 1998. Kualiti Perumahan dan Kualiti Hidup.

Analisis 5 (1&2), 133-149.

NurizanY., & Halimah A. 1992. Space deficit in low cost

households of Peninsular Malaysia. Journal of Malay

sian Studies, 11(2) 79-92.

Nurizan Y. & Halimah A. 1996. Kepuasan dan Defisit

Perumahan di Rumah Kos Rendah Semenanjung

Malaysia. Manusia dan Masyarakat, 7:3-20. Ogu, V. I. 2002. Urban Residential Satisfaction and the Planning Implications in a Developing World Context: The Example of Benin City, Nigeria. International Planning Studies, 7(1), 37-53. Peck, C. & Steward, K.K. (1985). Satisfaction with Housing and Quality of Life. Home Academic Research Journal, 13(4): 363-372. Razali, A. 1993. Transit House: Privatization of LowCost Housing in Peninsular Malaysia. In International seminar and exhibition on low-cost housing. Penang: Universiti Sains Malaysia. Rossi, P.H. 1955. Why families move? Glencoe. Illinois: The Free Press. Savasdisara, T., Tips, W.E.J., & Suwannodom, S. 1989. Residential Satisfaction in Private Estates in Bangkok: A Comparison of Low-Cost Housing Estates and Determinant Factors. Habitat International, 13(1), 65-73. Sooman, A., & Macintyre, S. 1995. Health and perceptions of the local environment in socially contrasting neighbourhoods in Glasgow. Health & Place, 1(1), 15-26. Srinivasan, S., O'Fallon, L.R., & Dearry, A. 2003. Creating healthy communities, healthy homes, healthy people: initiating a research agenda on the built environment and public health. American journal of public health, 93(9), 1446-1450. Sulong 1984. Perumahan Kos Rendah di Terengganu. Monograf 10. Fakulti Sains Kemasyarakatan dan Kemanusiaan, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. Tiun, L.T. 2006. Managing High-Rise Residential Building In Malaysia: Where Are We?. Persatuan Sains Sosial, Universiti Putra Malaysia. 8-10 Ogos 2006. Fakulti Ekologi, Universiti Putra Malaysia. Ukoha, O.M., & Beamish, J.O. 1997. Assessment of Resident's Satisfaction with Public Housing in Abuja, Nigeria. Habitat International, 21(4), 445-460. Van Kamp, I., Leidelmeijer, K., Marsman, G., & De Hollander, A. 2003. Urban environmental quality and human well-being: Towards a conceptual framework and demarcation of concepts; a literature study. Landscape and urban planning, 65(1), 5-18. Wahba, A., & Bridgewell, L. 1976. Maslow reconsidered: A review of research on the need hierarchy

theory. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 15, 212-240. Yamane, T. 1973. Statistics, An Introductory Analysis. Third Edition. New York: Harper & Row. Zakiyah J. 2001. Kepuasan Terhadap Perumahan dan Sistem Perumahan Berkonsepkan Islam. Sekolah Pembangunan Sosial, Universiti Utara Malaysia, Jilid/Volume 2. Zakiyah J., Sharifah S.A.S.I. & Afifah A.Y. 2000. Kepuasan Terhadap Perumahan dan Impak Terhadap Permasalahan Sosial. Prosiding Seminar Kebangsaan Kerja Sosial, Sekolah Pembangunan Sosial, Universiti Utara Malaysia.

A case study of Chiang Mai province, Thailand

T. Kamnardsiri, N. Choosri & P. Sureephong

College of Arts, Media and Technology, Chiang Mai University, Chiang Mai, Thailand

A. Lbath

Mathematics, Information Sciences and Technologies and Computer Science, Joseph Fourier University,

Grenoble, France

ABSTRACT: In this paper, we investigate the preference of Thai tourists such as accommodations,

restaurants, attractions and transportation modes. Moreover, the purpose of this study is to construct a

websites. The questionnaire consists of two parts, Tourist and Tourism information. Data were collected

by the survey from Thai tourists in Chiang Mai and analyzed by SPSS 17 statistic software including the

reliability coefficients, descriptive, and inference statistics by using the compared means and ANOVA.

The results showed the interesting facts, for example, age group of 25-44 years old, in the Accommodation

domain, they prefer Hotel as well as Resort, Attraction domain is Food and Sightseeing Tours, Restaurant

1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism is becoming one of the most important

sources of income in the global economic as well as business aspects. That was around 1,074 billion Baht (9% of the direct contribution of total gross domestic product of tourism industry in 2013) and around 215 million people worldwide are employed (WTTC, 2014). In Thailand, the Thai Department of Tourism reported that Thailand is one of the most significant locations for travelling in the world and also earn the income from tourism. Accord ing to the TAT (2014), an approximately 4,767,362 persons visited Chiang Mai between January and September in 2014; that increases (3.60%) from 2013. There is portion between internal (Thai) and international (Foreigners) with a proportion (64:36)% (TAT, 2014). Similarly, the Department of Tourism (2012) surveyed from 4,047 respond ents. It revealed that the visitors from internal had the greater number than international visitors in Thailand with ratio (60:40) (TST, 2012). Since the expectation of tourist destination has changed and a number of tour data rapidly increased, therefore, the information technology for recommending an appropriate tourists needs is required. An informa tion and Communication Technology (ICT) plays an important role in tourism Recommendation

System (RS), that is an intelligent software appli
cation class. It offers the recommendation to seek
tourist and tourism attributes. Section 4, a meth
odology of this study. Section 5, results of study.
Section 6, conclusion of this paper as well as the
future work.

2 BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON THAILAND AND STUDY COMMUNITIES

2.1 Thailand

In 2013, Thailand was ranked 17th in the world
that generated the total contribution of Travel
and Tourism to GDP around 2,401.1 billion Baht
(20.2% of GDP) in 2013 (WTTC, 2014). Besides,
Thailand Statistic of Department of Tourism
reported that there were around 24.78 million
international tourists visiting Thailand in 2014. It
decreased approximately (6.66%) from 2013. There
were visitors from China, Malaysia, Japan, Russia,
Korea, India, Australia, Laos, United Kingdom,
Singapore, and United States of America (TAT,
2014) and they brought income to Tourism Indus
try in Thailand, approximately 1,074 billion Baht
in 2013. The direct contribution of Travel and
Tourism to GDP was expected to grow by 6.7%

to 2,046.7 billion Baht (10.4% of GDP) by 2024 (WTTC, 2014).

2.2 Chiang Mai

The area selected for this research is Chiang Mai. Chiang Mai is the second largest city in Thailand, with a population of approximately 1.7 million people and the coverage area is 20,107 km 2 (TST, 2012). On the other hand, it is the most important tourism center in the north of Thailand (Deaden & Harron, 1994). It has good weather for the whole year with average high temperature 31.8° C. The average of low temperature is 20.1° C. There is rainfall during May until September (TMD, 2015). Therefore, it is appropriate to travel around the waterfall, bamboo rafting, hill tribe village, and sign-seeing trip around the city. Moreover, there are variety of choices for restaurants, for example, Thai, Japanese, international food, and seafood. In addition, there are several excellent accommo dations such as Hotels, Resorts, Apartment, and Homestays. Due to the fact that each visitor has a different destination (nature, religious, cultural, activity, scenic, social, health, temple, mountain, festival, museum, services for tourists), it depends on their demographics (such as age, gender, income,

education level, and time to stay). The destination was selected for this study in view of the appropri ateness to construct the empirical research, such as point of interest, location, popularity. The popu Travel Guide Websites of makeuseof.com (Makeu seof, 2013), 10 Best Hotel Websites of touropia. com (Touropia, 2013), top 10 websites for travel planning of graybit.com (Graybit, 2013), world's leading travel app 2013 of worldtravelawards. com (Worldtravelawards, 2013), and 10 travel web sites worth bookmarking of frugaltraveler.blogs. nytimes.com (Frugaltraveler.blogs.nytimes, 2013). Those sites have been searched on the internet. Sec ondly, types of tourism information were selected into 3 categories. They are accommodations (booking.com, tripadvisor.com, expedia.com, and agoda.com), restaurants (tripadvisor.com and vir tualtourist.com) and attractions (tripadvisor.com, loneyplanet.com, and virtualtourist.com). Thirdly, these types of tourism market share ranking were defined by using 50% of market share. The market share has been found from the monthly revenue of w3 snoop.com (W3 snoop, 2013). Fourthly, taxon omies were operated by using intersection between selected websites with text comparison online of

www.textdiff.com (Textdiff, 2013). Finally, the attributes of tourism information results were collected from each taxonomy operation. Besides, the transportation more characteristics were gathered from the empirical study of (Rodrigue et al, 2013), (Stavrakis, 1979). Furthermore, the use of information technology level for searching data and trip planning have been employed by using attributes of the Ministry of Tourism and Sports survey report (MOTS, 2012). 5 METHODOLOGY For the purpose of this study, the closed-ended questionnaire was designed and distributed to participants. Survey data were collected from Thai tourists who visited Chiang Mai and Thailand, were analyzed with statistic techniques. The questionnaire was designed by the quantitative survey methods of Adams (2014). For example, Survey Design, Write the questions, Pilot the survey, Administer the survey, Data entry, Analysis, and Report (Adams et al., 2014). 5.1 Survey instrument The 73 questions of the questionnaire were separated into two parts: Part 1: Tourist information, this part included 11 attributes as Age, Gender, Married status, Number of children, Traveling group, Income, Religion, Education, Length of stay, Number of visits and Purpose of travel. Part 2: Tourism Information, this part is tourist destination, it consists of Accommodation (7 attributes: Apartment, Guest house, Lodge, Resort, Bed and Breakfasts, Hotel, and Hostel). Restaurant (17 attributes: American, Chinese, Germany, Indian, Italian, Middle Eastern, South American, Japanese, Thai, Vietnamese, Bakery, Pub, Dessert, Fusion, Seafood, Steakhouse, Vegetarian), Attraction (Point of interests) (31 attributes: Art/Gallery, Cultural, Farm, Food, Museum, Cinema, Adventure, Antiques/Antiques, Architecture, Boating, Books, Palace/Castle, Music and Concert, Cruise, Cycling, Department, Store and Shopping, Drink, Electronics, Family, Festival, Gifts/Souvenir, Hiking, Historic, Landmark, Luxury, Park, Religious, Sightseeing Tours, Spa, Theme Park, Wellness), and Transportation (7 attributes: Car, Van, Taxi, Bicycle, Motorcycle, Bus, and Walk). These tourism attributes were provided by the discovery process of tourist and tourism attributes in the

Figure 1. 5.2 Data collection The questionnaire was designed by using the method of Taro Yamane (1967) in order to calculate sample sizes. Taro Yamane produces a clarified formula for calculating sample sizes (Yamane, 1967). P-value = 0.05 (95% confidence level) are supposed in an Equation 1.

Figure 1. The discovery process of tourist and tourism

attributes.

n N N

= +1 2 ( )e (1)

Where n is the sample size, N is the population size

as well as e is the level of reliability (P-value). The

sample of Thai tourists was calculated by applying

an above formula as shown below.

n

n

n

= +

=

= 262 370

1 262 0

262 370

656 925

399 40 2 , , (370 .)05 , . .

Therefore, N = 400 questionnaires from popula

tion n = 262,370 tourists per month (Yamane,

1973). International airport, Bus station, Train sta

tion, and point of the interesting places have been

selected for distributing the questionnaire in March until the end of April 2014. Respondents are only Thai people who visited Chiang Mai province. On the other hand, the sample groups were limited by using simple random sampling (Accidental Sam pling) to collect the data.

5.3 Data analysis

The IBM SPSS 17 Statistics software has been used for analyzing. There are three steps; (1) Reliability coefficients for each variable, (2) Descriptive statis tics in order to measure frequencies of the demo graphic variables and (3) Inference statistics for the measurement of the compared means with the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of each group.

6 RESULTS

The questionnaires were distributed to 700 tour ists; 695 were returned with the response rate of 99.3%. All statistical analyzes were completed and also missing values were treated as missing in the SPSS program.

6.1 Reliability coefficients for each variable

Table 1 shows reliability coefficient which is repre sented by the alpha coefficient of five dimensions which were higher than the cut-off value of 0.70. In our case, each reliability coefficient is adequate

and usable for further analysis. All of the attributes

were accepted because the alpha coefficient was

greater than (0.70). Reliability coefficients of this

study were computed by the reliability analysis.

There are 2 requirement values. First is Cron

bach’s Alpha coefficient ≥ (0.70) (Nunnally,

2010). The second is ratings of question obtained

using five-point Likert scale (1 = Least preferred, Table 1. Reliability and correlation of variables. Scale Items Corrected Item Total Correlation Conbach’s Alpha No. of Items Accommodation 0.783 7 Apartment 0.369 Guest house 0.596 Lodge 0.528 Resort 0.531 Bed & Breakfasts 0.567 Hotel 0.410 Hostel 0.553 Restaurant 0.874 10 American 0.656 Chinese 0.703 German 0.761 Indian 0.648 Italian 0.713 Middle Eastern 0.699 South American 0.633 Japanese 0.485 Thai 0.236 Vietnamese 0.382 Attraction 0.938 31 Art/Gallery 0.573 Cultural 0.559 Farm 0.561 Food 0.535 Museum 0.605 Cinema 0.541 Adventure 0.588 Antiques 0.567 Architecture 0.643 Boating 0.606 Books 0.520 Palace/Castle 0.601 Music/Concert 0.575 Cruise 0.605 Cycling 0.568 Shopping 0.493 Drink 0.274 Electronics 0.453 Family 0.512 Festival 0.586 Souvenir/Buying 0.562 Hiking 0.556 Historic 0.594 Landmark 0.560 Luxury 0.585 Park 0.639 Religions 0.529 Sightseeing Tours 0.541 Spa 0.586 Theme Park 0.611 Wellness 0.598 (Continued)

5 = Most preferred) (Gliem, 2003). Therefore,

validity was determined by calculating Cronbach’s

Alpha following deletion of each item from the

data set (Cronbach, 1951). The results for the 62

resulting set show that Conbach’s Alpha value of

each set remained steadily at more than 0.70. It

indicated that construct validity was acceptable.

6.2 Descriptive statistics for measuring frequencies of the demographic variables

Table 2 shows descriptive statistics in the demo

graphic characteristic, the majority of the respond

ents (64.9%) were Female. The majority (66.6%)

of respondents were single. The minority (28%)

of them were married; 72.9% of the respondents

had no children and 11.6% had 1 child. The largest

number of Thai tourist were from Bangkok prov

ince (13.1%) and (34.0%) were from neighborhood

Domains consisting of Chiang Rai, Lampang,

Phrae, Nan, and Phayao. The majority of the age

levels of respondents (87.5%) were younger than

45 years old, and (12.5%) more aged. Approxi

mately, (68.0%) of tourists had household income

around 6,000-39,999 Baht per month. The major

ity of respondents (72.8%) had higher Education

level. 89% of respondents were Buddhist. Approxi

mately, (89.0%) of tourists stayed 1-7 days; (59.0%)

of respondents visited Chiang Mai more than five

times. On the other hand, the majority of purpose

of travel was Leisure around (21.1%).

6.3 Compare mean and ANOVA between tourists' demographic profile and tourism domains

In order to answer the research questions, the

comparing means, and the Analysis of Variance

one-way ANOVA were conducted. The demo

graphic variables had significant effects on tour

corresponding with Accommodation, Attraction,

Table 1. (Continued)

Scale items Corrected item total correlation Conbach’s alpha No. of items

Transportation

mode 0.750 7

Car 0.167

Van 0.450

Taxi 0.589

Bicycle 0.628

Motorcycle 0.483

Bus 0.543

Walk 0.403

Note: Each item is measured on a five-point Likert scale.

The necessary requirement value 0.70 (Nunnally, 2010).
Table 2. Demographic profiles of tourists. Demographic Profiles (N = 695) Frequency % Age Under 15 15 2.1 15–24 291 41.6 25–44 302 43.1 45–64 71 10.1 65 or older 16 2.3 Gender Male 241 34.4 Female 454 64.9 Marital status Single 466 66.6 Married 196 28.0 Widowed 12 1.7 Divorced 21 3.0 Children No children 510 72.9 1 person 81 11.6 2 persons 76 10.9 3 persons 24 3.4 more than 3 persons 4 0.6 Traveling with Traveling alone 173 24.7 Couple/Spouse 107 15.3 Family with children 110 15.7 Tour group 5 0.7 Other 8 1.1 Income (per month) Less than 6,000 49 7.0 6,000–14,999 121 17.3 15,000–24,999 232 33.1 25,000–39,999 123 17.6 40,000–59,999 95 13.6 More than 60,000 75 10.7 Religion Buddhist 629 89.9 Christian 56 8.0 Muslim 5 0.7 Hindu 1 0.1 Other 4 0.6 Education Primary education 6 0.9 Lower secondary education 34 4.9 Upper secondary education 104 14.9 Post-secondary education 41 5.9 Bachelor’s Degree 409 58.4 Master’s Degree 92 13.1 Doctoral Degree or more 6 0.9 Other 3 0.4 Length of stay 1–3 476 68.0 4–7 147 21.0 8–28 28 4.0 29–91 9 1.3 92–365 9 1.3 More than 365 26 3.7 (Continued)

Restaurant, and Transportation mode. All of the details analyzed from the table can be found in the Supplementary data on http://www.camt.cmu. We determined that (∗) is a difference, statisti cally significant between the means of group at (P-Value < 0.05). All of items are measured on a five-point Likert scale.

6.3.1 Age domain

In the Age domain, the arithmetic mean values of the rated age group and tourism attributes had been calculated. According to descriptive statistics, it was found that the majority of the Age group was 25–44 years old. Thus, we considered compar ing with this group. Accommodation: almost age group similarly preferred Hotel∗, Resort∗, Lodge, and Hostel, nonetheless, under 15 was slightly dif ferent. Attraction: each was quite different, like to go for Food, Sightseeing Tours, Landmark, and Culture. Restaurant: all of age group quite similar, prefer Japanese∗ and Bakery∗, Thai, Vietnamese, and Seafood. However, less than 15 were a bit dif ferent from all of the domains. Transportation: all of age group preferred to take Car, Van, and Taxi∗, somewhat similar.

6.3.2 Gender domain

The results revealed that female and male had alike

preference. Accommodation: were Hotel, Resort,

Apartment, and Guest house. Besides, only female

preferred slightly different was Hostel∗. Attrac

tion: some place similar such Food, Cultural, and

Landmark with no significant. However, female

had a little bit different preference which was Gifts/ Souvenir∗. Restaurant: was quite similar preference such as Thai, Japanese, Seafood restaurant, Bakery∗, and Vietnamese restaurant. Transportation: male and female quite similar, preference were Car, Van∗, Taxi∗, Motorcycle, and Bus. 6.3.3 Married status domain In this domain, Single was the majority from the married status domain. So, we considered comparing Single in this domain. Accommodation: was quite similar preference such as Hotel, Resort, Guesthouse, and Apartment, but they had no significance. Attraction: had the same preference, Food, Cultural, Landmark, and Sightseeing Tour with no significance. Moreover, it also had a bit difference such as Festival, Gifts/Souvenir, Religious, Palace/Castle, Antiques, and Food. Restaurant: had the similar preference were Thai, Japanese, Seafood, Vietnamese, and Bakery. About Transportation: preferred considerably similar such as Car, Van∗, Taxi, Bus, Bicycle, and Motorcycle∗. 6.3.4 Tourist income domain In the Tourist Income domain, the majority had medium income (15,000-24,999 Baht/month). Hence, we considered this domain for comparing with all levels of income. Accommodation: all of income level seem to like the similar preference as Hotel and Resort∗, Apartment, and Hostel respectively. Attraction: both (15,000-24,999) and (25,000-39,999) had quite similar preference such as Sightseeing Tour, Food∗, Cultural, and Landmark. Nevertheless, another level was a little bit different such as Festival∗, Art/Gallery, Family, and Landmark. Restaurant: all of levels preferred almost similarly, such as Thai∗, also Japanese, Bakery, and Vietnamese∗ as well as Seafood. Transportation: they preferred the same, Car∗ and a bit different such as Motorcycle, Bus, Bicycle∗, Walk, Taxi, and Van. 6.3.5 Education levels domain The Education levels domain relates to tourism domains. According to the majority of education domain, it is Bachelor's Degree, therefore, we considered this level to compare with other level. Accommodation:

almost of all levels prefer quite similar as Hotel and Resort∗. Besides, they had some difference such as Primary, Lower Secondary, Upper Secondary like Apartment, Hostel. Nonetheless, higher education levels like Bed & Breakfasts, Lodge, and Guest house. Attraction: they prefer a bit similar places such as Sightseeing Tour∗, Food, and Cultural. Nevertheless, higher education levels prefer Landmark∗, Festival∗, and Art/Gallery, while lower education levels prefer a bit different, Food as well as Museum. Restaurant:

Table 2. (Continued)

Demographic

Profiles (N = 695) Frequency %

Number

of visits First time 83 11.9 2 times 92 13.1 3 times 77 11.0 4 times 30 4.3 More than 5 Times 413 59.0

Purpose

of travel Business 38 5.4 Incentive 4 0.6 MICE 6 0.9 Education 56 8.0 Sport 1 0.1 Health/Medical 3 0.4 Leisure 148 21.1 Eco/Nature 5 0.7 Shopping 4 0.6 Gap year travel 13 1.9 Visit friend and relative 52 7.4

such as Thai, Japanese and Vietnamese∗. None

theless, lower education levels prefer a bit different

such as Seafood, Bakery, Vegetarian∗, and Dessert,

while higher education levels have a little bit pref

erences such as Steakhouse and Fusion. Transpor

tation: almost of all levels prefer Car∗, Van, and

Taxi.

6.3.6 Length of stay domain

In the Length of stay domain, the majority of the

length of stay is 1–3 days. Accommodation: they

prefer Hotel, Resort, Guesthouse, and Apart

ment∗, while 4-7 and 8-28 days are quite simi
lar with Hotel, Apartment∗, Resort, Hostel, and
Guesthouse. Nonetheless, the length 29-91 and
92-365 days a bit different such as Guesthouse,
Apartment∗, Hotel, and Hostel. The last length
more than 365 days prefers Resort, Hotel, and
Guest house. Attraction: the length 1-3 like to go
for Sightseeing Tour, Food Cultural and Land
mark, while 4-7, 8-28, and 29-91 day a little bit
different that they prefer Food, Cultural, Music/
Concert, and Historical. Nevertheless, the length
of 92-365 and more than are slightly different such
as Cinema, Cultural, Food, and Art/Gallery. Res
taurant: almost of all prefer the fairly similar res
taurant such Thai, Japanese∗, Bakery, Seafood∗,
Vietnamese∗, and Japanese restaurant. Transpor
tation: almost of all prefer similarly, i.e., Car, Van,
Motorcycle, and Taxi∗.

6.3.7 Religion domain

According to respondents, they were Thai tour
ists. Almost of respondents believed in Buddhist
religion. Accommodation: they preferred relatively
similar as Hotel∗, Resort, Lodge, and Apartment.
Attraction: they prefer justly similar such as Food,
Sightseeing Tours, Culture, and Landmark. Res

taurant: they have a bit different preference which are Thai∗, Japanese∗, Bakery, and Seafood∗, while, Muslim tourists prefer Dessert, Fusion and Vegetarian∗. Transportation: they were quite similar such as Car, Van. Moreover, Taxi has no significance.

6.3.8 Number of visits domain

In this domain, the majority of Thai tourists vis ited Chiang Mai 5 times or more. In addition, the preference for them in the Accommodation: were tel, Guesthouse, and Apartment. Attraction: have a little bit different such Food, Sightseeing Tour, Cultural, and Art/Gallery. Restaurant: they prefer Vietnamese, Seafood, and Bakery. Transportation:

7 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORKS

This present study constructs a number of contri butions to the tourism literature and travel agency. The study fills an important gap in the literature by designing a new discovery process and making this study is useful for researchers, tourism market ing, trip planning, policy makers and travel recom mendation system.

This study investigated the tourism domains compared to tourists' demographic. The tourism domain is separated into four domains which are

Accommodation, Attraction, Restaurant, and Transportation. According to Thai tourists visited Chiang Mai for traveling, we aimed to investigate On the other hand, we have designed a new method for constructing tourism attributes. These char acteristics of each domain were generated by the intersection between top popular of tourism web sites. In order to reduce the heterogeneous tour ism attributes for appropriate collecting data of this study, Thai tourists responded approximately 99.3% of 700 questionnaires, and they visited Chi ang Mai for holiday purposes. The eleven domains of tourists demographic were calculated by the comparison of means and the Analysis of Variance (one-way ANOVA) with Accommodation, Attrac tion, Restaurant, and Transportation domain. The purpose of this computation was to find the tour study that would be taken into consideration when interpreting the results, the first limitation is the collecting data with participants. Almost of the participants do not have much time for answering questions. Therefore, some items were made rapidly without reading before taking the questionnaire. This problem affected the results of this study. On the other hand, the research should be extended

to a larger number of nationalities such as Chi
nese, Malaysian, Japanese, American, European,
Russian, in order to compare exact tourists' pref
erences. Moreover, the questionnaire survey was
distributed during March and April, 2014. At that
time, this period is not a part of the main season.
Therefore, the respondents may have dissimilar
behavior at other time of the year. The last limi
tation is the inference statistic techniques of this
study which just used to compare mean and the
Analysis of Variance (one-way ANOVA), that is
the primary method. Because we intended to inves
tigate all domains of tourism with tourist's demo
graphics, thus, in the further research, advanced
statistic techniques or advanced model should be
the relationship between studied dimensions and
convey thanks to the European Erasmus-Mundus
Sustainable Tourism project 2010-2359 and also
Dr. Nopasit Chakpitak, Dr. Pitipong Yodmong
kol and Mr. Parinya Suwansrikham for their great
supports. Moreover, this survey instrument was
advised by Dr. Taksina Kunarucks, Dr.Weerapon
Thongma and Mrs. Korawan Sangkakorn in the
part of the questionnaire.
Adams, J., Khan, H.T.A., & Raeside, R. 2014. Research

Methods for Business and Social Science Students: SAGE Publications.

Alegre, J., & Garau, J. 2010. Tourist satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Annals of Tourism Research, 37(1), 52-73.

Barrows, C.W., Powers, T., & Reynolds, D.R. 2011. Introduction to Management in the Hospitality Industry: Wiley, USA.

Chiang, L., Manthiou, A., Tang, L.R., Shin, J., & Morrison, A. 2012. An Investigation of the Information Sources Used by International Tourists of Different Age Groups in Fiji. International Journal of Tourism Sciences, 12(3), 20-46.

Cronbach, L.J. 1951. Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. psychometrika, 16(3), 297-334.

CTH. 2010. Food and beverage operations. Retrieved 18, April, 2015, available on http://www.cthawards.com/.

Daramola, O. 2010. Recommendation Services in E-Tourism Systems—a Product Line Approach: VDM Publishing, Germany.

Deaden, P., & Harron, S. 1994. Alternative tourism and adaptive change. Annals of Tourism Research, 21(1), 81-102.

Ebizmba. 2013. Top 15 most popular travel websites. Retrieved 8, September, 2013, from http://www.ebiz

mba.com/articles/travel-websites.

Figini, P., & Vici, L. 2012. Off-season tourists and the cultural offer of a mass-tourism destination: The case of Rimini. Tourism Management, 33(4), 825-839.

Frugaltraveler.blogs.nytimes. 2013. 10 travel web sites worth bookmarking. Retrieved 8, September, 2013, from http://frugaltraveler.blogs.nytimes.com.

Graybit. 2013. Top 10 websites for travel planning. Retrieved 8, September, 2013, available on http://graybit.com/top-10-websites-for-travel-planning/.

Hsu, T.K., Tsai, Y.F., & Wu, H.H. 2009. The preference analysis for tourist choice of destination: A case study of Taiwan. Tourism Management, 30(2), 288-297.

Kabassi, K. 2010. Personalizing recommendations for tourists. Telematics and Informatics, 27(1), 51-66.

Kamnardsiri, T., Choosri, N., Sureephong, P., & Lbath, A. 2013. A Study of Domain Centric Tourist Recommendation System Using Ontology Search. Paper presented at the 7th International Conference on Software, Knowledge, Information Management and

Empirical evaluation of Gen Y housing affordability

W.R.A. Jiram, A.A. Bujang, H.A. Zarin & F.H.M. Anuar

Department of Real Estate, Faculty of Geoinformation and Real Estate,

Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Johor Bahru, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: Gen Y is dealing with housing issues that often associated with housing affordability.

Most of the previous studies focus on housing affordability among different groups of income, housing

and affordable housing markets, but less emphasis on the ability of housing for different generations.

Concerns are often raised whether Gen Y can afford to buy a house? Therefore, the intent of the study is

to evaluate the Gen Y housing affordability and to identify factors influencing the housing affordability

problems faced by this age group. A questionnaire survey was conducted to collect the required data

directly from Gen Y in Kuala Lumpur with a sample size at a confidence level of 90% and data obtained

was analysed by descriptive and inference statistics. The study reveals that household expenditures,

1 INTRODUCTION

Conceptualizing and assessing affordability are

as complex as understanding the factors leading

to housing affordability problems. According to

Maclennan & Williams (1990), affordability is con

cerned with securing some given standard of hous

ing at a price or rent which does not impose, in

the eyes of some third party (usually government),

an unreasonable burden on household incomes.

Whitehead (1991), Bujang (2006), and Zilfirhani &

Bujang (2007) pointed out that housing afford

ability relates to the ratio between household

income and expenses, and that they seek to estab

lish a standard in respect of which the amount of income spent on housing is deemed unaffordable. Affordability can be summarized as the ability of a person in providing something, which is usually referred to his ability in financial terms. Housing affordability has been referred by a number of researchers in a variety of ways. Housing affordability is time-neutral terms, which contrib uted to the relationship between household income and household expenditure on housing costs. For Anirban et al. (2006), home affordability is a con dition where individuals have the potential to save a certain part of their income to buy a home and other expenses during their working period. The question on housing affordability always focused on certain income groups.

Affordable housing is generally designed to meet the needs of low-income households and simple, and to enable them to access suitable housing on the market. In the United States, has an area of ‘affordable housing’ is privately owned, socially relationship between the need for affordable hous ing and population in Malaysia.

Norhaslinda (2008) has carried out research on demographic factors that affect housing afford

ability. However, most studies only focus on hous
ing for specific income groups but rarely focus on
the age group. not age groups. Thus, this study
attempt to clarify: what are the problems, and
factors that affect the ability of Generation Y in
buying an affordable house; what are the financial
commitments of the young generation?; and does
the demographic relate to the housing affordability
for Gen Y?

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Gen Y

Gen Y is the demographic cohort including indi
viduals born between the years of 1979 and 1994,
which has been dubbed as “Echo Boomers”, “Gen
eration Next”, “Net Generation”, or “Millennials”.
As there are no precise dates for when the Gen Y
starts and ends, it depending upon the demog
raphers and many have used birth dates ranging
somewhere from the mid 1970’s to the early 1994.
This generation is the most recent cohort to enter
the workforce. We can assume that the vast major
ity of Gen Y, now aged at least 30 years old (those
born 1979 through 1983 in 2013) while, the surplus
Generation Y, born 1984 through 1994, these age
group either just in its infancy in the workplace or

just entering college into it by 2012 (Bujang et al. 2015).

Based on demographic analysis and market research, Gen Y is a very powerful market segment as this group will dominate the market in the twenty-first century (Alch, 2000). The younger generation is more tolerant and more open to diversity. Furthermore, today's parents are more concerned about assuring a financially secure future for Generation Y-ers. They continued to buy shares (including mutual funds) and bonds for their children's' future.

They have a different financial commitment where more than 70 percent of their income for entertainment, transportation and food (McCrindle, 2002). Overall, generation Y has a positive attitude towards shopping as an enjoyable experience (Zeithaml, 1985). Lehtonen & Maenpaa (1997) indicated that this generation lives in an era in which shopping is not regarded as a simple act of purchasing a product.

Gen Y will have a tremendous impact on housing. There are many young households and those in single incomes who aspire to home ownership and strongly motivated, but lack sufficient to achieve it.

Many modest-income households entering home ownership have a greater risk of housing affordability problems in the future. 2.2 Demographic factors influence housing market affordability Idrus & Ho (2008) demonstrated that demographic factors are important variables for determining housing prices in the long run. Affordability remains a major problem because the existing real estate prices are too high, and the shortage of affordable property supply in the city center. The factors that are most important in influencing housing affordability is the price, location and socio-economic environment of the population (Rossi, 1955). Lowry (1974) studied that the demand of a residential unit from the aspect of income, number of household, occupation and transportation cost. Rosen (1974) considered income, age of a family leader, gender, number of household, and education as factors influencing the demand for a residential unit. Mohd Zain (1989) stated that size, structure, and population's rate of growth can be the factors for the future demand on housing. Stone (2006) did not consider affordability an inherent characteristic of housing, but rather a relationship between incomes and relative prices income and other demographic factors may influence demand in the market due to people affordability. Abdul Hamid (2006) has highlighted several types of demographic trends that drive real estate market. These include population, migration, millions of echo-boomers entering the real estate market, transfer of wealth to the baby boomers from their ageing parents and social trends. 2.3 Housing ownership issues in Malaysia Urbanisation and industrialization are the main factors that pushed up the demand of housing in the urban areas, especially from the lower and medium income groups (Aminah & Azimah, 2004, Taib Osman, 2004) Property prices offered by the private developer is too high, causing discontent among young adults, where developers often speculated price for a larger profit margin. The supply of affordable housing is limited compared with the demand. In addition, the rise in house prices were not commensurate with salary increases have an impact on housing affordability. It raises the problem of housing to low and middle income groups, especially in urban areas. In addition, the size of affordable houses below RM150,000 per unit offered is too small, where most migrants from rural areas and have a large family. Moreover, most of the affordable housing is located away in bland housing estates

and way too far from the workplace that involve

mind-numbing daily commutes. It may affect other

fictional cost and really inefficient.

They also faced difficulties in securing loan or end financing from banking and financial institutions. Problem to allocate 10 percent deposit of the selling price is the biggest barrier for the first home buyers. This deposit is to be paid upon signing the Sale and Purchase Agreement, required under The Housing Developer's Act (Licensing and Controlled 1966) as part of progress payments.

Most young adults tied to car loans and credit card bills to be settled before thinking of getting a house. Therefore, they cannot save money for a down payment, and they ended up renting for years.

Gen Y's desire for a luxurious life brought them to stretching their budget to buy expensive homes.

Gen Y buyers now see the houses as an investment, not a necessity is really a misunderstanding.

Thus the literature on the question of buying and owning a home with Gen Y often abandoned.

Thus, in the Malaysian Budget 2011, the Prime Minister announced the My First Home Scheme to help young people who face the cost of living rising and the face of rising real estate prices to buy a house. The scheme is open to young people who are working and earning below RM3,000 a month.

Under this scheme, they would be excluded from the standard 10 percent down payment and getting 100 percent financing from financial institutions. These include allocation of RM568 million to build 300 units under the Urban Housing Assist ance Scheme and 79,000 units under the People's Housing Progamme. On top of that, an additional allocation of RM50 million has been set aside especially to help house ownership among estate employees under the low cost housing scheme.

In overall, this scheme is happily accepted by young adults. But there is a few matter that have to review since there are not many properties priced below RM220,000 in Kuala Lumpur and Selangor area where the highest number of young adult works. There are not many decent proper ties going at the rate unless the property located in the outskirts of the city. Therefore, the Govern ment should base the property price limit accord ing to the area. Most young professionals who are earning more than RM3,000 per month and will not be eligible for the scheme. As property prices haves soared to such exorbitant levels, many of the young adults cannot afford to purchase their first home and yet are not eligible for the scheme.

Hence, the federal government should consider raising the income limit to RM5,000 for first home purchasers. Many young adults think the Government should review the age limit. With the rising costs of living, many people only reach some stability when they approach the age of 40. And with the trend now where you job-hop to move up the corporate ladder, many would retain from buying a house until they find the most suitable position or company for them. 2.4 Factor affecting Gen Y housing affordability Housing affordability is different for each household. It depends on the amount of household income, house prices and household expenditure which these three main variables are capable of affecting the affordability of households. Besides adopting these three key variables, there are also other variables that will affect Gen Y's housing affordability such as financial loan, the interest rate financial loan, monthly repayment and deposits, type of occupancy, level of education, number of dependents, monthly excess savings, marital status and others (DiPasquale & Wheaton, 1996). 2.4.1 Income Income is the amount of money earned in a particular period as a result of work done (Abbot, 1987). Income is the dominant variables in the study of housing affordability as buyers will use the income to determine the type of house to purchase. Furthermore, household income is the basis of eligibility to apply for loan amount that is appropriate for house financing. Financial allocation for housing is not more than 1/3 of the gross monthly household income. Generally, the financial of many young generations is not stable as they are still in the early stages of working life. Their income received is low because they are just graduated and have no work experience. Therefore, Gen Y needs to ensure that the property to be purchased is matched with the ability to purchase or pay. 2.4.2 Household expenditure patterns Household expenditure is the total cost to be borne by an individual in life. It will determine the total amount that can be spent in housing and thus affect the housing affordability. Household expenditure patterns differ between households living in the city centre and rural areas where it is influenced by several factors such as number of dependents, lifestyle and hobbies, the local cost of living, investment or other financing involved and others. Expenses are often made by

Gen Y is involved expenses for food, beverages, clothing and footwear, housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels, furnishings, household equipment, and routine household maintenance, health, transportation, communication, recreation and cultural services, education, restaurants and miscellaneous goods and services. Thus, the higher cost of living and the greater the household expenses made against the household income, the ability of households to own a

house will decrease. According to Kamakura & Du

(2012), spending patterns are varying according to

income and household is also influenced by the

tastes and desire of households.

2.4.3 House price

Increase in house prices is one of the factors that

affect a person's ability to buy a house. Among the

factors that affect the price of housing is in high

demand due to the population growth, economic

growth, limited land for housing development,

high construction prices and others. These causes

many young people do not have enough money to

buy a house because the income earned by them

cannot cope with rising house prices.

3 METHODOLOGY

The intent of this study is to evaluate the Gen Y

housing affordability and to identify factors influ

encing housing affordability problems faces by

Gen Y. The survey approach was used in collect

ing the primary data. The questionnaires are for

mulated and designed according to the research questions. The questionnaire was pilot tested and further refined before the collection of the data. The questionnaires were distributed to the Gen Y who had working in Kuala Lumpur. The samples used in this study are taken at random probability at a 90 percent degree of confident by using Tara Yamane (1973) formula. Therefore, the minimum sample of this study is 100. Next, the collected data are then analyzed by using descriptive analysis by the help of Statistical Package for Social Science. Chi-Square test was used to test the significant relationship between the factors that influence the problems.

4 ANALYSIS AND DICUSSION

Household income and individual level of monthly incomes are important to determine the housing affordability among the young generation or gen eration Y.

From the above analysis it is found that most of the respondent either household or individual level of monthly incomes are below RM3, 000. Thus it can be concluded that they are categorised under the medium and medium-high income groups.

Table 3, shows the analysis on affordable hous

ing price among generation Y in the study area.

The analysis results in Table 3 showed that the

affordable housing price among house hold Gen

eration Y is below RM200, 000 per unit. The anal

ysis showed most of them who already purchased

a house with the price of below RM200, 000 per unit. Table 4 then shows the analysis on affordable purchased price for those who are still looking for a house. The above analysis results showed that the affordable price among individual generation Y is the same as house hold which is below RM200, 000 per unit. Most of the respondents choose below RM 200,000 as their affordable house to buy or looking for. Table 5 shows an analysis on Table 1. The analysis on the level of monthly income of the household. Level of monthly income Frequency Percent (%) Below RM3,000 57 50.0 RM3,001-RM3,999 7 6.1 RM4,000-RM4,999 13 11.4 RM5,000-RM5,999 13 11.4 RM6,000-RM6,999 1 0.9 RM7,000-RM7,999 6 5.3 RM8,000-RM8.999 5 4.4 RM9,000-RM9,999 4 3.5 RM10,000 and above 8 7.0 Total 114 100.0 Table 2. The analysis on the level of individual monthly income. Level of individual monthly income Frequency Percent (%) Below RM1,000 9 7.9 RM1,001-RM1,999 30 26.3 RM2,000-RM2,999 31 27.2 RM3,000-RM3,999 15 13.2 RM4,000-RM4,999 11 9.6 RM5,000 and above 18 15.8 Total 114 100.0 Table 3. Affordable purchased price for those already owned a house. Housing price Frequency Percent (%) Below RM50,000 6 5.3 RM50,001-RM69,999 2 1.8 RM70,000-RM99,999 12 10.5 RM100,000-RM149,999 8 7.0 RM150,000-RM199,999 13 11.4 RM200,000-RM249,000 4 3.5 RM250,000-RM299,999 4 3.5 RM300,000-RM349,999 1 0.9 RM350,000-RM399,999 3 2.6 RM400,000 and above 3 2.6 Not related 58 50.9 Total 114 100.0

the factors influencing Generation Y housing

affordability problems.

From the analysis results, it is found that hous

ing deposit too high is the most influencing factor

on Generation Y housing affordability problems

with an average score of 4.2807. Next house price

within affordability is not in the market with an average score of 4.2105. High monthly install ment and financing eligibility are also important factors influencing Generation Y housing afford ability problems. Both factors have average score of 4.1930 and 4.0263 respectively

Next, is the analysis on the relationship between factors influencing Generation Y housing afford ability and income earned to find out is there any significant relationship among them. Table 6 and Table 7 show the respective analysis for household and individual income earned. The analysis carried out using Chi square test. The relationship is signif icant when the significant value is less than 0.05. Table 6 showed that most of the factors identi fied have the significant relationship with income earned except for house rental expenditure, other expenses, and type of occupation. Table 7 showed that all the factors have the significant relationship with individual income earned in influencing Generation Y housing affordability problems. 5 CONCLUSION The issues and problems on housing ownership have been plagued Generation Y these days. This generation was subjected to study because they represent potential buyers to enter the housing market as a stable job and have a family. Their determination to have their own home to meet the needs of living is very high, but unfortunately, only a small number are able to buy a home due to the several problems and barriers. This suggests that a change is needed in the direction of Malaysia’s housing policies away from those that focus on home ownership and towards increasing the supply of the

Table 4. Affordable price for those who are still looking

a house.

House price Frequency Percent (%)

RM70,000-RM99,999 30 26.3

RM100,000-RM149,999 5 4.4

RM150,000-RM199,000 7 6.1

RM200,000-RM249,999 9 7.9

RM250,000-RM299,999 1 0.9

RM300,000-RM349,999 4 3.5

RM350,000-RM399,999 1 0.9

RM400,000 and above 1 0.9

Not related 56 49.1

Total 114 100.0

Table 5. The analysis on the factors influence Gen Y

housing affordability problem.

Factors Average score

Housing deposit too high 4.2807

Lack of houses within affordability price

in the market 4.2105

High monthly installment 4.1930

Financing eligibility problems 4.0263

Location not suitable 3.7281

Design not suitable 3.2281

Engaged with other financing commitment:

Personal loan 3.3859

Educational loan 3.2544

Credit card 3.0526

Elegant life style 2.9386

High living expenses 2.9210 Table 6. Analysis on the relationship between household income earned and demographic factors influencing Generation Y housing affordability. House hold monthly income Significant value Relationship House rental expenditure 0.136 Not significant Car installment 0.009 Significant Other expenses 0.055 Not significant Monthly saving 0.007 Significant Type of occupation 0.083 Not significant Number of years of occupation 0.001 Significant Age during house purchased 0.000 Significant Income 0.000 Significant Table 7. Analysis on the relationship between individual income earned and demographic factors influencing Generation Y housing affordability. Individual monthly income Significant value Relationship House rental expenditure 0.002 Significant Car installment 0.007 Significant Other expenses 0.000 Significant Monthly saving 0.000 Significant Type of occupation 0.000 Significant Number of years of occupation 0.000 Significant Age during house purchased 0.000 Significant Income 0.000 Significant

affordable housing to meet the needs of those on

lower and medium incomes.

This study has reveal that housing affordability

for Generation Y is less than RM200,000 per unit

with monthly income of RM3,000. This study indi

cates that, Gen Y lies under medium income group.

When a low income & medium household is dedi

cating more than 30% of their income on housing,

they will experience housing stress. They will be

probably spending other expenses above threshold

and faces housing affordability problems.

In summary, the findings show that the factors

that affect housing affordability problems for gen

eration Y are: they have difficulty in paying the deposit resulted from income generated is relatively low; housing price is too high; the house built by housing developers is relatively small; the lack of affordable housing supply in the market; and have difficulty in obtaining loans from housing institu tions. The study also found that demographic fac tors have a significant relationship with the income earned that influence Gen Y housing affordability. In addition, Gen Y's expenditures behaviour also plays an important role in their house purchasing.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This work was supported by Ministry of Educa tion, and Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Malaysia under the Fundamental Research Grant Scheme Vot.4F593.

Abbot, D. 1987. Encyclopedia of Real Estate Terms. Trowbridge, Wiltshire: Redwood Burn Limited.

Abdul Hamid M.I. 2006. Basic Aspects of Property Market Research, Johor Bahru: Penerbit Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.

Aminah M.Y. & Azimah, R. 2004. House price discov ery in Malaysia: A Preliminary Analysis. International Real Estate Research Symposium (IRERS) 2004. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

Anirban, M.F, Wong, K.W. & Eddie, C.M.H. 2006. Rela

tionship between housing affordability and economic

development in main China: Case of Shanghai. Journal

of Urban Planning and Development 132(1): 62-70.

Alch, M. L. 2000. The echo-boom generation: A growing

force in American society. Futurist 34(5): 42-51.

Bujang, A.A. 2006. Residential Property ownership: An

Evaluation Study on The Bumiputera Lot Quota Rul

ing in the District of Johor Bahru. Kuala Lumpur:

Universiti Malaya.

Bujang, A. A., Jiram, W.R.A., Zarin, H.A., & Anuar. F.M.

2015. Measuring the Gen Y housing affordability prob

lem. International Journal of Trade, Economics and

Finance 6 (1): 22-26. Davis, E. 1994. The Affordable City. Temple University Perss. www.rst.nus.edu.sg/research/workingpaper/2006- 018.pdf. Kamakura, W. A., & Du, R. Y. 2012. How economic contractions and expansions affect expenditure patterns. Journal of Consumer Research 39(2): 229-247. Idrus, N. & Ho, C.S. 2008. Affordable and Quality Housing Through the Low Cost Housing Provision in Malaysia, Johor: Department of Town & Regional Planning, Faculty of Built Environment, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia. Jose, H. l. A. 2002. Major Impacting Affordable Housing Development in Mexico. Proquest Information and Learning: UMI. Georgia Institute of Technology. Lehtonen, T.K & Maenpaa, P. 1997. Shopping in the East center mall, in Falk, P., Campbell, C. (eds), The Shopping Experience. London: Sage Publication. Lowry, I.S. 1974. A Model of Metropolis. Santa Monica, California: RAND Corporation. Maclennan, D, & Williams, R. 1990. Affordable Housing in Britain and America. York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation. McCrindle, M. 2002. Understanding Generation Y. The Australian Leadership Foundation North Parramatta, available at: www.learningtolearn.sa.edua.au/ Colleagues/files/links/UnderstandingGenY.pdf Mohd. Zain, Z. 1989. Arah Industri PerumahanNegara didalam Tahun 1990

hingga 2000. The Surveyor 24(2) 2nd. Quarterly Institut Juruukur Malaysia. Norazmawati M.S, & Munaaim, M.A.C. 2006. Sustainable House Principle in Affordable House. International Proceedings of Economics Development and Research 39. Norhaslinda, J. 2008. The Influenced of Demographics Factors on Residential Property Market.Johor Bahru, Johor Bahru: Department of Property Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia. Quan G. & Hill, R.J. 2009. Measuring housing affordability: Looking beyond the median. Journal of Housing economics 18(2), 115-125. Rosen, S. 1974. Hedonic prices and implicit market: product differential in pure competition. Journal of Political Economy. 82:34-55. Rossi, P.H. 1955. Why Families Move, London: Sage Publications. Stone, M.E. 2006. What is housing affordability? The case for the residual income approach. Housing policy debate 17(1): 151-184. Taib, O. 2004. Globalisation, Patriotism and Public Issues, Kuala Lumpur: Universiti Malaya Press. DiPasquale, D. & Wheaton, W. 1996. Urban Economics and Real Estate Markets. Englewood: Clifs, Prentice Hall. Whitehead, C. M. 1991. From need to affordability: an analysis of UK housing objectives. Urban Studies 28(6):871-887. Zeithaml, V. 1985. The new demographics and market fragmentation, Journal of Marketing 49: 64-75. Zilfirhani, & Bujang. A.A. 2007. Housing affordability: a study on household expenditures ratio to the income for the lower and medium income groups. HC Economic History and Conditions, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia http://eprints.utm.my/20126/.

Local revitalization through the local food system focused on Wanju, Korea

Jin-Young Kim

Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, Seoul, Korea

ABSTRACT: As the concern over the food has mounted, more and more Korean people have fixed their meals with local foods in the recent years. This healthful trend is attributed to the spread of demands for eco-friendly local foods. Consequently, some eco-friendly suburban or rural regions equipped with well-preserved environment such as Wanju, North Jeolla Province has emerged as a Mecca of local

food system which boasts its optimized local food system that fits in Korean consumers. In Korea, the

local food system is not only focused on healthful, fresh food-supply but also largely responsible for

local economy. In this regard, this study aims to find strategies to lead the local food system to local

revitalization. Wanju, one of the most successful regions for the local food system, provides a very good

example on the perspective of Korean style local food system. state in which it is produced. In some regions, such as the Northeast United States, local may mean to some people 50 to 100 miles from a major city center, and regional may mean a multi-state region (e.g. Sunbelt States). By contrast, the campaign for the Protection of Rural England, in their project mapping England's local food webs define local food as food whose main ingredients were 'grown or produced within 30 miles [50 kms] of where it was bought (Food Connect Foundation, 2010). Yet, as for most of the European countries, there is no uniform definition of the term 'local area'. While various sources confirm that this term means a relatively small geographical area, there is no concrete consent on the distance, varying between 20 and 100 km from the point of production. Taking into account the widespread interpretations of the term 'local area', a definition at EU level would appear arbitrary. It is basically the consumer who decides whether a product comes from a 'local area (EU Commission, 2013).' Another agricultural powerhouse, Canada presents a report conducted by Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada in 2007, distinguishing four ways of delimiting a 'local' area: Geographic distance: calculated in units of distance, usually with a defined maximum distance but in some cases a minimum distance; Temporal distance: calculated in units of time, e.g. the food can be trucked to the point of consumption in 24 hours or less; Political and administrative boundaries: based on municipal, regional, or national borders; and Bio-regions:

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 What is local food?

The meaning of local food can vary according to

subjects or regions that are involved. However,

many researchers express sympathy with the local food as an alternative concept of global food which is based on large-scaled one-time harvest also that also requires large-scaled resource-consuming (Kim, C.G., 2011). According to the report con ducted by USDA, it is a geographical concept related to the distance between food producers and consumers. In addition to geographic proximity of producer and consumer, however, local food can also be defined in terms of social and supply chain characteristics (USDA, 2010). The local food may have access to those who produced the food: the personality and ethics of the farmers; the attrac tiveness of the farm and surrounding environment; and other factors that make the “story of the food” special and unique.

1.2 Various concepts of local food

Locally produced food in America has different meanings, varying size and climate of regions, population density, and the volume of supply required by a market (e.g. a farmers’ market, school system, or supermarket chain). One defi nition, passed into legislation for a U.S. Depart ment of Agriculture loan program priority, has a maximum distance from farm to fork of 400 miles

or requires that a product be consumed within the natural boundaries of an ecosystem. Such prox imity criteria can often be arbitrary (Government of Alberta-Agriculture and Rural Development, 2010)

Meanwhile, Korea recognizes the local food as safe environment-friendly eatables produced, proc essed and distributed within the boundary of 50 to 100 km in general (Rural Development Admin istration, 2010). With a relatively short period of time to introduce the term, it has attracted atten tion since the mid-2000s. Afterward, social con cerns over the local food and endeavor have been increased, experts have tried to establish a basis of local food through studying a wide variety of documents and cases throughout the world. How ever, it is not overstated that Korean researchers and activists are prone to paying more attention to the local food movement rather than local food per se (Lee, G.R et al., 2013).

2 STUDY METHOD AND RESEARCH QUESTION

Since the concept of local food emerged in the 2000s when the Korean economy was prosperous enough for Korean people to concern about what they eat,

the studies on local food relatively have been con
ducted in the recent times. Thus, to carry out the
study, the academic articles in the relating journals
and reports from the local and central government
were thoroughly looked over. As the origin of
Korean-style local food movement actually started
in Wanju, a number of reports done by activists
and public officials have been published as well.
In particular, from the mid-2000 to 2013, Wanju
Office has fairly presented many reports on its case
of local food stations like the Happy Station.
Even though the academic concern for local food
has been increasing, yet, the quantity and range
of study has been somewhat limited compared to
those of overseas. For example, the study on local
food abroad has been expanding the range from
the concepts to the form of market and localiza
tion influenced by local food and so on (Lee, G.R
et al., 2013).
In contrast, the studies on local food in Korea
have been more focused on rural revitalization
through the system, which is more likely to involve
the promotion of rural economy by adding colors
to the rural community. Yet, in the course of car
rying out the local food system, the economic pur

pose sometimes plays an obstacle between residents

who are actively involved and others who are not.

In addition, the administration, more often than

not, is hard to constantly implement its policy if

the chief official cannot win the election. Accord

ingly, the local food system in Korea needs to be perceived beyond a means of local development strategy. 3 WANJU LOCAL FOOD SYSTEM 3.1 Backgrounds The agricultural industry of Korea has been suffering from globalization of farming business, which has resulted from unlimited competition among the countries. Led by cross-national agricultural and food businesses, such as WTO, FTA and DDA brought boundless free trades and transportation of agricultural products. According to the report conducted by Center for Environmental Farming System, the study figured out the distance traveled for 30 general fresh produce items to the Chicago Terminal Market. The average distance was 1,518 miles [2,530 km] (Pirog, 2002, working paper). In addition, a 2001 research found that the average distance for locally grown produce to reach markets in Iowa was 65 miles [108 km], while the distance for conventionally sourced produce was 1,494 miles [2,490 km], nearly 27 times further (Pirog & Benjamin, 2003, working paper). Thus, regarding energy usage, locally produced products are the most likely to compare favorably against non-local products. As for health benefits, most of locally-produced food is higher in nutritional content than non-locally produced food. Locally produced fruits and vegetables are higher in nutritional content to the degree to which local sourcing shortens the time between harvest and sale (Dunning, R., 2013). In case of Korea, considering its size, the distance related to transportation of foods may not be a major benefit. The government has implemented policies to establish the modernization and mechanization of agriculture as well as focus on many small-scaled farming businesses. As a result, agricultural structure has been based on single-crop farming. In this course, the aged farmers of small agricultural businesses have been alienated from political concern. Widening income polarization among the farmhouses erodes rural community. In this context, solidarity between consumers and producers shall be intensified to overcome global food system through the innovation of agricultural administration. Wanju is a

small city located in the north central part of North Jeolla Province, which neighbors Jinan County, Iksan City and Imsil County. It has two towns and eleven districts, occupying the largest area in the province. The population is 90,377 as of December 31, 2014. Wanju surrounds an urban area, Jeonju City. Wanju, a typical rural area with many aged farmers and small-scaled agricultural businesses, started its monumental project called

‘Promise Project: A 5-Year Plan’ in August, 2008

for the first time in Korea.

3.2 Promise project for development of agriculture and rural community of Wanju

The project includes twelve policies in five sectors

such as innovation of production and distribution,

measures for farmers’ debts and promotion of the

elderly et cetera. The following table provides spe

cific information on the project.

Wanju has invested 50 billion won on the Prom

ise Project since 2008. The specific plans have been

proceeded in accordance with establishment of

local circulation agriculture system.

3.3 Policies related to local food system

In light of characteristics of local farming, it is

evitable that Wanju has necessary and sufficient

conditions. First, the agricultural administra

tion of Wanju supports 5,000-odd family farm

houses smaller than 1ha and systematizes the

farms owned by the aged in order to help them

manage their farms sustainably. Secondly, being

very close to Jeonju, an urban area, Wanju has a

socio-geographic advantage, which leads to creat

ing a huge market with population of 65,00,000.

Thirdly, direct contact with consumers enables

farmers to acquire credit from them by assuring

food safety. As a result, more and more produc

ers will be willing to go into eco-friendly farming.

That is, it is aligned with local circulation agricul

ture. Lastly, the local food system helps establish a sound image as a production region for safe and healthful food. The promotion policy of Wanju local food system is focused on the followings: First, it is essential to systemize production, distribution and consumption of local food. It includes systemization of primary agricultural products and local food process as well as a process center for farmers. The systemization of distribution consists of local food stations, stores specializing in local food and direct-sale marketplaces. Since the local food system emphasizes on small quantity batch production, Wanju plans to approach by stages, broadening its sector and connecting small family farms with large-scaled commercial farms. Secondly, Wanju implemented a wide range of ordinances and regulations in 2011. The first article of the law assures that Wanju supplies school food ingredients with local food and contributes to its residents' food welfare an developing local agriculture. Thirdly, Wanju has encouraged community businesses related to local food, which provides excellent sources of processed food. To carry out the plan, Wanju has developed new cooking recipes with local ingredients through local food contests and festivals. In addition, Wanju has organized the system that has enabled local farmhouses constantly supply agricultural products by making long-term contracts. In this way, farmhouses can be able to sell their products on stable basis while the administration is able to execute agricultural policies, taking a long-term view. As a result, Wanju expanded its supportive consumers throughout the neighboring areas as well as other areas with a good reputation. Table 2 shows the pattern of consumption. As the expansion of local food consumption market is considered, consumers including conventional households have to be endowed with

Table 1. Promise Project of Wanju (2008).

Policies Contents

Innov. Production Reinforcement of competiveness of rice and Korean cow Establishment of circulation system of local resources

Innov. Distribution Practice of comprehensive local food system Distribution of local products within 30 years

Innov. Management Organization of management fund Survey of management situation investigation

Prom. of

Revitalization Nurture of core communitybusinesses Networking the community businesses

Innov. Social Establishment of supporting system for welfare the elderly Provision of productive welfare service. Table 2. Pattern of consumption of Wanju local food (Kang, S.W., 2011). Level Prog. Consumer Charac. Contents Level 1 Bulk sale Household Every week/every Other week, 25,000 W ($22/Bulk) Level 2 Station Food center Farmer's restaurant, citizen garden, experiential agriculture prog Level 3 Local restaurant pricecompetitiveness Welfare org. Organization of local food policy

information of that they can agree on the direction

and prospect which the administration suggests.

The bulk sale called Kureomi (literally, a bulk

or bundle in Korean), local food station in level 2,

farmers' market, specialized store et cetera are

included to give information to the consumers.

4 FARMERS' MARKET: HAPPY STATION

The direct dealing of local food is defined as a way

of farmers' distributing agricultural products to

consumers, which is akin to the concept of Amer

ica’s farmers’ market. There is a slight difference between the West and the South; however, farmers sell their own products, displaying them on their own stand on weekends. The consumers are not only able to buy fresh products but also to form friendly relations with others. The farmers’ market is a universal form in distribution of agricultural products.

In this context, Wanju has established four direct markets called the Happy Station in the area. The station develops processed food with products that farmers harvest and commercialize it. They also run programs such as consumers’ farm tour and weekend direct market. All the products they buy and sell are approved by Wanju. In addition, the products are distributed for only one day. The first and the second station are focused on direct dealing with consumers, yet, the Happy Station is equipped with more complex system like the farmer’s restaurant, experiential center and rural information center. That is, beyond the primary and the secondary industry, they provide a good example of the sixth industry. The Happy Station was set up jointly with funding from Wanju Local Food Corporation which had been co-invested by

Wanju and agricultural cooperatives of Wanju

region.

5 APPROVAL SYSTEM OF WANJU

LOCAL FOOD

Only the agricultural products approved by Wanju

can be distributed at the direct markets in order to

reinforce food safety. Wanju has implemented this

enhanced policy since January 2015, which takes

effect on the existing agricultural cooperatives as

well. The process is shown below.

The amount of cost to get the approval can be

waived half for a majority of small-sized farms that

are run by the elders. Wanju also holds a course for the farmers who try to get the approval to help them catch up with the updated eco-friendly farming. The course includes an ‘eco-friendly pesticide making’ class. Wanju strictly performs a test for the pesticide residues. The conditions for approval are as follows. 6 PROMOTION OF LOCAL FOOD To promote the local food system, it is indispensable that farmers and consumers closely work together, communicating with each other. In particular, there should be various ways to connect these main agents. Since many rural governments use the local food system as a link to the urban areas, the local food is an important medium to network cities and countries. To help consumers recognize the importance of local food, consumers’ organizations and power bloggers can play a major role in publicizing contents. In addition, a series of field trips for farmers’ restaurants can be planned utilizing various events. Schools are major institutions that can pass down right information. It is essential to teach students the importance of local food. As an old saying of the West, “You are what you eat,” a nationwide bond of sympathy regarding healthful food is necessary for sustainable development. 7 THE HEALTHFUL MEAL: KUREOMI In 2010, Wanju implemented the policy of ‘Kureomi,’ which is a combination of healthful issues and food production and consumption by

suggesting a proper solution. As an early practical model of Community Support Agriculture (CSA) program to expand an idea of local food, Kureomi lay the foundations for the local food system in Wanju. The specific program is as follows. Wanju reports that as of May 2011, 2,440 households nationwide use the Kureomi service; its monthly turnover reaches 120 mil.W (110,000USD). Table 3. CSA: Kureomi (literally, bulk or bundle in Korean). Wanju style CSA Model: Kureomi – 11 items: tofu, fertile chicken egg, bean sprout, seasonal vegetables, fruit – supply once a week, four times a month – 25,000 W(22$) per bulk – pay in advance – direct delivery service

8 CONCLUSION

The current local food business in Wanju is under going unique progress. Since this is a good example of a means to revitalize local farms, representatives and delegates from other cities visit Wanju fre quently to benchmark this successful model. Con sidering the above, Wanju has tried to establish a platform of local food station covering from pro duction, distribution and tourism involving experi ential opportunities.

Wanju has a very effective cooperation system that assures a stable supply of funds. This gives easy access to professional groups, and the con sumers trust them since the quality of produce is maintained stably (Cho, E.J & Lee, J.O., 2014).

Wanju’s innovation on has made a tangible change in Korean society so far, however, whether the pol icies of local government can be maintained and civic organizations which comply with the poli

cies present their abilities will determine success or

failure.

Cho, E.J & Lee, J.O. 2014. Local Food Station of Wanju

gun as a Platform, Advanced Science and Technology,

52:158.

Dunning, R. 2013. Research-Based Support and Exten

sion Outreach for Local Food Systems, Center for

Environmental Farming Systems. EU Commission, 2013, Report from the Commission to the European Parliament and the council on the case for a local farming and direct sales labeling scheme. Food Connect Foundation, 2010, Southern Melbourne Regional Development Australia Input to Regional Food Plan: Economic Benefits of ‘Creative Food Economies’ Report 1. Government of Alberta-Agriculture and Rural Development. 2010. Local Food—A Rural Opportunity. Kang, S.W. 2011. A Cast Study on Promotion of Local Food through Wanju’s Innovative Agriculture, Center of Agricultural Administration Report, 1-18. Kim, C.K. 2011. Korean Local Food Movement: Present Condition and Problem-focusing on Farmers’ market and CSA—Korean Society, 12(1): 111-133. Lee, G.R et al. 2013. The Perception and Compliance of Local Food Principles in Korea, Journal of Korea Local Geography: 567-579. Local Food Systems: Concepts, Impacts, and Issues/ ERR-97 Economic Research Service/USDA. Pirog, Rich. 2002. How Far Do Your Fruit and Vegetables Travel? Leopold Center for Sustainable Agriculture. Retrieved August 20, 2011. Pirog, R. & Benjamin, A. 2003. Checking the Food Odometer: Comparing Food Miles for Local versus Conventional Produce Sales to Iowa Institutions. Ames, IA: Leopold Center for Sustainable Agriculture. Retrieved August 21, 2011. Rural Development Administration. 2010. Plan for Promoting Local Food, presentation paper for the Conference of Academic Association of Local and Social Life Improvement. This page intentionally left blank

Effect of environmental knowledge and concern toward attitude

of green home buyers’ intention in Surabaya

M. Wijayaningtyas, Ibrahim Sipan & C.W. Wai

Department of Real Estate, Faculty of Geoinformation and Real Estate, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia,

Johor Bahru, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: Understanding consumers' buying behaviour, as one of the important elements for green

homes market growing, could increase green homes development in Surabaya. From previous studies

in consumers' buying behaviour of green products shows that they were influenced by Environmental

Knowledge (EK), Environmental Concerns (ECs), and attitude. Meanwhile, attitude affects a person's

intention to perform behaviour; in the context of this paper is the behaviour of green home consumers'.

Therefore, this study has an objective to examine the effect of EK and concern toward attitude on green

home buyers' intention. The data collection has gathered from 240 prospective home buyers. The findings

of this study; first, the model shows that the measured variables is fit to empirical data in the field. Second,

that EC has strong significant than EK toward attitude. Third, attitude toward green home has significant

1 INTRODUCTION

Building industry is one of the industries that

mostly consumes energy and water resources, raw

materials—construction derived or from natural-,

and land usability (Melchert 2007). Hence, there is

a need to apply the concept of sustainable devel

opment in the building industry. This application

is then known as green building; that are intended

to be environmentally responsible, economically

profitable, and healthy places to live and work. Accordingly, green building has a goal to reduce and eliminate the negative impact on the envi ronment by improving the existing unsustainable building in terms of design, construction, and operational practices which in turn produce green homes, apartments, and also green office condo miniums (Elias et al. 2013)

Green home is a part of the branch of green development and green buildings; and focused on house's resources which can be controlled from being polluted by the environment and stressed on energy saving features. In Indonesia, there are many housing areas and settlements that have exceeded the carrying capacity, so the green home develop ment began to be offered to the public (Sugandhy & Hakim 2007). The primary critical elements for growing a green home market are consumers, industries (both for profit and nonprofit organiza tions), and governments; and the consumer element is critical to the success of any green residential developing market (Martin et al. 2007).

value. This result also concluded that green home owners concern in environment that gave improve ment in economic and healthy for themselves and

their family.

Based on Chan and Lau (2000), EK is an inde
pendent variable to predict green purchase behav
ior. Besides that, refer to Diamantopoulos et al.
(2003), EC is a major factor in consumer decision
making process. Therefore, EK and environmental
are important factors that need to be considered
in the research on green home consumer buying
behavior.

The research question to be answered in this
study is how the EK and ECs influence the attitude
toward green home buyers' intention. Specifically,
the purpose of this research is to examine the effect
of predictor variable analyzed toward green home
buyers' intention.

2 THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

There are two forms of consumers' EK. First is
that consumers who have educated on understand
ing the negative impact of a product on the envi
ronment; second, the understanding of consumers
about environmentally friendly products itself
(D'Souza et al. 2006). Previous studies on consumer
behavior that examine the relationship between EK
and purchase or engage in green behavior still show
a contradiction. Previous studies in China, Poland,

Egypt, and Malaysia have a similar conclusion that EK has a significant relationship of green purchase behavior (Chan & Lau 2000, Rokicka 2002, Mostafa 2007, Wahid et al. 2011).

On the contrary, other literatures showed that there is a little contribution of EK toward green purchase behavior (Paco & Raposo 2009). In a qualitative study that have been done by Tadajewski and Tsukamoto (2006) on green consumer behavior found that even though the respondents have the knowledge of the lifecycle analysis but failed to implement them in their daily lives. A study of water conservation (Watson et al. 1992), also defined that there were no correlation between knowledge and attitude, or between knowledge and intention.

Thus, this study analyzes the relationship between consumer EK and green home buying intention toward attitude. EK is conceptualized as a unidimension variable which includes the general aspects on what people know about the environmental issues.

Hypothesis 1: The higher a buyer's propensity to have the EK, the better the buyer's attitude toward green home.

Individual concerns about various environmental problems such as environmental degradation, resource constraints, and pollution problems getting them to

increasingly pay attention to the environment (Paco & Raposo 2009, Kim et al. 2010). Although they did not always buy green products in their daily life, they will likely make a decision to buy environmentally friendly products that provide ecological benefits (Paco & Raposo 2009). Several previous studies have shown a positive relationship between environmentally friendly behavior and ECs (Diamantopoulos et al. 2003, Aman et al. 2012). In the purchase of environmentally safe products and recycling indicated that the EC was a significant predictor (Ellen et al. 1991). Diamantopoulos et al. (2003) defined that EC was a major factor in consumer decision making process. Furthermore, research by Mostafa (2007) found that EC was positively related to consumers' intention to purchase green products. Study by Aman et al. (2012) showed that attitudes mediating the relationship between EC and green purchase intention. Hypothesis 2: The higher a buyer's likelihood toward the EC, the better the buyer's attitude toward green home. In the theory of planned behavior, one of important determinants of a person's behavior is attitude. Attitude toward behavior is the result of the assessment of a person's behavior, whether that behavior is good or not, value or not, favorable or not, and positive or negative. Therefore, the attitude is assumed to have two interrelated components namely beliefs about the consequences of the actions and behavior of the corresponding positive or negative of each behavior (Ajzen & Madden 1986, Ajzen 1991). Balderjahn (1988) found that a clear and definite attitude toward ecologically conscious living resulted in ecologically responsible buying and using of products. Attitude toward green homes is applicable in order to examine the green home intention of house buyers. In the context of purchase intention of green product, attitudes have an impact on purchase intentions particularly toward environmentally sensitive homes (Alwitt & Pitts 1996). Attitude toward green and sustainable homes in Malaysia has a strong and significant relationship with the green and sustainable homes purchase intention (Tan 2013). Furthermore, these individuals will tend to purchase more green products compared with those who did not hold a positive and favorable attitude toward these beneficial products. A study of green residential market in the USA by McGraw-Hill Construction (2007) described the benefits of green homes that bring the highest levels of satisfaction in order of importance are home quality,

easier maintenance, better indoor air quality, more

efficient appliances or fixtures, and better health.

Therefore, it could be said that individuals who have positive attitudes toward green home and understanding of its benefits will likely have the buying intention.

Hypothesis 3: The better a buyer's attitude toward green home, the higher the green home buyer's intention.

Considering the previous studies above, this research proposed framework of green home buy ers' intention as described through Figure 1 below. EK and EC are classified as latent exogenous atti tude toward green home as mediating variable and buyers' intention as endogenous latent.

3 RESEARCH METHODS

The flowchart of the research method is described in Figure 2.

This study uses quantitative approach, in which, questionnaires were used to collect the data. The sampling method uses non probability sampling with purposive sampling technique. The data collection method used in this research is a cross sectional survey. Respondents of this study were prospective home buyers who come and find information at office marketing of several hous ing developments and attend the property and real

estate exhibitions in Surabaya. The questionnaires were distributed from January–April 2015 and gathered from 240 respondents.

The questionnaires design is closed ended ques tion that is divided into two sections. Section A compiles the questions about the respondents' demography background. Section B compiles the behavioral variables used in this study; EK, con cern, attitude toward green home, and buying intention of green home. For measuring the four latent variables mentioned above, a five point Lik ert scale was used, in which, 1 indicates strongly disagree and 5 indicates strongly agree.

The indicators of measuring the EK are as follows: knowing more about recycling than others; knowing how to select the products and packages to reduce the amount of waste; knowledgeable about environmental issues; and the understanding of environmental symbols and phrases on product packages. The EC will be measured with these indicators: environmental issues are consumers' responsibility and emergency issues; human must live in harmony with the nature in order to survive; disastrous consequences will be often produced if human interferes with the nature; and plants and animals also have rights as human to exist. Attitude toward green home is defined as a general point of view of buyers' belief in considering green home. Therefore, the attitude toward green home is measured with six indicators of green home benefits or values. For example, green home is valuable because it is developed with innovative and sustainable design, and green home is beneficial because it may enhance a healthy life. Green home buyers' intention is a plan or purpose of prospective buyers to commit on purchasing green home, which are measured by these indicators: have a plan; will try; and will intend to buy green home. The analysis data

were obtained from two statistical softwares. The calculation to show the descriptive analysis was carried out by statistical software SPSS (Statistical Product and Service Solutions) version 21. PLS-SEM with Warp-PLS version 5.0 used to test the measurements' reliability and validity and to perform the path analysis. 4 RESULTS 4.1 Respondents' characteristics In general, the majority of 240 respondents were male (51.3%) who live in Surabaya and around, whose age was around 31–40 years old (39.1%), with marital status was married (73.3%), working in private company (67.9%), the level education were undergraduate (43.3%), and the household annual income was less than Rs. 60 000 000.00. 4.2 Reliability and validity measurement Reliability test, as the first step, purposes to determine the internal consistency of measuring the

Figure 1. Proposed research framework. Figure 2. Research method flowchart.

instrument when used to measure the same object

more than once. The measurement of internal

consistency has critical testing performance of

Composite Reliability (CR), Cronbach Alpha and

Average Variance Extracted (AVE), and it followed

Bagozzi and Yi approach (Bagozzi & Yi 1988).

The coefficient of internal consistency indicators

showed in Table 2 below.

The standard of CR coefficients are greater than

0.7 (Nunnally 1978) and Cronbach Alpha of reli

ability values are 0.70 or higher will be sufficient

(Drost 2012). From all the tables above, it could be

stated that measurements' yields are highly reliable.

The validity testing of instrument is the second

step in this analysis. Validity measurement aims

to test whether the measurements are valid and

capable of measuring the phenomena investigated.

Assessment of both measurements' convergent

validity and divergent validity were powerful to

measure the construct validity.

Convergent validity assesses the score of the items

that are expected to measure the same construct var

iable. The assumptions of convergent validity were

taken based on the final results which were simi

lar between the measured indicators (Jewell 2011).

From Table 3, it can be concluded that all load con

struct items yields are good convergent validity. Table 1. Respondents' characteristics. Profile Percentage Gender Male Female 51.3 48.7 Age group ≤30 31–40 41–50 ≥51 31.3 39.1 21.3 8.3 Marital status Single Married 26.7 73.3 Occupation Private company Government Entrepreneur Others 67.9 16.3 12.1 3.8 Education ≤Senior high school Diploma Undergraduate Master Doctor 23.8 11.7 53.3 10.4 0.8 Household annual income ≤60 000 000 60 000 001–120 000 000 120 000 001–180 000 000 ≤180 000 001 57.9 26.7 11.3 4.2 Table 2. The reliability coefficients. CR Cronbach Alpha AVE EK 0.857 0.777 0.601 EC 0.879 0.827 0.597 ATG 0.876 0.828 0.545 BI 0.917 0.864 0.787 Table 3. Combine loadings and cross loadings. EK EC ATG BI EK1 0.723 −0.055 −0.049 −0.106 EK2 0.748 0.032 0.153 0.004 EK3 0.815 0.048 −0.074 −0.074 EK4 0.811 −0.029 −0.024 0.165 EC1 0.289 0.591 −0.039 −0.082 EC2 0.260 0.722 −0.049 −0.001 EC3 −0.076 0.843 −0.061 0.030 EC4 −0.171 0.844 0.030 0.014 EC5 −0.181 0.833 0.102 0.015 ATG1 0.082 0.075 0.749 0.017 ATG2 0.028 −0.072 0.786 −0.078 ATG3 −0.172 0.171 0.768 0.140 ATG4 −0.026 0.072 0.794 −0.059 ATG5 −0.071 0.003 0.781 −0.041 ATG6 0.245 −0.374 0.509 0.039 BI1 0.003 0.061 −0.024 0.892 BI2 −0.024 −0.009 −0.033 0.877 BI3 0.021 −0.052 0.056 0.892 Table 4. Latent variable correlations with square roots of AVE on the diagonal. EK EC ATG BI EK 0.775 0.421 0.33 0.324 EC 0.421 0.773 0.492 0.374 ATG 0.330 0.492 0.738 0.452 BI 0.324 0.374 0.452 0.887 Furthermore, Fornell and Larckers' approach was used for assessing measurements divergent validity by comparing the square roots of the AVE of each variables to the other correlations among all variables

(Fornell & Larcker 1981). The divergent validity coefficient is shows in Table 4. From the table it is concluded that measurements have good divergent validity as square roots of AVE are greater than any other bivariate correlations. 4.3 Structural equation modeling (SEM) The SEM analysis was performed for hypotheses testing since the reliability and validity

measurements' indicate good results. This analy

sis carries out that Attitude Toward Green home

(ATG) as a mediator between EK and EC (EC)

and green home Buyers' Intention (BI).

Refer to Table 5, all hypotheses are valid at

$P < 0.01$. The patch coefficient between both of EC

and EK and attitude toward green home support

the hypotheses. However, EC has strong relation

ship with a path coefficient of 0.438 at $P < 0.01$.

Then, attitude (ATG) has a direct and positive

effect on green home buyers' intention with high

est path coefficient of 0.490 at $P < 0.01$. Therefore,

consumers' with more favorable attitude toward

green home are more likely to have intention to

purchase green home.

Average Path Coefficients (APC), Average R

Squared (ARS), and average variance inflation

factors (AVIF) are used for assessing the model

fit with values as describe in Table 6, and refer to

Kock's assumption that the model has a good fit

(Kock 2011).

5 DISCUSSION

From the outcome of the data analysis with struc

tural equation model above shows that attitude

toward green home is a good predictor for green

home buyers' intention. This finding is supported

Figure 3. Structural equation modeling.

Table 5. Hypotheses testing.

Hypotheses	Path	coefficient	P value	Result
H1	EK-ATG	0.151	0.01	Significant
H2	EC-ATG	0.438	0.01	Significant
H3	ATG-BI	0.490	0.01	Significant

Table 6. Model fit indicators.

APC = 0.353, P < 0.001	Good if P < 0.05
ARS = 0.245, P < 0.001	Good if P < 0.05
AVIF = 1.228	Good if AVIF < 5

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behaviour.

Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Proc

esses, 50, 179-211.

Ajzen, I. and Madden, T.J. (1986). Prediction of goal

directed behaviour: attitude, intentions, perceived

behavioural control. Journal of Experimental Social

Psychology, 22: 453-474.

Aman, L., Harun, A., and Hussein, Z. (2012). The

influence of environmental knowledge and concern

on green purchase intention the role of attitude as a

mediating variable. British Journal of Arts and Social Sciences, 7(2), 145-167.

Alwitt, L. F. & Pitts, R. E. (1996). Predicting purchase intentions for an environmentally sensitive product. Journal of Consumer Psychology, 5, 49-64.

Arif, I., Permanasari, A. and Badil, R. (2009). Hidup Hirau Hijau. Jakarta: Kepustakaan Populer Gramedia.

Bagozzi, R.P. and Yi, Y. (1988). On the evaluation of structural equation model. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 16(1), 74-94.

Balderjahn, I. (1988). Personality variables and envi ronmental attitudes as predictors of ecologically responsible consumption patterns. Journal of Business Research,17, 51-56.

Blackwell, R. D., Miniard, P. W. and Engel, J. F. (2006). Consumer behavior. Mason: Thomson.

Chan, R. Y. K. and Lau, L. B. Y. (2000). Antecedents of green purchases: A survey in china. Journal of Con sumer Marketing (17), 338-357.

Chen, T.B., and Chai L.T. (2010). Attitude towards envi ronment and green products: Consumers perspective. Management Science and Engineering, 4(2), 27-39.

Daly, J., Gronov, S. Jenkins, D & Plimmer, F. (2003). Consumer behavior in the valuation of residential property: A comparative study in the UK, Ireland and

Australia. Property Management, 21(5), 295-314.

Diamantopoulos, A., Schlegelmilch, B.B., Sinkovics, R.R. and Bohlen, G.M. (2003). Can socio-demographics still play a role in profiling green consumers? A review of the evidence and an empirical investigation. Journal of Business Research, 56(6), 465-480.

Dowd, K. and K. J. Burke (2013). The influence of ethi cal values and food choice motivations on intentions to purchase sustainably sourced foods. Appetite, 69, 137-144.

D'Souza, C., Taghian, M., and Khosla, R. (2007). Examina tion of environmental beliefs and its impact on the influ ence of price, quality and demographic characteristics with respect to green purchase intention. Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing, 15(2), 69-78.

Drost, E.A. (2012). Validity and reliability in social sci ence research. Education Research and Perspectives, 3(1), 105-123.

Elias, E. M., Bakar, A. A., Bahaudin, A. Y., and Husin, F. M. (2013, 5-7 May). Green Residential Buildings: The Perspective of Potential Buyers. Paper presented at the Proceeding of 3rd Global Accounting, Finance and Economics Conference, Rydges Melbourne, Australia.

Ellen, P., Wiener, J., & Cobb-Walgren, C. (1991). The role of perceived consumer effectiveness in motivating

environmentally conscious behaviors. Journal of Pub

lic Policy and Marketing, 10, 102-117.

Fornell, N. and Larcker, D.F. (1981). Evaluating struc

tural equation model with unobservable variables and measurement error. Journal of Marketing Research, 48, 39-50. Jewell, D.V. (2011). Guide to evidence-based physical therapist practice (2nd edition). Jones & Barlett Learning: Ontario. Kim, Y. & Han, H. (2010). Intention to pay conventionalhotel prices at a green hotel—a modification of the theory of planned behavior. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 18(8), 997-1014. Kock, N. (2011). Using Warp-PLS in e-collaboration studies: Mediating effect, control and second order variables and algorithm choices. International Journal of e-Collaboration, 7 (3), 1-13. Laroche, M., Jasmin, B. and Guido, B.F. (2001). Targeting consumers who are willing to pay more for environmentally friendly products. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 18, 503-520. Martin, J., Swett, B., and Wein, D. (2007). Residential Green Building Report: A Market Engagement Framework for Developers and Builders. Retrieved on November 21, 2013 from http://www.erb.umich.edu/Research/Student-Research/ResidentialGreenBuildReport.pdf McGrawHill-Construction (2007). The Green Homeowner Smart Market Report. Retrieved on November 21, 2013 from http://images.kw.com/docs/0/0/9/009684/1217279974601_The_Green_Homeowner.pdf Melchert, L. (2007). The Dutch sustainable building policy: a model for developing countries. Building and Environment, 42(2), 893-901. Mostafa, M. M. (2007). Gender differences in Egyptian consumers' green purchase behaviour: The effects of environmental knowledge, concern and attitude. International Journal of Consumer Studies, 31, 220-229. Nunnally, J.C. (1978). Psychometric Theory (2nd edition). McGraw Hill: New York. Paco, A. F., Raposo, M. L., and Filho, W. L. (2009). Identifying the green consumer: A segmentation study. Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing, 17(1), 17-25. Robert, J.A. and Straughan, R.D. (1999). Environmental Segmentation Alternatives: A look at Green Consumer Behaviour in the New Millennium. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 16(6), 558-75. Rokicka, E. (2002). Attitudes towards natural environment. International Journal of Sociology, 32(2), 78-90. Sugandhi, RA. and Hakim, R. (2007). Prinsip Dasar Kebijakan Pembangunan Berkelanjutan Berwawasan Lingkungan. Jakarta: Bina Aksara. Tadajewski, M. & Tsukamoto, S.W. (2006). Anthropology and consumer research: qualitative insights

into green consumer behavior. Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal, 9(1), 8-25. Tan, T.H. (2013). Use of structural equation modeling to predict the intention to purchase green and sustainable homes in Malaysia. Asian Social Science, 9(10), 181-191. Wahid,N.A., Rahbar, E. and Tan, S.S. (2011). Factors influencing the green purchase behavior of Penang environmental volunteers. Internal Business Management, 5, 38-49. Watson, R., Murphy, M., & Moore, S. (1992). Developmental and social contextual variables in water usage behavior. Brussels: XXV International Congress of Psychology.

Investigating the required competencies of valuation surveying graduates

W.R.A. Jiram, A.A. Bujang & H.A. Zarin

Department of Real Estate, Faculty of Geoinformation and Real Estate, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia,

Johor Bahru, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: An investigation into the views of industry, academia and professional body on valuation surveying education revealed there is a considerable gap in the expectation of graduate competency and achievement of it. This paper presents the qualitative evaluation to determine the competencies that need to be acquired by valuation graduates. This was accomplished by collecting interview protocol from a sample of 16 experts consisting of academics, industry, and professional body representatives to provide a full picture of the extent of coverage of competencies of valuation surveying graduates. The participant experience years range from 15 to 45 years (M = 29.83, SD = 10.92). A text/thematic analysis was used to get the dimensions of VS graduate competencies. Further investigation and validation for the competency dimensions of valuation graduates is needed to provide adequate exploration. industry that may have a new member

of the graduating students. At the same time, the industry does not seem to understand that the graduate is someone who has a higher intellectual capacity and are able to develop professional skills and technical knowledge once in employment (Perera, 2006; Lee & Hogg, 2009; Simpson, 2010). Both RICS's Education and the Membership Board have manifested particular competence through university education both formal training and graduate work, either as part-time students or during his employment. In any case, the applicant will undergo a period of full-time employment after graduation, thus, adding an element of training in their overall skills profile. It will be appreciated that there is a balance between the various types of competences that can be anticipated and the level to be attained in the universities and what arises out of exposure to experience only available at the workplace (Perera et al., 2013). Both academia and industry have certain expectations of each other over the years about what can be achieved in learning and graduates, and both should be complimentary (Perera & Pearson, 2011). There is room for misunderstanding as to what is required and what is achieved between stakeholders. At worst, there may be possible gaps in the education and training that comes from being offered and received by the valuation graduate, or in the achievement of the competency. Thus, this research attempts to answer what are the competencies are required from valuation surveying graduates.

1 INTRODUCTION

There is a three directional pull from professional

bodies, academic, and industry on the need of valu

ation surveyor development. Problems arise as a

result of the gap between the anticipations of the

stakeholders. Professional bodies interested in grad

uates who can be progressed towards professional

status through the establishment of the required

competencies, while academics are interested in

producing rounded graduates with mandatory

knowledge for further progression. Meanwhile, the

industry is looking for graduates who can contribute to the growth of the business (RICS, 2009; Perera & Pearson, 2011, Wilson et al., 2012). Hence, there is a three directional pull of the need for valuation grad uates development. Surveyors current education sys tem to not recognize the needs of multi-directional and therefore produces graduates that often fail to meet the industry needs (Wong et al., 2007; Lee and Hogg, 2009; Perera and Pearson, 2011, Wilson et al., 2014). This creates a barrier to the development of the profession and the career development of valu ation graduates due to a greater level of dissatisfac tion among employers and graduates.

2 CURRENT NEEDS OF VALUATION SURVEYING GRADUATES

COMPETENCY

RICS and the education sector showed similarity that they undervalue the specific needs of an

3 DEFICIENCIES IN PAST RESEARCH

Poon et al. (2010) identified that there has been some research that is looking at the required real estate skills and knowledge as well as the status of current courses, but conclude that the research is limited.

Gibler et al. (2002) has examined the knowledge

and skills needed by corporate real estate managers from the USA, UK, Australia, and Hong Kong. They identified 38 knowledge and skills area of corporate real estate management. This research found that the corporate real estate managers rated strategic, portfolio management, and negotiation skills as more important than economic and tax management.

Epley (2004) also has identified the result and survey of the skills and knowledge for corporate real estate executives. The respondents made a decision in relation to their importance to the area of responsibility. The areas ranked the most important were management, leasing, construc tion, property finance, procurement, and sales. Respondents ranked areas of market interpreta tion, general analysis, and people skills as impor tant in the evaluation.

Callanan and McCarthy (2003) have made a survey on the employer, and found that graduates lacked knowledge of the building pathology and property development, as well as practical skills and knowledge and the ability to link theory with practice. However, employers feel that graduates are equipped with computer and communication

skills. They also made a survey on graduates and found that graduates need more practical experience in the valuation courses. Graduates are also concerned about their lack of planning skills, practical commercial content, and land economics.

Galuppo and Worzala (2004) reported that the courses offered in the graduate program of property such as the principle of real estate, finance and valuation or appraisal is required in a number of agreements in the “program evaluation” existing. They found that both industry and professional experience of all core courses available is significant. The study also found that the industry would prefer graduates who have project-based curriculum, while professionals demanded a diverse curriculum. The study found that financial and communication skills were all important, and found significant deficits in technology and statistic skills. Galuppo and Worzala (2004) suggested that the valuation program combining multi disciplinary approach and promote the development of all types of skills, including technical skills and technology, and social skills.

Weinstein and Worzala (2008) interviewed educators, administrators and practitioners from 13 real estate programs in the United States for the purposes of

their investigation to determine the elements that are needed to create a successful graduate through programs of post-graduates. The study found there are 11 themes that should be included in programs to improve the practice of real estate. This study suggests that graduates program should be designed to produce graduates who have extensive skills, especially the critical thinking and problem-solving skills, communication skills, leadership, and life-long learning and information management skills. Manning and Epley (2006) studied whether the valuation faculties have taught the skills demanded by professionals. Researchers determine the skills needed and whether it has been providing graduates with adequate skills (Manning and Epley, 2006) (Epley, 2004 Gibler et al., 2002). They find that there are deficiencies in the teaching of general business skills. In 2001, Institute of Surveyors Malaysia (ISM) has conducted a survey on graduates in real estate management and found that the performance of real estate graduates was contrary to the expectation of private organizations and public's perspective. In order to close the gap between the curriculum and the real estate industry, the expectations from the academics and practitioners should be adjusted. Real estate communities have to work collectively in developing the profession from the real estate graduates to the scope of the real estate profession. Wilson et al., 2012 undertook research to assess the sufficiency of the soft skills embedded in real estate curriculum. The précis of the analyses signified that, soft skills infused in both coursework, and training has not met the needs of the graduates. The lack of integration of communication skills in English, leadership skills, and teamwork skills in the curriculum must be given due to attention as it is also a skill that is perceived as a critical weakness of real estate graduates. This signifies that these skills are not adequately infused or acquired either by coursework or training. In summary, it is suggested that the present education system of the Valuation Surveyor does not recognize the multi-directional needs of the Valuation Surveyor and hence often produces a graduate whom the industry sees as not fulfilling their requirements. Thus, this study is aimed at developing the dimensions of Valuation Surveyor graduate competencies. 4 METHODOLOGY The purpose of qualitative evaluation was to answer the research question defining the valuation graduates competencies. This was accomplished

by collecting the interview data from a sample of

16 experts consisting of academics, industry, and

professional body representatives to provide a full picture of the extent of coverage of competencies of valuation surveying graduates..

4.1 Participants

To ensure the measure would be appropriate for assessing the VS graduate competencies, the real estate education stakeholders; academician, pro fessional body, and industry took part in the study (see Table 1). Participants were recruited through purposive sampling.

4.2 Interview protocol structured interview

This interview was conducted to determine the competencies dimensions and investigating the changing developmental needs of Surveyor who satisfy the aspirations of industrial, professional, and academic stakeholders through the analysis of the views of an expert consisting of academics, industry and professional body representatives. The protocol focused specifically on the areas outlined below;

i. The first question required participant to indicate the expected achievement of the competencies.

ii. The next question entailed describing the experts' perception of areas of work becoming

more important.

iii. The question 3 required participants to indicate

relative importance of the VS competencies.

iv. Question 4 was concerned about the expert

views on valuation surveying education.

v. The final question was related to the experts

views on the role of RICS. 4.3 Interview procedure The participants took part individually. The participant were made to understand that they could refuse to answer any questions and terminate the interview at anytime. Interviewees were informed that the purpose of this study was to explore the dimensions of valuation graduate competencies and the current issues related to the study. Participants have the assurance that their real names will be replaced by their pseudonyms if quoted in the research results. The interviewer took detailed field notes. Interviews were conducted with the duration between 30 minutes to 50 minutes, and each participant responses are then transcribed to be used in the data analysis. 4.4 Data analysis The analysis served to answer the researh question answering question concerning the dimensions of valuation graduate competencies. Content and Text/Thematic analysis were used to get the dimensions of VS graduate competencies. 5 DETERMINING COMPETENCIES AND CONTENT VALIDITY To ensure the measure would be appropriate for assessing the VS graduate competencies, the real estate education stakeholders, academicians, professional body, and industry took part in the study. The interview was conducted to determine the competency dimensions and investigating the changing developmental needs of Surveyor who satisfied the aspirations of industrial, professional, and academic stakeholders through the analysis of the views of an expert consisting of academics, industry, and professional body representatives. The participant experience years range from 15 to 45 years (M = 29.83, SD = 10.92). Table 2 shows the summary of expert interviews. The findings revealed that there is a considerable gap between the industry’s expected competency of graduate VS and what is actually attained. As a result, RICS degree programs often produce graduates who are not fit for purpose, hence, there is confusion and dissatisfaction in the industry as to graduate VS competency. Perhaps those in academic circles are not aware of what the industry

really wants because of misinterpretation and lack of proper attention, or the industry has unrealistic expectations. This is increasingly debatable. The study found that many participants suggested that the programs should be more sensitive to the needs and concerns of stakeholders and incorporate improvements to equip graduates with

Table 1. Participants of the interview.

Stakeholder Institution Number of participant

Academia Malaysian university 2 UK university 1 Australian university 1

Professional

body Professional Board Royal Institution of Chartered Surveyors (RICS) 3 Board of Valuers, Appraisers and Estate Agents (BOVAEA) 1

Industry Royal Institution of Surveyors Malaysia (RISM) representative 4

Table 2. Summary of expert interview.

Interview Question Expert View

Expected

achievement

of competencies The competency needed by graduates of property valuation were identified as; a. Mandatory Competencies Accounting principles and procedures, business planning, conflict avoidance, management and dispute resolution procedures, data management, sustainability, team-working, conduct rules, ethics and professional practice, client care, communication and negotiation, health and safety b. Core competencies Inspection, valuation, measurement of land, property and other assets c. Optional competencies/Technical competencies Access and rights over land, auctioneering, building pathology, capital taxation, compulsory purchase and compensation, contaminated land, corporate real estate management, corporate recovery and insolvency, development appraisals, indirect investment vehicles, insurance, investment management, landlord and tenant, leasing/letting, local taxation/assessment, planning, property finance and funding, property management, property management

accounting, property records/information systems, purchase and sale, strategic real estate consultancy, valuation of businesses and intangible assets, accounting principles and procedures d. Additional competencies Communication (language, report writing), and team working. Not all the 12 respondents have graduate level expectation for some technical competencies such as local taxation/assessment, capital taxation, and compulsory purchase and compensation. There are indeed different interpretations of graduate competency and actual attainment perhaps due to individual understanding of competencies, level definitions and the role of universities in the training of valuation surveyors.

Perception of areas

of work becoming

more important In general, respondents expressed the need to improve basic knowledge skills in the use of ICT and its impact on the profession. They also agreed that the team work skills will become more important for graduates VS.

Relative importance

of the VS

competencies Four respondents (one BOVAEA, three RISM) Four respondents said that the students had weak knowledge, and there are competencies that are not given proper attention; valuation, measurement, team working, and data management. When respondents (one RISM, one RICS and one BOVAEA) were questioned about the additional competency, they have determined that sustainability, business management and planning, accounting, communication (language, report writing and team working), as additional competence required by graduates. Four respondents (two academics, two RISM) felt that there were no new additions to the competency and satisfied with the existing coverage of competency. Respondents concurred that there was no outdated content taught in courses provided by the valuation program.

Expert views on

valuation

surveying

education One RISM felt that some lecturers need to update their knowledge so graduates are valued by the latest techniques. Respondent also expressed the view that there are too many mass teaching in the valuation program, the learning outcomes do not match the needs of the industry. However, the respondent did not make a generalization and stated that it may vary with other universities offering the valuation program, and individual lecturers.
Satisfaction with the curriculum used to produce graduate VS Five respondents were commented on the curriculum content of valuation program (one academic, one BOVAEA, three RISM). The academic noted that they were able to cover a lot of the core competencies in a 4 year degree and that they could map modules that they teach to the competencies. Two respondents (one BOVAEA, one RISM) stated that coverage is generally quite good. However, the industry respondents felt that it was difficult to map modules taught at universities to RICS competencies. One academic stated “students are going out without the necessary skills to undertake their job and that is where employees feel that the universities felt that some of the courses in the valuation program does not deliver what is wanted by employers or industry. This being said, the general view was that it is not easy to generalize and some courses are better than others. (Continued)

Table 2. (Continued)

Interview question Expert view

Experts views on

the role of RICS The RICS Valuation competencies (learned through education and industry experience) provide the basis on which a valuation surveyor will be judged as to their capability to act as an independent professionally qualified chartered surveyor. Valuation graduate can become professionally qualified upon successful completion of the APC after 3 years of post-qualification industry experience. The graduate route is still apparently the most popular route to chartered membership. It is expected to breach the gap between what is learnt at university and what is needed to get chartered. As a result, it is useful to investigate the appropriateness of this membership route and others. The RICS recently revised their membership pathways.

relevant and sufficient competence for employ

ment. Participants also suggested that there should

be a reassessment of the course curriculum.

6 CONCLUSION

This paper contributes a conceptual framework for identifying key required competencies of valuation graduates based on input from the secondary and interview data.

It reveals that there are significant differences in the interpretation of the competence of the indus try, academics, and professional bodies. The views of the industry and academician on the relation ships with professional certification bodies have also been investigated. The big difference of views and lack of responsibility of all stakeholders are arising from the improper interpretation and lack of defi nition. The interpretation of unclear competencies graduates contribute to dissatisfaction on the part of industry and by the demoralization of graduates.

In order to address this situation, and thus, har monize different views of industry, academia and professional bodies, further research in the devel opment of benchmark competencies of graduates, and competency framework is necessary.

Further validation for the competency dimen sions of valuation graduates is needed. Aside from this content validity, it is important to continue to

test the competency dimensions, so that additional

reability evidence and construct validity can be

achieved.

RICS. 2009. Requirements and competencies, RICS

education and qualification standards, RICS.

Perera, S. & Pearson, J. 2011. Alignment of professional,

academic and industrial development needs for quantity surveyors: Post Recession Dynamics. [Online] RICS Education Trust funded research report, UK. Wilson, A. J., Ariffian, B. A. &, Hasmah A.Z. 2012. The embedment of soft skills in real estate program via coursework. March, 831-846. Wong, J. M. W., Wong, F. K. W. & Hui, E. C. M. 2007. A study to improve higher education for surveying professionals in Hong Kong, Journal for Education in the Built Environment 2(1): 76-89. Lee, C. C. T. & Hogg, K. 2009. Early career training of quantity surveying professionals. Proceedings of the RICS COBRA research conference, University of Cape Town, South Africa, 10-11 September 2009. Simpson, Y. 2010. Twenty first century challenges for the professional quantity surveyor. Proceedings of the RICS COBRA 2010 conference, Dauphine Université, Paris. Poon, J., Hoxley, M. & Fuchs, W. 2010. Real estate education: a comparative study of employer requirements and graduate self-perceptions. Proceedings of construction and building research (COBRA) Conference, Paris, 2-3 September. Gibler, K.M., Black, R.T. & Moon, K.P. 2002. Time, place, space, technology and corporate real estate strategy. Journal of real estate literature, 24 (3): 235-262. Epley, D.R. 2004. New ranking of decision-making subject areas for corporate real estate executives. Journal of real estate education 26(1): 43-68. Callanan, J. & McCarthy, I. 2003. Property education in New Zealand: industry requirements and student perceptions", Journal of real estate practice and education 6(1): 23-32. Galuppo, L.A. & Worzala, E. 2004. A study into the important elements of a Master's degree in real estate. Journal of real estate practice and education 7(1): 25-42. Weinstein, M. & Worzala, E. 2008. Graduate real estate programs: an analysis of the past and present and trends for the future. Journal of real estate literature 16(3): 387-413. Manning, C. & Epley, D. 2006. Do real estate faculties teach the skills and competencies needed by corporate real estate executives? Journal of

real estate practice and education 9(1): 37–59. This page intentionally left blank

The music licensing supply chain: The new demands of a new market

M.P. Oliveira, A.J.R.R. Carmo & M.A. Duarte

UNIRIO, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

L. Baumworcel

Hospital Caxias D'or, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

ABSTRACT: As it is new in the field of the music business, the music licensing is now becoming more

popular in the production of audiovisual works in Television and film. This new reality has been driven

by technological innovations inherent to the production and music distribution. With a production chain

still in training, it is not hard to identify the slow development of music licensing in the Brazilian market

due to its discrete promotion among potential participants. Therefore, it is relevant to expand the research

on this issue in order to enable the development of a set of useful knowledge for the musician and the

market.

Keywords: music licensing; synchronization; audiovisual; phonographic copyright 2 METHODOLOGY The methodology of this study initially uses a literature review about the production chain of music to diagnose the main interferences caused by contemporary technological changes. This work will be useful in verifying our hypothesis: the changes in distribution and production influenced the formation of the licensing market. Then there will be a new literature review to deepen knowledge of the main participants of this productive chain and the main procedures involving music licensing actions of the audiovisual market. Main question: • What is the relevant practical knowledge present in the music licensing audiovisual market important for the musician? Secondary questions: • What are the important technological changes that have influenced the production chain of the music

world? • How these changes may have interacted with the landscape of the audiovisual music market? • What are the actual participants of the production chain of the music licensing? The survey used in this study is literature with the development of qualitative assessments. The articles involved in this research were found in searches done on the site of capes journals. The keywords used were as follows: musical licensing, audiovisual, and supply chain of music.

1 INTRODUCTION

The audiovisual music market presents a high

dynamism. Segments such as Television channels,

gaming market, advertising, and cinema have a

constant demand for sound content, which com

plicates the production chain. It is a spectacle that

hides thousands of combined actions in the fight

against time.

Professionals in the music business who are

dedicated to this field must present a diverse set

of knowledge. Fulfill tight deadlines and redo

several times the same job in trying to find the

exact point required by the customer. They com

prise the operation of a wide variety of equip

ment besides performing various tasks, such as

mixing and musical licensing. To play their role,

this professional uses very specific techniques

that are not limited to conventional composition

mechanisms.

The audiovisual music market is undergoing

a period of transformation driven by the con
stant reshaping of the music industry. The greater
autonomy of small and medium producers due to
innovations in technology as well as the expansion
of business opportunities in the Internet environ
ment cause changes in the relationships between
the main components of the production chain of
licensing for that area. These changes are altered
the way the musicians have positioned within the
market as well as the skills required for their inser
tion in the context of the music business and spe
cifically in the music licensing context.

3 CHANGES OF MUSICAL PRODUCTION CHAIN

Jones (2000) divided into three relationships
between popular music and technology to explain
the changes that permeate the music business:
making music (production), consume music (con
sumption), and music distribution (distribution).
These changes mainly focused on the production
and distribution reshaping relations definitively in
the music industry.

According to Jones (1992) cited by Gohn (2001),
until the 1960s, record companies monopolized
the recording studios. Nakano (2010) explains that

years earlier, in the 1950s, the development of com
plementary recording production technologies have
reduced costs. This scenario was important for the
emergence of the first independent record label, the
Indies, important for launching innovative music.
Years later, in the 1980s and 1990s, the prolif
eration of technologies with lower prices raised
the access to studios, increasing job opportunities
involving these processes. In addition to the popu
larity of recording media, new artifacts respon
sible for handling and recreation of instrumental
timbres quickly flooded the market and had prolif
erated among professionals.
According to Levy (1993), the trio sequencer,
sampler, and synthesizer changed the way of mak
ing music, giving the musician the ability to recreate
an orchestra and conducting composition and pro
duction processes autonomously. A new wave of
independent music entered the market due to some
new possibilities for recording and production.
Lima (2011) points out that in the 1990s the
record companies did not seek to adapt to the
Internet and their marketability. With the emer
gence of sales platforms was given a broad break
down process of the major labels. Nakano (2010)

points out that since the 1990s the use of the Inter

net has changed the productive chain of music

where previously the major labels monopolized the

marketing actions.

This disruption of the supply chain caused a full

reorganization of the musical production chain.

Graham et al. (2004) shows that in the old model,

the major labels were configured in a vertical line

going from the supply of materials for the produc

tion of physical media to distribution and con

sumption. With the changes described, the Internet

has become a fundamental part of the industry,

enabling a complete reorganization of the system

where all parties began to act independently.

Currently, with the consolidation of the Internet

as a powerful tool in the music business, numerous

sites are specializing in music marketing for audio

visual projects driving a new model: the music

licensing. According to Genes (2012) this practice is not new. However, it gained visibility due to great successes in the field of games and television with the game Guitar Hero and the Television show Glee. According to Cooke (2013), the licensing market consists of companies that form a pyramid. They range from companies with cheap Royalty free licenses to trailer music libraries as Audiomachine and Two Steps From Hell, which charge high fees for licenses. The author mentions that the main forms of remuneration in this market are the fees per license, the performance royalties arising from the use of television, film, and others and mechanical royalties arising from the reproduction of physical media (Compact discs, for example). The ease of making contacts on the web

and developing the entire deal from the choice of music to payment elevate the number of professionals involved in the audiovisual production that follow this new alternative. Another factor that stimulates the growth of these sites is the negotiation of rights, complex, and time-consuming that due to the new sites become easy and simplified, as both phonographic and copy—rights are previously negotiated. These factors stimulate the use of preexisting songs in this market. The supplier content of these websites is not, in general, the catalog of major labels, as these would charge a very high value for its artists. In practice, the content of these sites is offered by Indie labels and even artists with bedroom studios. Therefore, it is evident that changes in the production and distribution processes set out by Jones (2000) were instrumental in setting up the music licensing context as it is seen today. 4 PRODUCTION CHAIN OF MUSIC SYNCHRONIZATION Dealing specifically with the audiovisual music field, the ability to search repertoires from all over the world through the Internet makes the range of possibilities of creating a soundtrack for a film or television production has a considerable increase. The speed of more practical solutions that have recently emerged (search the Internet music, trustee—ship of music supervisors, and the advent of music libraries) transforms the market as the permutations within the audiovisual music chain becomes real. These changes are still slow due to lack of information by developing films and series about copyright issues or even on licensing platforms. The increased demand for recorded music for Television producers, advertising, and the film has caused changes in the audiovisual market business model, making synchronization one of the solutions most commonly used at the time. According

to Henley (2013), this process consists of incorpo

rate a sound material into an audiovisual produc

tion. Obtaining a synchronization license may vary

depending on the source of the musical material.

To better understand how synchronization

license is connected to the audiovisual market is

necessary to understand how the synchronization

production chain is configured. According to Tes

carolli (2014), this chain, made up of professionals from various fields, is permeated by legal, creative and economic aspects of a musical work to make it able to be part of an audiovisual work.

The core of this chain comprises of composers, artists, publishers, music producers, and society of collective management of copyright. They interact with companies and individuals who provide syn chronization processes, as musical supervisor and music libraries. The chain is completed by those who use music in audiovisual media such as Tel evision, cinema, advertising, video games, Internet videos, and the final consumer.

There are two ways of an audiovisual pro ducer or filmmaker to be able to insert music in his works. One of them is to get a song already finished, and the other is to hire a composer to write it exclusively for their production. In case of recorded music, Tercarolli (2014) points out that synchronization license depends on the release of the author or their representative (a publisher). By obtaining this license, the composer or publisher release the use of musical composition, that is, melody and lyrics. To use a specific recording of that song you must purchase a master use license.

It can be provided by the copy-right holder of the sound recording, a record label, or a musical pro ducer, granting permission for the use of the sound material in an audiovisual work.

Tescarolli (2014) observes that the copyright collective management companies monitor the use of the song in public spaces, collect resources from companies that use music and pay for the rights holders. Payment about public performance is distinct from the payment of a synchronization license. The synchronization license allows the use of a song by an audiovisual work. When this work is displayed in public places such as restaurants, bars, or bookstores, it is necessary that the holders of the rights be paid.

The task of a music supervisor is selecting the music for a particular audiovisual work. This pro fessional, according to Tescarolli (2014), research, budgets, manages the licensing and provides music for audiovisual productions. Therefore, many ele ments must be aligned with the actions of a musi cal supervisor: legal knowledge of copyright and licensing agreements, knowledge of musical works, budget management skills and strategic vision as the best music options for the project in question.

Tescarolli (2014) points out that a music library is a company specialized in negotiating with the audiovisual market. Available online to promote re-search for music supervisors and professionals in the audiovisual market, offers the rights to the composition and on the recording. As both parties have established a prior agreement with the music library, negotiations are quick, which favors a dynamic market like the audiovisual. 4.1 Advertising Music has a constant presence in commercials and ads. The multiplicity of styles and formats also draws attention, which leads us to believe that different situations require different sound identities. In addition to this adjustment, it is necessary that music makes a convenient standard for the medium that is destined. Television, radio, and the Internet reveal own demands of sound quality, editing, time, and other settings that affect the way music should be structured. The advertising market observes trends and uses its characteristic features to popularize their brands and products. With music is no different, in other words, the search for songs and musical genres that are high in popularity is flagrant in this market. However, it is always important to observe the structure of the ad and its main features. A characteristic goal in the use of music for advertising is to create a connection between music and basic elements of the brand. The association between a chorus or an exciting stretch with the plot and images are constant. However, as highlighted by Baskerville (2013), it is important to identify the use of cinematic forms within the trade as comedy, horror, movie, or cartoon. Such procedures condition the use of music tracks on these audiovisual contexts. It is very common in the advertising market the use of musical signatures. Baskerville (2013) reports are short pieces with the great responsibility of passing an immediate image of the brand or product. A few minutes of any television programming we will come across a large number of signatures referring to products or even television programs. 4.2 Television The television market is undoubtedly the one which gives more opportunities to the music business. Baskerville (2013) reports that a dramatic one-hour program can use up to 20 songs in its development, demonstrating how gigantic the musical demand within the television standards is. In total numbers, this demand increases as Cable broadcasters gain space. Television editors and

producers often work with tight deadlines, which

favor the use of practical solutions to the musical

conception of stations.

The possibility of generating royalties in cases of international transmission or even DVD releases allow for a substantial increase in the music industry's revenue. Other benefits may arise from these licenses. According to Baskerville (2013), as exposure caused by bindings in television stations is huge, the possibility of a licensing leverage the career of a band is real.

4.3 Cinema

The film productions fall into two basic parts: the independent film and that produced by major studios. The choice of songs for a production can vary depending on the resources available or the situation. Popular songs can be useful for a large work. However, the use of such repertoire can be difficult due to the lack of identity with the time of the movie or because of the inconvenient juxtaposition of the lyrics and movie lines. Orchestral music imposes fewer mishaps for achievement becoming one of the most used options.

Baskerville (2013) reports that the most important part of the development of a soundtrack of a movie is called spotting session. At this meeting director, producer, film editor, and music publisher join a

composer or a music supervisor to discuss the “cues” music of a film. The musical editor provides the composer spotting notes that previously map the plot.

5 CONCLUSION

The aspects assessed about technological innovations reflect changes that have changed the demand for skills in the music business. With the weakening of the major labels and the offer of tools such as samplers, sequencers, and synthesizers the musician becomes part of the production chain. Therefore, it is essential that the musician can handle these new features. For new forms of distribution, he must understand the dynamics of distribution and sale in the internet environment.

The music licensing market despite being recent presents well-defined relationships within its supply chain. The knowledge of details like the phonograms and copyright management, as well as the duties of each of the members of this chain, makes the musician able to relate to this context. Establishing the contacts with the main channels of this market can be time-consuming, demanding time, and discipline.

Each of the parts of the media framework that needs music content has its mechanics. As a com

The experience of teaching the nurses: Insights for developing

an educational nursing management software

L.H. Loureiro, A. Scavarda, M.M.V.N. Cardoso, I.C. da Silva & T. Tonini

Universidade Federal do Estado do Rio de Janeiro, Praia Vermelha, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

L. Baumworcel

Hospital Caxias D'Or, Duque de Caxias, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

ABSTRACT: The management is one of the activities that are part of the routine of the nurse. In this

sense, the importance of management refers to the action that makes it viable and feasible. It is the best

use of resources and to achieve planned objectives. For a new conception of management is necessary to

accept that the administrative function is an essential element to achieve the goals and the correct plan

ning of schedules provided to the manager to establish the operating capacity of the unit in the light of

epidemiological data. By analyzing the conception of the students about the contribution of the work

sheets kit for the preparing of programming schedule of unit FHS (Family Health Strategy), we take as

a parameter the questionnaire answers for the development of software to assist nurses in management

services health in FHS. With the advent of the computer, came the softwares, i.e., programs that allow the use and application of technologies information (Botti, 2011). Using the computer's resources to promote education is a challenge for nursing in Brazil since this technology is still little explored by nursing. The Nursing Informatics is a field of knowledge with more than 30 years of application and development. The computers went into nursing, especially in the area of the greatest performance of the nurse at the time, i.e., in hospitals,

in the 50 s. In the beginning, the interest in the ability of the hardware and the software was the biggest challenge. These until mastered the form of development of applications and the managerial areas were the most favored (Marin, 2006). As a result, as a field of study, nursing presents unfavorable situation about the use of information systems, automation and technological equipment (Santos, 2010). The computers contribute to the improvement of education, the quality of teaching staff and administrators in institutions providers of health services (Lopes, 2011). By this assertion, this technology was called Nursing Service Management in the Family Health Strategy and applied to nursing undergraduate students of the 8th semester. The objective of this study is to report the experience of the construction of an Educational Software for the teaching of the learning in nursing

1 INTRODUCTION

Our society suffers impacts of digital technology

evolution that continue to grow and not think

about anything except in advances, new discover

ies, inventions, and innovations, changes occur

very quickly, new concepts arise every second, a

new software, a new hardware, immediate and con

stant changes in computing. New prospects in the

labor market across the world became important

areas of study that accompany modernization and

this technological evolution (Lopes, 2011).

In a world of constant technological change

and modernization of activities, it has become

important that the entities of any field of study,

whether public or private, to adapt to new pros

pects in the labor market (Benito, 2009). However,

the computer is still seen by many profession

als as a challenge, an unknown area, although it represents growth and prospects of action and it remains a mystery.

Currently, the world is facing a transition from an industrial economy to an information economy, which transforms the nature of wealth. Intellectual capital is becoming relatively more important than physical capital, and the new wealth is the information, the knowledge applied to the work to create value, and success is determined by knowledge and not by material goods you own (Peres, 2004).

management service of a Basic Unit of Family Health Strategy.

2 METHODOLOGY

The present study is a report of experience, it was chosen by this method because of the concordance with the Shiratori thought et al, on this methodology, stating that: The case study is an in-depth and exhaustive study of one or a few elements of focused reality, so as to allow its broad and detailed knowledge. It is appropriate to explore situations of real life 15.

2.1 The experience of teaching the nurses

In the middle of the year 2008, developing mana

gerial activities, specifically keeping up with stu
dents in the field of stage, and noting the problem
of these actors to set the schedule of professionals
who attend in the Family Health Strategy, through
the experience as teachers in undergraduate edu
cation, decided by the construction of a Software
that could support the managers in the daily proc
ess of work.

It was chosen for the development of a proto
type to reset the screens that integrated the manage
ment tool. However, it was necessary to construct
worksheets as the beginning of the project, and
they should be evaluated by some participants for
their adequacy.

Before the evaluation of worksheets and selec
tion of participants it has been requested by
the formal authorization of the Institution for
research, and the project was then submitted for
appreciation and it was approved by the Research
Ethics Committee at the University Center in Volta
Redonda, in February 2009 and it was approved by
opinion Nº. 06/09.

Initially, it was developed a worksheet adapted
from IBGE-2000, which presents the data of the
resident population by district, by sex and age

of the population and this worksheet was filled

exclusively by Community Health Agents (CHAs),

professionals who have proved the more intrigu

ing actor concerning the relationship of trade

established between popular knowledge of health

and medical-scientific knowledge3. This way, it is

believed that the data work was updated.

However, when we look at the completion of

the worksheets, it emerged the need for a better

approach and adequacy of the information col

lected, for a better understanding of the data by

plant management.

It was found in situ that the schedules of the

professionals in some units were owned by the

reception, other were professionals themselves, and the management was considered fundamental in this process as the actors were less involved in this issue. Based on these assumptions, we develop three more new worksheets to assist the management in the analysis of the operational capacity of the unit light of epidemiological data. As standard, it developed the second worksheet for the age distribution of the total population of the area of coverage, i.e., the estimated number of inhabitants in the year. In the third one he organized the distribution of the population according to programmatic category and in the fourth one and last drawn up a worksheet, it was the Analysis of the Operational Capacity of the Unit. There was a preparation of the schedule, with scientific foundations and not purely an allocation of professionals during the week, with overcrowded schedules and often program by the receptionist would cease to exist (Loureiro, 2010). To assist in the verification, validation, and testing of the effectiveness of the worksheets that would be the prototypes of the Software, it was decided to train 30 students of the 8th semester in

the Undergraduate Nursing Course in a supervised stage in the discipline of Management of Primary Health Care. With the objective of improving the understanding and facilitate the filling of the worksheets, it was idealized a Kit with the four worksheets and delivered to selected students. It was chosen by teaching four classes for a total of 16 hours to finish the task by students, where all were previously instructed regarding the form of filling and analysis of the data. On the basis of the epidemiological profile of the studied population, it was possible the construction of programmatic schedules of the health team of the FHS. When this step was completed, the students answered a questionnaire, to assess and identify the difficulties encountered in the course of the task. In the evaluation of worksheets one of the questions of the questionnaire was to the difficulties encountered in filling, 62% answered that the difficulty was the lack of practice and specific knowledge; 23% answered that after the explanation of the purpose of the worksheets, there was no difficulty in filling and that they were easy to understand; 15% answered the question with inconsistent answers, and we concluded that the students did not understand the questions. The analysis of these data allows us to affirm that the developed worksheet model assists in learning of management and organize the process of managerial work of FHS, because it helps in the interpretation of the information and, therefore, it facilitates the preparation of schedules of the professionals involved in the process. However, it observed difficulties in the students for the preparation of schedules, and this fact was evident in

practice; only 60% of the students have been able

to organize the schedule in a clear and objective

way.

3 CONSTRUCTION OF SOFTWARE

The construction of the software comprised the

following stages:

1) Elaboration of the objective; 2) decision of

the target audience; 3) selection of pedagogical ref

erence; 4) election of the theoretical reference; 5)

choice of content; 6) development of software and 7) evaluation of the software, explained below.

Developing an educational nursing management software.

Enable the professional for a new concept of management with the correct planning of schedules establishing the operational capacity of the unit in the light of epidemiological data.

3.1 Target audience

The target audience refers to all professionals in management function, especially nursing. Its use could be extended to professionals in the area of public health as a function of management and administration.

3.2 Pedagogical reference

It was used as a premise for the development of software, the cognitivist approach postulated by Vygotsky. In this approach, the act or process of knowing, the visual and audible perception, the learning are understood as practice, and not as representation, therefore the cognitivist approach considers the ways in which individuals deal with environmental stimuli, organize the data, understand and solve problems, acquire concepts and employ verbal symbols, therefore, are regarded as

predominantly interactionist (Botti, 2005). Based on this theoretical referential, the development of software allowed the construction of individual ized resources allowing the command of the pro fessional, reviewing all the knowledge acquired in the academy, with the mediation of the process of learning to learn, stimulation to self-development and the control of their own learning, exercise of ludic culture and sensory stimulation. The stu dents of the undergraduate courses in health must learn how to learn, and that includes learning how to know, learning to do, learning to live together and learning to be, ensuring the training of profes sionals with autonomy and discernment to ensure comprehensiveness of care, the quality and the humanization of the care provided to individuals,

families and communities (Nuto, 2006). 3.3 Theoretical reference Currently, the technology is present in the in-formation society in which we live and are indispensable for communication, for the teaching, and we learn it to live. The use of technologies is an alternative in the quest to improve the teaching-learning process and prepare students to live in this society in constant evolution (Loureiro, 2010). For a description of the technologies, we could define in many ways. However, we can say simply that technologies can be objects, instruments, electronic equipment and finally, all the resources that will facilitate our lives and in some moments become indispensable (Henz, 2008). We can observe that the technological advances have formed changes in several areas of modern life, a time that all organizations use some form of technology to run their operations and perform their tasks. In the area of health care, specifically, the biomedical technology and of information

has significantly influenced the ability to direct the biggest problems facing the health care existing today. In nursing, new and complex challenges are faced in the implementation, use, evaluation and development of these new technologies (Lopes, 2011). 3.4 Choice of content From the study of pedagogical and theoretical referential, it was determined the use and application of new information technologies, with programs that allow the use and managerial application, which are developed by specific customers. The computers will contribute to the improvement of education, the quality of teachers and administrators in institutions providers of health services (Lopes, 2011). The follow up on the progress of computer technology and our experience in the management of collective health reinforced the opinion about to associate the possibilities of information technology in the daily of the manager of FHS units. 3.5 The construction of the software The development of a multimedia project involves a large number of variables and in spite of the technological advances permit the creation of multimedia quality, much effort, dedication, and time are required for that propose to develop them (Bernardo, 1996). The interface and the structure that allow the dialog between the software and the professional are established. As man perceives the world through the sensory system, the planning of an interface should emphasize the visual senses and hearing aids 5. As this technology has been little

explored by nursing, it is necessary to be alert to

the changes that are al-ready present and for the

future (Marques, 2002).

In the construction of the software program

was used Microsoft Access. It was designed to run

on Microsoft Windows platform version in “XP”

2003. The system gives possibility to use on the

network, and the minimum necessary equipment is

microcomputer of line PC-AT 286 or higher, with

monitor (monochrome or color), having at least

640 Kb of RAM, with Winchester 30 Mb or more

of capacity, depending on the volume of data of interest to the institution attends, and 1.8 Mb will be occupied by the system. The final product of this study resulted in a software called “Manage ment of the Nursing Service in the Family Health Strategy,” which encompasses the organization of information and support for the planning of man agement of FHS units. There are eight screens, namely: (1) Access Screen; (2) Initial Screen of the software; (3) Screen joined neighborhood; (4) Worksheet adapted from IBGE (Brazilian Insti tute of Geography and Statistics) census-2000; (5) Report—Resident Population by district; (6) Age distribution of the total population of the catch ment area; (7) Distribution of the population according to program category, and (8) Analysis of the operational capacity of the unit.

3.6 Evaluation of the software

For evaluation of software 06 nurses who occupied the position of managers in the FHS were invited. All the evaluators complied with the inclusion cri terion: a year or more of experience in manage ment in the FHS or specialist title in this area. The participants received a laptop with the soft ware so that each nurse could study the multi-media

program for up to two hours, through individual browsing. Soon after this step, we asked managers to carry out an evaluation of the program, by answering a questionnaire with seven statements, based on Likert scale, and that reply on the software with the respective options: great, very good, good, regular and, poor.

It was felt that there was a need for evaluation of the product also by a specialist in the area of information technology, as well, the evaluation was performed by a systems analyst, which gave other aspects relevant to the part of computing and both instruments of evaluation were based on other studies related to educational software. All the evaluators gave the instrument completed and they spent on average 1 hour and 42 minutes to evaluate the software.

The items that were evaluated in the software received great and very good concepts for all raters, being, therefore, validated its contents and its applicability in the FHS. On the tasks of deployment, post-deployment, review and distribution of the implementation phase, were not part of this study and it will be addressed in further studies. 4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION The software had as target to present to the managers of the FHS an interactive resource to be used as a tool that would help the strategic planning of units, in the light of epidemiological data. We are living moments of increasing evolution and technological renewal. Also, technology and information systems have been enhanced in a

comprehensive manner to every second. As we know, we live in an era of increasing development and renewal in all that concerns the technology. The designers of software and hardware are launching their products in record time on the market. With the increasing growth in the use of free software, mainly in developing countries, it appears a need to migrate to the free solution and multi platforms (Santos, 2010). Free solutions are those productions of software and artifacts of software without the cost of acquisition and support that can be freely used. Currently, Brazil stands out by adopting these free solutions, especially in the public sector. The increasing practice of free software has considerable importance (Santos, 2010). The construction of software stood out from April to August 2008. The system counted with the effective participation of the researchers and a technique of informatics area. The picture of the home screen of the program was devised by the researchers, and the subsequent screens were built by technical staff who participated in the study mentioned above. Approximately during five weeks meetings took place for exchange of information and suggestions on the screens, the objectives of the work, the content worked, the profile of users and especially the technology that would be used in the development of the software. After completion of this step, we developed a questionnaire that would serve as the evaluation of the product. The development of the Software Management of the Nursing Service in the FHS longed to build a simple interface with enough practicality, making the system screens closer to the reality of the end user. Its construction followed the stages in the development of objectives, choice of detailed theoretical referential, the establishment of target and select of the content and finally the development of the system and its applicability were entirely based on practices of management that were

developed in the context of public health, specifi

cally in the FHS.

The nurse manager will enter with the login

and personal password advance registered in the

system, objectively to take responsibility for their

records.

Soon after typing the login and password, the

system opens a new window, in this area of the system and the professional can view all existing screens, to draw up the schedules of the profes sionals, strategic planning for the unit, with the reading of the epidemiological profile of the popu lation and still follow the evolution and population growth over the years.

In this interface, in the first contact with the sys tem, the manager will fill the worksheet with the data on sex and age and he will obtain information on the epidemiological profile of the population, and the basis of knowledge of administration and management will be able to view what the interven tions of health promotion can be implemented for the population enrolled.

It is known that much has to be done to follow up on these new technologies and innovations, highlighting the need for effective evaluation of the same before its use as a teaching tool. Research still needs to be developed for the eval uation of educational software that is an area that has been recently known and still open to numerous studies (Lopes, 2011; Borges, 1998; Lopes, 2004).

Therefore, it is expected that the professionals

who will use the system to assist in the process of managing, in addition to facilitating the acquisition of data, have a useful working tool.

The software was very well accepted by the assessors, and it is believed on the relevance of the data produced by it.

5 FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

The relevance of information systems as support, in the administrative and managerial and the management of work in health, becomes evident. All areas of the field of public health can make use of software tools such as help in the process of work, and these tools can identify the problems in the work process of teams of FHS, potentiating the resolution of situations and needs in the process to manage.

As a first experience, all the difficulties of beginners in the task of building a software, gave to realize the great challenge, to understand the applicability of the software in the management process, the search for theses and dissertations that approached the informatics and specifically the

Lopes, A.C.C, Ferreira, A.A., J.A.L. Fernandes, Morita A.B.P.S, Poveda, V.B., Souza, A.J.S. Construction and evaluation of educational software on indwell

ing urinary catheterization (Construção e avaliação de software educacional sobre cateterismo urinário de demora). Rev Esc Enferm USP. 2011; 45 (1):215-22.

Lopes, M.V.O., Araujo, T.L. Evaluation of students and teachers about the “Vital Signs” software (Avaliação de alunos e professores acerca do software “Sinais Vitais”). Rev Esc Enferm USP. 2004, 38 (4): 438-47.

Loureiro, L.H. Teaching in public health management and continuing education of professionals FHS: the use of educational software (Ensino de gerência em saúde coletiva e a educação permanente dos profis sionais da ESF: o uso do software educativo)./Lucre cia Helena Loureiro. - Volta Redonda: UniFOA, 2010 68 f. Dissertation (Professional Master)—University Center in Volta Redonda—UniFOA. Postgradu ate Education in Health Sciences and Environment 2010 Advisor:. Professor Dr. Marcia Ribeiro Braz.

Marin, H.F., Cunha Icko. Current perspectives of nurs ing informatics (Perspectivas atuais da Informática em Enfermagem). Rev Bras Enferm 2006 May-Jun, 59 (3): 354-7.

Marques, I.R., Marin. H.F. Nursing on the web: the proc ess of creating and validating of web site about coro nary artery disease (Enfermagem na web: o processo de criação e validação de um web site sobre doença arterial coronariana). Rev Latino-am Enfermagem 2002 May-June; 10

(3):298-307. Nunes, M.O. et al. The community health: building the identity of this hybrid and polyphonic character (O agente comunitário de saúde: construção da identidade desse personagem híbrido e polifônico). Cad. Saúde Pública, Rio de Janeiro, 18 (6): 1639-1646, November-December, 2002. Nuto, S.A.S. et. al. The teaching-learning process and its consequences in the teacher-student-patient relationship (Ciência & Saúde Coletiva). Science & Public Health. v. 11, n. 1, p. 89-96, 2006. Peres, H.H.C., Kurcgant Q. The nursing teacher before computer world (O ser docente de enfermagem frente ao mundo da informática). Rev Latino-am Enfermagem 2004 Jan-Feb; 12 (1):101-8. Santos, S.R. Nursing informatics: developing free software with caring and management application (Informática em enfermagem: desenvolvimento de software livre com aplicação assistencial e gerencial). Rev Esc Enferm USP 2010; 44 (2):295-301.www. ee.usp.br/REEUSP/. Shiratori, Roberto Carlos Lyra da Silva, Roberto Carlos Lyra da Silva, [organizers]. Rio de Janeiro: Água Dourada, 2009.276p.

Patient-centered lean process: A strategic implementation

L. Baumworcel, A.L. Matheus Junior & L.B. Sartore

Hospital Caxias D'Or, Duque de Caxias, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

A. Scavarda

Universidade Federal do Estado do Rio de Janeiro, Praia Vermelha, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

ABSTRACT: The use of the emergency service in Brazil differs from developed countries. It serves in the

same environment in emergency patients and those who need emergency care for non-serious diseases. The

lean methodology can be applied in this environment to reach a client-based approach. The health system

has many peculiarities that make this process a new challenge for the system managers. In this context, the

introduction of safety issues and protocols administrating may transform these concepts in reality. different stakeholders, and the lack of appropriate methods to set the value of the patient. In health work with various clients: the internal customer, the main person of this

group, the attending physician of the patient, and how external customer has the patient at the center of the entire process associated with your family and caregivers. The application of lean automatically triggers changes in job characteristics and well being of employees (Lawal et al., 2014). The outcome is to implement a culture in which the mutual growth instead of individual benefits is strengthened, and where a team member is given something to achieve a team goal. This is one of the first struggle points in Brazilian culture; our employees are not so efficacious as the American ones or the European ones. As it has been seen in the some analysis, one American worker produces something like five Brazilian workers. In respect of the health care system have another specific struggle, the physicians are trained to work alone since the university and now they have to work in-group as a single peace of the roll chess table, respecting the singularity of each player or stakeholder. Other characteristics of the organization of the Lean work are featured on the one hand by increased responsibility and autonomy due to the decentralization of authority, power sharing, and participation in decision-making. Moreover, such an organization has decreased autonomy because of the limited freedom on the time and work processes. Standardization of work procedures is well known as an important part of the Lean philosophy, both to control the safety, quality, and efficiency and as a basis for continuous improvement (Womack and Jones, 2003). The lean organizational model is often illustrated using an inverted pyramid, with the most

1 INTRODUCTION

Several studies have emphasized that the principles

underlying the Toyota Production System are con

tinuous improvement and respect for people (Al

Farsi et al., 2014). Organizations of all sectors of

activity are trying to improve their performance by

using production method named “Lean”. Health

is one of the main sectors where production on

“Lean” model could be considered and adopted

as a current improvement process (Andersen et al.,

2014). Industry consultants who have a limited understanding of the medical context often support the implementation of “Lean” in health care. This can generate a series of negative reactions from employees, such as: “We are not Japanese, and we do not make cars.” The main reason for the implementation of Lean in healthcare is increasing demand for health services to support care with high efficiency and quality in an environment that needs to start generating resources more effectively. The health team must focus not only on taking care of diseases but in finding better ways to take better care of patients (Burström et al., 2014). However, such activities as the development of a culture and empower people to continuous improvement are often overlooked by the medical team. A core concepts of lean is to understand the value of the point of view of each customer involved. From this point of view, the activities that do not add value should be identified and eliminated. However, several studies have shown that the focus of the application of lean is in the internal efficiency and financial control, and little attention is given to defining patient value. The problems cited in this respect are the ambiguity of the term “client” in

the health context, conflicting objectives between experienced physicians in the base or first line of care, de-creasing the variability and allowing the implementation of a lean system. Standardized work is an essential part of Lean work.

However, in health care there is often a limited possibility for staff to experience the fullness of the work task. The complexity of care processes and knowledge intensive tasks often implies that health professionals work in silos, and there is a lack of co operation between health facilities. Many patients flow involves care activities in various health care settings and sometimes it is difficult to say which unit is the owner of the process and should take respon sibility to improve the overall flow. Standardization is associated with low autonomy choice. Doctors are highly trained individuals and were trained to act autonomously. So, standardization can have a negative connotation in health and can cause nega tive reactions among physicians. The standardiza tion of work model makes the system much less dependent individuals. This also implies changes in the role of employees, from highly qualified indi viduals acting on their decisions to treat patients, to members of a collective that follow more standard

ized procedures. There is also a difficulty and resist
ances over the range of excessive standardization
tasks that include contact with the patient since all
of them have different requirements.

2 THE UNMEET NEED

Each market has his pitfalls. The health system is
not differentiated, work with the vision in the client
is the difficult objective in this field. But in the health
system the client is a patient, and he have a disease.
Work with a patient-centered method is, thus, this
challenge. Recognizing the magnitude of the global
patient safety problem, the World Health Organiza
tion (WHO) established in 2004 the World Alliance
for Patient Safety (World Alliance for Patient Safety)
(Burström et al., 2014). Therefore, the operation is
replaced implications that should lead to changes
in the culture in which all employees, including pro
fessionals involved in the care and management,
assume responsibility for their own safety, the safety
of their colleagues, patients and families, priorities
safety above financial and operational goals, encour
ages and rewards the identification, re-porting and
resolving security issues, which, from the occurrence
of incidents, promotes organizational learning, and
provides resources, structure and accountability for

maintenance effective security.

The presumption is that humans make faults,

and therefore, errors are expected. Errors are

consequences, not causes (Gaba et al., 2014).

Understanding the underlying multifactorial the

security holes is elucidated in the light of the theory of human error. Known as the theory of “Swiss cheese” compares the health system vulnerabilities to hole a Swiss cheese. The source of the problem would often be triggered by multiple factors; as the occurrence of fault was due to alignment of several “holes” that would be structural or occasional failures, malpractice or neglect of health professionals, unsafe behavior or risk by patients. The WHO states that there will be an improvement in safety if patients are placed in the center of care and included as partners. The vision of this program is “the world in which patients should be treated as partners in efforts to prevent all avoidable harm in health,” therefore, transparency becomes one of the pillars for change in safety culture. An analysis of 917 event notifications by the emergency department of Caxias D’ Or Hospital in Brazil was held between February to December 2014. Of this total, 703 (76.66%) notifications were related to delays, whether medication application, re-evaluation by medical staff or collection and results of laboratory tests. Only about 14 notifications (1.52%) were related to errors directly related to patient safety, such as misapplication of medication, unsuccessful venipuncture and exchange among patients of medical care bulletins. Analyzing these results, it can be seen that they still have space for standardization and process review. To achieve this objective, the Lean methodology was applied to improve the patient-centered assistance of this emergence (Baumworcel et al., 2015). Three protocols of the most prevalent diseases were created. Each one received a manager and a task force to implement the standard of care. Also, each of these groups have to train the other stakeholders involved in the chain of the patient care. To achieve this outcome, those groups begin to create a culture of education improving. As someone can see, those were the pillars of the lean system applied in a health system. 3 THE SEPSIS PROTOCOL Sepsis is an inflammation of the person caused by an infection (Benedict, 2015). Common signs and symptoms are fever, increased heart rate, increased breathing rate, and confusion. There may also be symptoms

specific to each kind of infection such as a cough and sore throat with pneumonia or painful urination and back pain, with a kidney infection. In the frailty people as the very young, old, and people with a weakened immune system, there may be fewer symptoms of a specific infection, and the body temperature may be normal rather than high. Severe sepsis is sepsis with poor organ function or insufficient blood flow. Insufficient blood flow may be seen by low

blood pressure, high blood lactate, or low urine

output. Septic shock is hypotension due to infec

tion that does not improve after high amounts of

intravenous fluids are given. Sepsis is treated with

intravenous fluids as crystalloids and antibiotics as

amoxicillin. This is done in an intensive care unit.

If fluid replacement is not enough to achieve the

out-come as show by the sepsis protocol due to the

maintaining of low blood pressure, medications as

norepinephrine is used to normalized the pressure

and the metabolic outcomes as lactate. Mechani

cal ventilation and renal replacement therapy may

be needed to assist the function of the lungs and

kidneys, respectively. To give all these treatment,

a central venous catheter in subclavian or jugular

vein and an arterial catheter in a radial or femoral

artery may be placed. Other measurements such

as cardiac output and superior vena cava oxygen

saturation are used to target the treatment. Peo

ple with sepsis need measures for pre-venting deep

vain thrombosis, stress ulcers, and pressure ulcers unless other conditions prevent such interventions.

Disease severity determines the outcome. The risk of death from sepsis is as high as 30%, severe sepsis as high as 50%, and septic shock as high as 80%.

The total number of cases worldwide is unknown as there is little data from the developing world. Estimates suggest sepsis affects worldwide millions of people a year. In the developed world about 0.2 to 3 per 1000 people gets sepsis yearly and about a million cases per year in the United States. Rates of the disease have been increasing. Sepsis is inter estingly more common among males than females.

The importance of the sepsis protocol is found exactly the patient with theses characteristic in the middle of all patients that seek the emergency and delivery a time driven protocol of diagnosis to treatment(Apibunyopas, 2014). Since the beginning of this standardization, the quality outcomes improved enormously, which as an example is described below, the results of this protocol in May 2015.

3.1 General Data

3.1.1 Open protocols in patients who were hospitalized: 36

3.1.2 Septic shock: ZERO

3.1.3 Severe sepsis: 9/36 (25%)

3.1.4 Sepsis without gravity: 17/36 (47%)

3.1.5 No sepsis: 3/36 (8%)

3.1.6 It was not possible to estimate gravity/shock incomplete filling or lack of data: 7/36 (19%)

3.1.7 Protocols correct filled: 26/36 (72%)

3.1.8 Sepsis characteristics: severe sepsis and shock septic protocols: 9/36 (25%)

With proper padding and membership: 8/9

(89%) 3.2 Analytical data 3.2.1 Antibiotic-time Diagnostic correct: 8/9 severe sepsis (89%) 3.2.2 Prevalence of age: YOUNG (up to 24 years): Severe sepsis in 1/9 (11%) without shock with correct diagnosis antibiotictime. ADULT (24-65 years): 6/9 (66%) - 83% with correct diagnosis antibiotic-time, with no shock. ELDERLY (65 years): 2/9 (22%) - 100% with correct diagnosis antibiotic-time, with no shock. 3.2.3 Prevalence of focus: YOUNG: pulmonary focus. ADULT: pulmonary focus on high prevalence. ELDERLY: Skin and urine 3.2.4 Non-compliance: The non-compliance of relevance still respects the incomplete filling, an is-sue that can be solved with the nursing supervision of the full population for analysis. We imagine this noncompliance is being estimated so super. 3.2.5 Momentary Analysis: • Notorious improving reasoning and conduct of sepsis in the emergency. A significant increase in the adequate filling and administration of the first dose of antibiotics in severe sepsis. • Observe yet low severe sepsis protocols rate / septic shock, but it can be estimated that the thought directed to sepsis increase concern in the diagnosis and good conduct. 3.2.6 Comparative analysis with previous month: • A new training approach with the new “minicourse” of sepsis significantly increased the expertise and the possible recognition of the importance of time between diagnosis and the first dose of antibiotics, reflex that can be studied in the patient’s out-come if there were not many biases. • We observed a prevalence of pulmonary infections predominantly in adults in the age range considered in this analysis, with no pulmonary sepsis in the elderly. Context potentially associated with medium complexity and profile of patients seen in our emergency. 3.2.7 We suggest in medical practice: • Continuing with the emphatic global thinking with respect to continuity of care after opening the protocol, attention to the protocol opening criteria to make a diagnosis of severe sepsis as soon as possible

with the strengthening of the relationship with laboratory and administration with antimicrobial rationality with expertise we suggest the creation of “local Time of Sepsis”

aiming to focus on training and multidiscipli

nary approach of persisting errors.

• We look forward to the possibility of the course

of antibiotic therapy. We believe that this

approach deserves more aggressive and focused

character.

• We look forward to the adequacy of protocol

layout to facilitate understanding and the pos

sibility of better applicability.

4 THE STROKE PROTOCOL

Stroke, Cerebrovascular Accident (CVA), cerebrov

ascular insult, or brain attack, occurs when blood

flow insufficiently to the brain results in cell death

(Writing Group Members et al., 2010). There are

two types of stroke: ischemic due to lack of blood

flow in specific brain areas and hemorrhagic due

to bleeding in the brain. The symptoms result in

part of the brain not functioning. Signs and symp

toms of a stroke are many and include an inability

to feel or move on one side of the body, problems

as aphasia that is when the patient don’t under

stand or speak correctly, feeling like the world is

spinning, or loss of one vision to one side among

others. Signs and symptoms may appear early after the stroke has occurred. If symptoms resolution is fast as less than one or two hours, it is diagnosed as a Transient Ischemic Attack (TIA). Hemorrhagic strokes also are associated with a severe headache. The symptoms of a stroke can be permanent. Long-term complications may include repetitive infection, as pneumonia, or urinary incontinence. The main risk factor for stroke is hypertension. Other risk factors include smoking, obesity, hyper cholesterolemia, diabetes mellitus, previous TIA, and atrial fibrillation among others (Pullicino et al., 2009). An Ischemic stroke is caused by deliv ery of blood to the brain by vessel blockage by a thrombus. A hemorrhagic stroke is bleeding either directly into the brain parenchyma or the space surrounding the brain as federal bleeding. Bleeding occurs due to a brain aneurysm or other uncommon pathology as thrombosis of the cavernous sinus. Diagnosis is the combination of medical imaging such as a CT scan with a physical exam. Other tests to analyze the risk factor may be checked such as an Electrocardiogram (ECG) to verify any heart disease and blood tests as hormone level are done to rule out other possible causes. Low blood sugar

may cause similar symptoms.

Prevention includes many measures as decreas

ing risk factors and population educational pro

grams. For the physician, they may use as necessary

for each patient possibly aspirin, statins, surgery to

revascularization the arteries to the brain in those with problematic narrowing, and anticoagulants as warfarin in those with atrial fibrillation. A stroke re-quires emergency care and may be treated in an intensive care unit specialized in neurological intensive care. An ischemic stroke, if detected earlier as within three hours, may be treatable with a systemic thrombotic, a medication that can open the clot in the brain vessel. Aspirin should be used as needed. Some hemorrhagic strokes need treatment with surgery. The treatment to recover the lost function is rehabilitation at a specialized place, the stroke unit. This unit is not available in Hospital Caxias D'Or. In 2010 approximately 17 million people had a stroke and 33 million people had previously had a stroke and were still alive (Writing Group Members et al., 2010). Between 1990 and 2010 the number of strokes that occurred each year de-creased by approximately 10% in the developed world and increased by 10% in the developing world. In 2013, Stroke was the second most frequent cause of death after coronary artery disease, accounting for 6.4 million deaths (12% of the total). About 3.3 million deaths resulted from an ischemic stroke while 3.2 million deaths resulted from hemorrhagic stroke. Overall, two-thirds of strokes occurred in those over 65 years old. Monthly report of stroke Protocol—may 2015: • Ischemic stroke - (02) • Hemorrhagic stroke - (00) • AIT - (01) • OTHER - (00) • NO REGISTRATION - (01) Time to diagnosis: • > 20 MIN - (01) • 20 MIN - (03) Noted Factors and relevance. In this month of May, it was opened four stroke protocols. Being identified two (2) cases of ischemic stroke, one (1) case of AIT and one (1) if not identified. Since the TC gate time, three (3) cases were performed in less than 20 min and one (1) case over 20 min. Resulting in 75% of suitability to the time CT door. It was observed a few cases of stroke, justifying the low adherence to protocol. Suggestions and recommendations for effective improvements 4.1 Improve the training of all care team; 4.2 Restatement of institutional protocol; 4.3 Presentation of quality indicators within each protocol. Procedure not observed

During the audit, it was not possible to observe question or concern by the team at the opening protocol, with their supervisors or lack of flow.

Expected Results in the next cycle of evaluation:

Full protocol and properly completed

Achievement of 100% of target,

Early diagnosis and appropriate treatment.

5 CHEST PAIN PROTOCOL

Coronary artery disease is a group of illness that

includes: stable angina, unstable angina, myo

cardial infarction, and sudden coronary death

(American College of Emergency Physicians et al.,

2013a). The ischemic heart disease is the most com

mon type of cardiovascular diseases and is related

to almost one-third of deaths in developed word.

The symptom is chest pain or discomfort that may

migrate into the shoulder, arm, back, neck, or jaw.

Sometimes the coronary disease begins as a heart

burn. This kind of symptoms may occur with exer

cise or emotional stress, may last less than a few

minutes, and may gets better with the rest. The dys

pnea or shortness of breath also occurs sometimes.

In a specific kind of population as a diabetic, no

symptoms are present. The first sign may be a

malignant arrhythmia as ventricular fibrillation

and cause a heart attack. Other complications may

include heart failure or an arrhythmia.

The risk factors include hypertension, Tabaco, diabetes mellitus, and sedentary, obesity, hyperc holesterolemia, poor diet, and alcoholism, among others. Another risk is depression (Anderson et al., 2013). The underlying mechanism involves athero sclerosis in al arteries of the body, and the ischemic heart disease is when it occurs in the arteries of the heart. Some complementary exams may be used to help within the diagnoses including an electrocar diogram, cardiac stress testing, and coronary angi ogram among others. Prevention should be the aim of all physician encounters by educating the people to eat a healthy diet, to do regular exercise, to maintain a healthy weight, and to stop smoking. Sometimes medication is needed to treat diabetes, high cholesterol, or high blood pressure. There is limited evidence for screening people asymp tomatic, which is at low risk. Treatment involves some aspects of the prevention. Additional medi cations such as aspirin, beta-blockers, or nitroglyc erin may be used. Procedures such as Percutaneous Coronary Intervention (PCI) or Coronary Artery By-pass Surgery (CABG) may be needed in specific cases. In those with stable CAD, it is unclear if PCI

or CABG also to the other treatments improves life

expectancy or decreases heart attack risk.

In 2013, CAD was the most common cause

of death globally, resulting in 8.14 million deaths

(16.8%) up from 5.74 million deaths (12%) in

1990 (American College of Emergency Physicians et al., 2013b). The risk of death from CAD for a given age has decreased between 1980 and 2010 especially in the developed world. The number of cases of CAD for a given age has also decreased between 1990 and 2010. In the United States, in 2010, about 20% of those over 65 had CAD, while it was present in 7% of those 45 to 64, and 1.3% of those 18 to 45. Rates are higher among men than women of a given age. A. Report on Chest Pain Protocol Analysis—May 2015: In the period from 01 May 31, 2015, 15 patients were admitted after being inserted into the chest pain protocol in an emergency. The average age was considered low, 56, maintaining the average of the previous months. Of these, 8 patients were male and 7 female, showing a balance in the relationship between genders. Among the risk factors discussed, 26.6% of patients were diabetic, and 80% were hypertensive, 20% patients had dyslipidemia, and 33% were obese, these risk factors remain the most prevalent. The type of chest pain remains more prevalent in groups B and C being 46% and 33%, respectively. The door-to-ECG in most cases was adequate, being conducted with time less than 10 min in 53% of cases and 46% in a period of 10 to 30 min, these times had a justifiable decrease by increasing the number of calls, which delays the onset of patient care, putting us on the agreed time limit. The time gate-ASA reached less than 60 min in more than 70% of patients showing an improvement in the early identification of the need to start the antiplatelet therapy. The antiplatelet dual therapy was carried out in over 80% patients (ASA + Brilinta = 10; AAS Plavix + = 3) showing what is happening improved with training and discussions of cases regarding the indications and early use of medications bring benefit to the patient. The Clexane was carried out in 09 (60%) patients. Troponin rose during the first 05 dosage (33%) patients. We continue providing training for process improvement, individualizing the deficiencies. Data that would be important for future analysis in search of a healthcare excellence facing the chest pain unit would be the outcome of these patients, follow-up of troponin

values, layering method that could be collected monthly by hospital stay units. B. Chest pain protocol proposal for the next cycle of improvement: 5.1 Discuss an early stratification flow to the low-risk patient. 5.2 Assess achievement of Eco stress in emergency after negative route in patients who have pain relief and no bed in ICU.

6 CONCLUSION

The hospital management, in itself, constitutes one of the greatest challenges of management. There is a complex network of services that must interact harmoniously, through a multidisciplinary and an interdisciplinary process, to sustain quality, safety, and provision of assistance. Also, national health systems across Latin America are under pressure to become more efficient. During the last decade, governments in Latin America have suffered severe constraints to invest in healthcare infrastructure capacity. Hence, the new priority has become to provide more and better service with the existing capacity. That is: “how to manage healthcare”. The application of the lean can improve these out comes. The usage of a protocol based algorithm transforms the emergency ward in an environment patient centered for safety and quality issues.

Al Farsi, Y., Al Abri, R., Al Hajri, A., Al Balushi, S., 2014. The Need For Lean Thinking In The Omani Health Care Sector. Oman Med. J. 29, 248-249. doi:10.5001/omj.2014.66

American College of Emergency Physicians, Society
for Cardiovascular Angiography and Interventions,
O'Gara, P.T., Kushner, F.G., Ascheim, D.D., Casey,
D.E., Chung, M.K., de Lemos, J.A., Ettinger, S.M.,
Fang, J.C., Fesmire, F.M., Franklin, B.A., Granger,
C.B., Krumholz, H.M., Linderbaum, J.A., Morrow,
D.A., Newby, L.K., Ornato, J.P., Ou, N., Radford,
M.J., Tamis-Holland, J.E., Tommaso, C.L., Tracy,
C.M., Woo, Y.J., Zhao, D.X., Anderson, J.L., Jacobs,
A.K., Halperin, J.L., Albert, N.M., Brindis, R.G.,
Creager, M.A., DeMets, D., Guyton, R.A., Hochman,
J.S., Kovacs, R.J., Kushner, F.G., Ohman, E.M., Ste
venson, W.G., Yancy, C.W., 2013a. 2013 ACCF/AHA
guideline for the management of ST-elevation myo
cardial infarction: executive summary: a report of the
American College of Cardiology Foundation/Ameri
can Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guide
lines. J. Am. Coll. Cardiol. 61, 485–510. doi:10.1016/j.
jacc.2012.11.018
American College of Emergency Physicians, Society
for Cardiovascular Angiography and Interventions,
O'Gara, P.T., Kushner, F.G., Ascheim, D.D., Casey,
D.E., Chung, M.K., de Lemos, J.A., Ettinger, S.M.,
Fang, J.C., Fesmire, F.M., Franklin, B.A., Granger,
C.B., Krumholz, H.M., Linderbaum, J.A., Mor

row, D.A., Newby, L.K., Ornato, J.P., Ou, N., Rad

ford, M.J., Tamis-Holland, J.E., Tommaso, C.L.,

Tracy, C.M., Woo, Y.J., Zhao, D.X., Anderson,

J.L., Jacobs, A.K., Halperin, J.L., Albert, N.M.,

Brindis, R.G., Creager, M.A., DeMets, D., Guyton,

R.A., Hochman, J.S., Kovacs, R.J., Kushner, F.G.,

Ohman, E.M., Stevenson, W.G., Yancy, C.W., 2013b.

2013 ACCF/AHA guideline for the management of ST-elevation myocardial infarction: a report of the American College of Cardiology Foundation/ American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines. J. Am. Coll. Cardiol. 61, e78–140. doi:10.1016/j.jacc.2012.11.019 Andersen, H., Rovik, K.A., Ingebrigtsen, T., 2014. Lean thinking in hospitals: is there a cure for the absence of evidence? A systematic review of reviews. BMJ Open 4, e003873–e003873. doi:10.1136/bmjopen2013–003873 Anderson, J.L., Adams, C.D., Antman, E.M., Bridges, C.R., Califf, R.M., Casey, D.E., Chavey, W.E., Fesmire, F.M., Hochman, J.S., Levin, T.N., Lincoff, A.M., Peterson, E.D., Theroux, P., Wenger, N.K., Wright, R.S., Jneid, H., Ettinger, S.M., Ganiats, T.G., Philippides, G.J., Jacobs, A.K., Halperin, J.L., Albert, N.M., Creager, M.A., DeMets, D., Guyton, R.A., Kushner, F.G., Ohman, E.M., Stevenson, W., Yancy, C.W., 2013. 2012 ACCF/AHA focused update incorporated into the ACCF/AHA 2007 guidelines for the management of patients with unstable angina/nonST-elevation myocardial infarction: a report of the American College of Cardiology Foundation/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines. J. Am. Coll. Cardiol. 61, e179–347. doi:10.1016/j. jacc.2013.01.014 Apibunyopas, Y., 2014. Mortality rate among patients with septic shock after implementation of 6-hour sepsis protocol in the emergency department of Thammasat University Hospital. J. Med. Assoc. Thail. Chotmaihet Thangphaet 97 Suppl 8, S182–193. Baumworcel, L., Rothman, P.G.M., Romualdo, P.G., Vieitas, L. da R., Figueiredo, B.P.L., Sartore, L.B., Scavarda, A., 2015. Implementation of a lean emergency room process. Int. J. Curr. Res. 7. Benedict, L., 2015. Surviving sepsis in the critical care environment. Crit. Care Nurs. Q. 38, 137–142. doi:10.1097/CNQ.0000000000000054. Burström, L., Letterstål, A., Engström, M.-L., Berglund, A., Enlund, M., 2014. The patient safety culture as perceived by staff at

two different emergency departments before and after introducing a flow-oriented working model with team triage and lean principles: a repeated cross-sectional study. BMC Health Serv. Res. 14, 296. doi:10.1186/1472-6963-14-296. Gaba, N.D., Polite, F.G., Keller, J.M., Young, A.E., 2014. To err is human; to provide safe, quality, and cost-effective hysterectomy is divine! Clin. Obstet. Gynecol. 57, 128–139. doi:10.1097/GRF.0000000000000008. Lawal, A.K., Rotter, T., Kinsman, L., Sari, N., Harrison, L., Jeffery, C., Kutz, M., Khan, M.F., Flynn, R., 2014. Lean management in health care: definition, concepts, methodology and effects reported (systematic review protocol). Syst. Rev. 3, 103. doi:10.1186/2046-4053-3-103. Pullicino, P.M., McClure, L.A., Wadley, V.G., Ahmed, A., Howard, V.J., Howard, G., Safford, M.M., 2009. Blood pressure and stroke in heart failure in the REasons for Geographic And Racial Differences in Stroke (REGARDS) study. Stroke J. Cereb. Circ. 40, 3706– 3710. doi:10.1161/STROKEAHA.109.561670. Womack, J., Jones, D., 2003. Lean Thinking. Simon & Schuster, New York.

Writing Group Members, Lloyd-Jones, D., Adams,

R.J., Brown, T.M., Carnethon, M., Dai, S., De

Simone, G., Ferguson, T.B., Ford, E., Furie, K.,

Gillespie, C., Go, A., Greenlund, K., Haase, N.,

Hailpern, S., Ho, P.M., Howard, V., Kissela, B.,

Kittner, S., Lackland, D., Lisabeth, L., Marelli,

A., McDermott, M.M., Meigs, J., Mozaffarian, D.,

Mussolino, M., Nichol, G., Roger, V.L., Rosamond, W., Sacco, R., Sorlie, P., Roger, V.L., Stafford, R., Thom, T., Wasserthiel-Smoller, S., Wong, N.D., Wylie-Rosett, J., American Heart Association Statistics Committee and Stroke Statistics Subcommittee, 2010. Heart disease and stroke statistics--2010 update: a report from the American Heart Association. Circulation 121, e46–e215. doi:10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.109.192667. This page intentionally left blank

The economic crises and the Brazilian healthcare system

L. Baumworcel

Hospital Caxias D’Or, Duque de Caxias, Rio de Janeiro,

Brazil

A. Scavarda

Universidade Federal do Estado do Rio de Janeiro, Praia Vermelha, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

ABSTRACT: The Brazilian scenario is a new challenge for his players. As the rest of the world, it is

inside financial crisis. The public healthcare system is failed, and the private sector has to survive with

a sustainable process to overcome all these difficulties. The implementation of a lean model in a micro

management of emergency ward proves to be efficacious in respect of the quality and financial out

comes. The implementation of this lean model in the all private sector healthcare may facilitate the crisis

management. opposition began to gain ground. Perhaps now would be even less because there are two new elements: a sign that the Fed may raise interest rates earlier than expected and the strong fall of the iron ore. Thus, the bag can go up to 42,000 points. With the opposition, the scenario would be high. None does not know if, at the moment of crisis, the opposition would support to maintain indeed this orthodox economic policy. It’s more than that. There are issues that cannot be answered now; just in case of the election has a different pattern of results. Another part of this economic scenario is the governmental oil enterprise, Petrobras; that was well penalized. The market is overreacting, part of the game. There rationality yes. The rationale is that this government destroys value for Petrobras. With the possibility of another government that creates value or destroys least, the action has appreciated. There was a technical move also. Many were sold in Petrobras and had to cover short positions when you started up stop, so it generated a buying pressure. Added to this, we had an improvement in the company’s production framework. How will 2015 be in the market? It will be a challenging year. It will be very difficult, regardless of who is in office. The Fed will raise interest rates; we will see some dammed prices rise in Brazil, which will add two percentage points to inflation. Even with the opposition in the presidency it is difficult for the stock market remains at 75,000 points. We have problems inherited from previous

governments. In May, I begin to put the “sauce beards.” The investor has to monitor. If the stock market is at 40,000 points, he can buy formidable companies at a bargain price.

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Brazil’s situation

The thesis of the end of Brazil is that, basically, before 1994 the country had no history. It had no economic history but had consumption pattern. Falling wages and you run to the supermarket to buy what they took. The rules changed forever. Without rules, there can be an investment. Who would invest knowing that the game could change at any time? Only 94 of them, with the real emer gence and the stabilization of the currency, are born a Brazilian. You give confidence in its cur rency, control inflation, and people finally start to consume. And the business community, realizes that the plan worked, and begins to invest. The years of 94 to 99 are the childhood of the real plan. At 99, with the adoption of the macroeconomic tripod (regime of inflation targeting, fiscal and the floating exchange) comes the real maturity. Only twenty years after the emergence of the real things have changed dramatically. The process began at 99 with the crisis of the external sector and cul minated in September 2008 with the collapse of

Leh-man Brothers. After that, the government adopted a series of measures to try to reduce the impacts of the crisis. But it's the fiscal policy that ends up hurting the three pillars of the tripod. They are maladjusted measures. And the Brazilians begin to die because of the new economic matrix. At this time, also began an internal dispute to the next president, the re-election of Dilma or the opposite. It has no difference between the oppo sites. With Dilma is a strong Stock Exchange fall, with somewhere around 45,000 points—that was the level that the stock market was when the

1.2 Hospital situation in Brazil

Inside this macro scenario has inserted the health care. Here hospitalized patients on stretchers through the hallways or on mattresses on the floor and cases that resemble a war ward (Burström et al., 2012). This is the cruel face of the assistance offered to the population in the main public hospi tal emergency rooms visited by the Federal Council of Medicine (CFM), a program developed in part nership with the Commission on Human Rights and Minorities of the House of Representatives (CDHM).

The crisis in emergency care is systematic. Lack

of Intensive Care Unit beds are the problems that are hurting the dignity and rights of Brazilian citi zens, in the Federal Constitution.

Visits to eight major hospitals in the country had the support of councils and health workers unions, prosecutors, the Bar Association of Brazil (OAB), which selected the hospitals visited from a consensus among the members of the Working Group consisting in CDHM.

It was observed in extremes that attention to emergency rooms had a satisfactory level, although still problems had to be solved, to the degrading case that resembled a ‘war ward,’ where in addition to patients in stretchers in emergency lanes there was those admitted on mattresses on the floor. It became clear that many of the shared problems are related to structural issues of the Unified Health System (SUS) and that “hurt the dignity and rights of Brazilian citizens, in the Federal Constitution”.

According to the preliminary report of the Working Group, the urgent and emergency serv ices face a double neck, the first of them jammed care and discomfort at the gateway services. For this bottleneck, the report also contributes to an excessive centralization of emergency care in a few

services, about the size of population and land

area coverage.

These same elements are also involved in the

second bottleneck, which, according to the Com

mission, is the difficulty in solving the cases of

users who can be met.

Emergency Department in Brazil is penalized by

the following aspects:

1.2.1 The difficulty of patients accesses to primary health care

The difficulty of patients accesses to primary

health care (Burström et al., 2014). The Health

System in Brazil is extremely poor as service in

primary care. The population dependent on SUS

cannot schedule elective consultations (those that

are not emergency) in health care with general

practitioners, and the situation is even worse when

the population needs elective consultations with medical specialists such as dermatologists, neurologists, rheumatologists, cardiologists, etc., since these are simply not available to meet the entire demand of the population (da Silva et al., 1997). With this, people needing elective consultations, whether with general practitioners or specialists, spontaneously seek the PS of Reference Hospitals in Emergency Department, knowing that there are no clinical, surgeons and specialists on call to service. This influx of patients with elective diseases seeking the PS contributes to disrupting the environment in these sectors as well as being a major factor in overcrowding them. 1.2.2 A large number of referrals to referral hospitals A Large number of referral patients to referral hospitals. Currently, the Health System Emergency Department is structured based on major referral hospitals

in Emergency Department, which are located in capitals and large cities of the country. Ideally it would be necessary that there were hospitals structured Emergency Department in various parts of the Brazilian States which serve as reference for the macro-region which were located in solving health problems of the region, thus avoiding the mass forwarding of the inner cities of patients to referral hospitals in major Brazilian cities, which leads to overcrowding and the full depletion of these well serve the population of units. 1.2.3 Customer prehospital The Service Prehospital Emergency Mobile is made by SAMU, which was established about ten years ago. The SAMU serves patients in Emergency and Emergency clinics or urban accidents are doing an excellent work, saving thousands of lives of patients who previously died without medical care. The problem is that when the SAMU was deployed Emergency and Hospital Emergency system was already exhausted to meet the existing demand at the time. The SAMU brought an exceptional increase in demand for extremely ill patients to referral hospitals, which blew up the sector's crisis in Brazil, evidencing the lack of health professionals in sufficient numbers to meet Rede aid us, especially doctors, lack of medical specialists, the lack of regulation of the system, lack of operating room structure to meet the demand, the lack of ICU beds for hospitalization of needy patients, causing them to remain intubated and mechanically ventilated in Urgent care and emergency rooms of the PS, which is an assault to Brazilian citizens, who in a moment of extreme risk to their lives, are not guaranteed by the state the health care minimum conditions that allow them real chances of survival.

2 HEALTHCARE SUSTAINABILITY

Sustainability is a major challenge in multiple

areas of society (Andel et al., 2012); within medi

cine it is necessary to promote it to develop ways

to ensure the best resource allocation. Health is a

vital sector of the world economy. The most recent

data from the World Health Organization (WHO)

showed health expenses were 9.7% of Gross

Domestic Product (GDP) in the world in 2007, an

estimated expenditure of US $ 5.3 trillion. In the United States, these expenses accounted for 15.7% of GDP. In Brazil, the cost is also quite significant, representing the equivalent of 8.4%. Also to eco nomic issues, health activities involve caring for individuals, what then, becomes extremely critical to society. The care needs investments, and health expenditures tend to gradually increase due to greater awareness and understanding of the indi viduals, that they should receive better health care; greater availability of technological resources; the increase of income and increase in life expectancy. In this last issue, it should be noted, that accord ing to the latest data from the Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics (IBGE), life expect ancy at birth of a Brazilian - 73.2 years for both sexes, 2009 data-increased in more than ten years between 1980 and 2009. Estimates of the same institute indicate a steady growth in the population over 60 years, which should result in a significant change in the Brazilian population pyramid struc ture: the number of people above 60 should dou ble in the next 20 years, becoming about 30% of the total population in 2050. Consequently, health care costs tend to increase with time. In the United

States, for example, some projections indicate that the costs can reach 20% of GDP in the coming years, which has led to important discussions on the sustainability of the US health system.

3 THE PRIVATE HEALTHCARE SECTOR

As it can be seen, the Brazil is inside the crisis and also the public healthcare system. But the private sector still has a different reality. They have the budget to keep a high level of quality in their jobs. But, for the first time in Brazilian healthcare system they need to begin to control precisely the financial outcomes. As many healthcare operators are doing in this least years (Baumworcel et al., 2015).

The Rede D'Or St. Louis is one of those exam ples. It is now the largest independent operator of hospitals in Brazil with the presence in Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, Distrito Federal, and Per nambuco. Founded in 1977 with the opening of the first Cardiolab unit Labs Group, the Rede D'Or St. Louis continues its expansion strategy. Quality is one of the pillars of the business strategy of Rede D'Or São Luiz. Among the tools adopted to ensure excellence in service delivery is the Hospital Accreditation (Gaba et al., 2014). The Hospital Accreditation is an external evaluation process, on a voluntary basis, which aims to assess the quality of services provided, identifying in advance possible risks to the patient. Accreditation certificates are issued by national organizations such as the National Accreditation Organization– ONA, and international, such as the

Accreditation Canada and the International Joint Commission– JCI. This is the highest recognition that a health care organization can receive since the conquest of the Accreditation process results in more quality, safety, and humanization of care and patient care. To achieve this result, this operator has some actions as: 3.1 Ombudsman The channel is structured in all units and seeks to meet the needs of patients, especially the most complex and critical demands, facilitating interaction with the areas involved in the search for solutions and answers. 3.2 Continuous satisfaction survey Since 2012, the Rede D'Or St. Louis improved the process of measuring the quality of services provided and developed a modern and innovative search system in the Brazilian hospital market. Continuous Research Patient Satisfaction enables the network capture, on a daily basis and personnel and use of tablets, the needs and expectations of customers about the services provided, to replace paper questionnaires (Al Farsi et al., 2014). 3.3 Social performance The Network is comprised of approximately 28,000 people in its list of direct employees. Also to 87,000 doctors approved partners after careful analysis. 3.4 Health and safety In our industry, attention to health and safety should be redoubled. Along with the Internal Commission for Accident Prevention (CIPA), the Network promotes campaigns to disseminate safety practices and quality of life, training, adequacy of equipment and procedures, medical control of occupational health programs, risk prevention Environmental and health promotion. Also, the CIPA promotes once a year, the Internal Week of Occupational Accident Prevention (SIPAT) (Burström et al., 2014).

3.5 Training and development

The annual volume of the performance reviews

with employees who are guided how to develop

their careers, and are frequently offered train

ing and lectures (Metin Gülmezoglu and Lawrie,

2015). Since the employees start, their work on the

Web is received through the integration program.

The Rede D'Or St. Louis has three training pro

grams for young talent: the stage, the trainee, and

apprentice, all to promote inclusion of these pro
fessionals in the labor market.

3.6 Environmental performance

The complexity of the hospital structure, which
offers their services 24 hours a day, involves activi
ties with the potential to generate environmental
impacts in several respects. Among the main ones
are the water and energy consumption, genera
tion of wastewater and solid waste. The Direc
torate of Infrastructure and Network Services
D'Or St. Louis periodically monitors your indica
tors to detect deviations from targets and direct
the implementation of corrective and preventive
measures. The actions are grounded in the study
and technological development of its facilities and
the promotion of education of its employees and
customers. The Network aims to deepen and focus
on the actions that involve the reduction of water
consumption, electricity, and fuel gas as well as the
minimization of waste production by encouraging
recycling.

3.7 Economic performance

In all places where the Rede D'Or São Luiz acts
are committed to increasing the supply of beds
and improve the facilities and the service structure.

Most of the investments are aimed at improving the quality of care (Andel et al., 2012).

4 AND WHAT ELSE? THE MICROMANAGEMENT

The use of the emergency service in Brazil differs from developed countries (da Silva et al., 1997). We serve in the same environment in emergency patients and those who need urgency care for non serious diseases. In this scenario, the diagnosis of the hazardous diseases is even more challenging. World-wide is increasing the number of patients seeking an emergency room with symptoms of chest pain, as an example. About 5–10% of all calls in United States emergency rooms are for chest pain. The causes can range from musculoskeletal

Andel, C., Davidow, S.L., & Hollander, M., Moreno, D.A., 2012. The economics of health care quality and medical errors. J. Health Care Finance 39, 39–50.

Baumworcel, L., Rothman, P.G.M., Romualdo, P.G., Vieitas, L. da R., Figueiredo, B.P.L., Sartore, L.B., & Scavarda, A., 2015. Implementation of a lean emer gency room process. Int. J. Curr. Res. 7.

Burström, L., Letterstål, A., Engström, M.-L., Berglund, A., & Enlund, M., 2014. The patient safety culture as perceived by staff at two different emergency

departments before and after introducing a flow

oriented working model with team triage and lean

principles: a repeated cross-sectional study. BMC

Health Serv. Res. 14, 296. doi:10.1186/1472-6963-14

296.

Burström, L., Nordberg, M., Örnung, G., Castrén,

M., Wiklund, T., Engström, M.-L., & Enlund,

M., 2012. Physician-led team triage based on lean principles may be superior for efficiency and quality? A comparison of three emergency departments with different triage models. Scand. J. Trauma Resusc. Emerg. Med. 20, 57. doi:10.1186/1757-7241-20-57. Da Silva, L.M.V., de Souza, L.E.P.F., & Cerdeira, A., Pinto, C., Oliveira, R., 1997. Charcteristics of private health care services in Salvador, Bahia, Brazil. Cad. Saude Publica Rio Janiero 701–709. Gaba, N.D., Polite, F.G., Keller, J.M., & Young, A.E., 2014. To err is human; to provide safe, quality, and cost-effective hysterectomy is divine! Clin. Obstet. Gynecol. 57, 128–139. doi:10.1097/ GRF.0000000000000008. Metin Gülmezoglu, A., & Lawrie, T.A., 2015. Impact of training on emergency resuscitation skills: Impact on Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) 4 and 5. Best Pract. Res. Clin. Obstet. Gynaecol. doi:10.1016/j. bpobgyn.2015.03.018. This page intentionally left blank

The fundamental of housing affordability and affordable

houses: A review

N. Azmi, A.A. Bujang, W.R.A. Jiram & H.A. Zarin

Department of Real Estate, Faculty of Geoinformation and Real Estate, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia,

Johor Bahru, Malaysia

ABSTRACT: A misconception between housing affordability and affordable housing in Malaysian

housing policy led to the problems in the housing market. Thus, what is the dissimilarity between housing

affordability and affordable house in the housing market?

This paper attempts to review the fundamen

tal of housing affordability and affordable housing. In the context of housing, the emphasis of housing

affordability is placed on the household income in determining the house prices, whereas, affordable house

emphasis on home prices, however, overlook the household incomes. This study is expected to provide a

thorough understanding and knowledge about housing affordability and affordable housing. sets and meeting the needs of every household (Whitehead, 1991). Standard sets refer to the prescribed standards in housing policy according to the number, type, and size of housing, but overlook the house price (Whitehead, 1991). Many publications define housing affordability as the relationship between household income and housing expenditure (housing costs) (Kim, 1993; Kutty, 2005; Hancock, 1993; Crowley, 2003). Although housing affordability generally involves the ability of households to consume housing services, it supposedly engages the relationship between household income and house prices (Bujang, 2006; Zerbadast, 2006). Stone (2006) believes that housing affordability is the relationship between housing and people, rather than the characteristic of housing—for some individuals, all housing is affordable, no matter how expensive the house is; while for some individuals, there is no affordable housing unless it is free. However, the the housing affordability problem arises when the house prices rise faster than incomes (Yates, 2008). There is a difference between housing need and housing affordability. Housing need refers to housing standards regardless of the housing cost and household income as compared to housing affordability emphasizes housing costs and household income. In the context of housing, emphasis is placed on the number of houses built and allocated, whereas housing affordability emphasises on home prices and incomes (Whitehead, 1991; Gabriel et al. 2005). Housing affordability can be assessed in three ways; purchase affordability, repayment affordability, and income affordability (Bujang et al. 2010;

1 INTRODUCTION

Affordability is often defined as a household’s abil

ity to qualify for conventional mortgage financing

to get housing finance or repayment mortgage because the reimbursement for housing is high compared with other investments. Thus, it will affect the ability of households to obtain hous ing finance due to very tight conditions imposed by financial institutions for housing purposes. In additional, housing expenditure is the largest part of household expenditure.

It has become more difficult looking to cur rent housing market. The housing market today focuses on facilities related to a healthy lifestyle and has been considered as commodity rather than as needs which leads to higher sales prices. As a result, most of the housing schemes in the mar ket become unaffordable for the buyer, including affordable housing schemes.

This situation has given new paradigm to the notion of affordable houses and housing afforda bility, which need to be addressed by policymakers because most of the housing policies are designed to focus on providing more comfortable affordable houses to meet the needs of the target group or to solve the housing problems of the low and middle income group (Ogua & Ogbuozobe, 2001).

AFFORDABILITY AND AFFORDABLE HOUSES

Housing needs are defined as housing that is developed and allocated in accordance with the standard Gan & Hill, 2010). Purchase affordability refers to the ability of households to purchase a house through bank financing. The major constraint in home ownership is the difficulty in obtaining housing finance. This includes overly-onerous deposit requirements, and difficulty in obtaining a mortgage and other related housing cost (Bujang et al. 2010, Bourassa, 1996). Repayment affordability refers to the commitment imposed on a household of repaying the mortgage—that can commit or not, depending on income and their expenditure (Bujang et al, 2010; Gan & Hill, 2010). Thirdly, income affordability refers to the ratio of house price to the income. The greater the ratio of house prices to income, the lower the ability to buy a house (Bujang et al. 2010; Gan & Hill, 2010).

In additional, there is still a lack of precision in defining an affordable house. Some researchers define an affordable house as any social housing provided by the government or private which meets the benchmarks of housing affordability (house

prices/income) that have been set by the govern

ment (Gabriel et al. 2005). But, Stone (2006) men

tions that an affordable house not only focuses on

social housing but also financially assisted hous

ing of middle-income households as this group is

acing difficulty to purchase houses in the specula

tive market.

3 PRESENT VALUE OF AN ANNUITY (PV A)

According to Baum et al (2011), if $1 invested now

at an interest i, total investment return in the first

year is (1 + i), then, at the end of n years, the total

return on investment (A) is

A n ( )i (1)

But, if x is invested now at an interest rate i, for

n years and assuming a total investment is $ 1.

Substitute 1 and x into equation 1.

1 1

=

x

x n n ( )1 i+

( )1+ i (2)

x is the present value of $1. Present value of first

year of installment of income is 1 ( )1 , so, for the

payment for n year, present value will be:

1

1 1 1 1 1 2 3 1 + + + + +i i i n ( )1 i+ ( )1+ i) (n-) + ….. 1 (1 (3)

This is again a geometric progression and can be

show present value of $1 per annum, PV A as PV i A n = -1 1 ( )i+1 (4) The present value of annuity is also known as Year Purchase Single Rate by valuation surveyor (Baum et al, 2011), assuming that the interest rate charged is fixed throughout the loan period. 3.1 Measure house price based on level of housing affordability The standard rule of thumb for housing affordability is spending 30 percent of household income on housing expenditure (Bentley et al. 2011; Mason et al., 2013; Hulchanski, 1995; Linneman & Megbolugbe, 1992). Bujang (2006) proposed to measure house price based on the home buyer affordability to repay the housing loan that was based upon the provision of financing repayment of 30 percent of gross annual income by applying the mortgage loan formula. Goebel & Miller (1981) stated; $ $, ( )PV annuity A (5) MortgageLoan annuity A = $ (PV) (6) Hence, annuity represents mortgage payment of 30 percent of gross annual income as shown in Figure 2. Figure 1 shows that total of house price/mortgage loan (including interest rate for n year funding) within 30 percent of annual household income. Total housing price is the maximum price/mortgage loan that can be achieved by households. It also represents purchases affordability for household and repayment affordability because 30 percent of income per annum is based on the standard of rule of thumb housing affordability. Substitute equation 4, and add 30% of household annual income into equation 6; Hg as Affordable House Price; Figure 1. The estimation of the present price of affordable housing based on household income by using the Year's Purchase Single Rate. y = household income at an interest, Hg = mortgage loan, and n = year funding.

Hg y i n ×= - 30 1 1 %( ) ( )i+1 (7)

where, Hg is the affordable house price/mortgage

loan within household housing affordability stand

ard, y: household income per annum, i: interest

rate per annum, and n: funding period.

The above formula shows the relationship

between household incomes spent on interest rates

to obtain affordable housing prices and housing affordability of the households in the final funding period. Therefore, with this formula, creditors or the government can determine the ability of home buyers to repay loans. The Year Purchase's table or the present value of RM1.00 per annum is used for the calculation. Table 1 show the estimation of the affordable house price based on the interest rate of 6.5 percent (using Year Purchase Single Rate of Parry's Valuation Table).

3.2 Affordable house price

From Goebel & Miller, 1981;

MortgageLoan annuity A = $ (PV)

where the annuity is mortgage payment,

MortgagePayment MortgageLoan PV A ⎡ ⎣ ⎢ ⎤ ⎦ ⎥ 1

(8)

Substitute equation 4 to equation 8, so,

MortgagePayment MortgageLoan n i = − ⎡ ⎣ ⎢ ⎢ ⎢ ⎢ ⎢ ⎢ ⎢ ⎢ ⎢ ⎤ ⎦ ⎥ ⎥ ⎥ ⎥ ⎥ ⎥ ⎥ ⎥ ⎥ 1 1 1 ( )i+1 ⎢ (9) MortgagePayment MortgageLoan i n = − ⎡ ⎣ ⎢ ⎤ ⎦ ⎥ 1− ( )i+1 (10) Figure 2 show that the movement of mortgage loan that should be paid by household. The difference of this method is that it only focuses on house price. Thus, the probability of mortgage payment more than housing affordability level is high. Hence, "affordable house" or "social housing" can have meaning if three of these important questions are answered (Stone, 2006); a. Affordable to whom? The provision of affordable housing provided should focus on target groups and their housing affordability level such as the consideration of average household income of the target group in determining the house prices. So, the prices determined within a housing affordability target

groups. b. On what standard of affordability? The government should set the standards for housing affordability in housing policy either to use house price to household income ratio or any other method in determining the affordability. Besides that, the government should set the minimum standard of housing need, so that the provision of the affordable house can meet the basic need of the target group. c. For how long? Table 2 shows the estimation of mortgage payment based on the interest rate of 6.5 percent (using Year Purchase Single Rate, Parry's Valuation Table.) 3.3 Interest rate Interest rate is rate stated on a loan or deposit. Linneman & Megbolugbe (1992) believes that the problem of housing affordability is generated by the rise in interest rates rather than the increases in house prices. Interest rates affect housing affordability for the long term, while the movement in house prices and income will affect housing affordability in short run. Likewise, Paz & White (2012) found that interest rate is the most important and significant factor in Spain's Housing Market comparison of house prices. But, low interest rate and easy access to credit predictably led to speculative and investment activities. Indirectly, it will fuel the demand of housing and increase the price of housing and become unaffordable. In Malaysia, the interest rate is charged at the base lending rate and controlled by the Central Bank of Malaysia. However, starting on 2 January 2015, the Central Bank of Malaysia has decided to

Figure 2. The movement of mortgage loan, Hg = the

total affordable house price/mortgage loan, and n = year

funding.

replace the Base Lending Rate with a Base Rate.

The Base Rate will be determined by the financial

institutions' benchmark cost of funds and the Stat

utory Reserve Requirement (SRR).

Cooperation between governments, central banks

and financial institutions is important in determin

ing the interest rates for affordable house purchases.

Different interest rates charged amongst the finan

cial institutions will notably affect the ability of households to purchase a house in the long run. Thus, standardization of interest rates is important for the government to identify the level of housing affordability in providing affordable housing.

3.4 House price

House price is the important factor to determine housing affordability. The rise in house prices will have a huge impact on affordability level. It causes an increase in down payment and mortgage repay ments. Indirectly, the probability of the household not getting the mortgage is high as the household failed to meet the conditions which imposed by the financial institutions. Kuang & Li (2012) found that the increases of house price give more significance to housing affordability level compared to the increases of household income. A 1 percent increase of growth rate of housing price will generate 0.32 percent increase of the housing expenditure-to-income ratio. A 1 percent increase of growth rate of household income, however, will generate 0.27 percent decline of the housing expenditure-to-income ratio. 3.5 Household income Household income is an important key in reviewing the level of housing affordability. Although income has less influence over housing prices, household income still affected the housing affordability. Kuang & Li (2012) found that 1% of the increase in household income only reduces 0.27% of housing expenses to income ratio. Furthermore, households must have a strong financial condition in obtaining mortgage loans (Bourassa, 1996). Yates et al. (2007) stated that an increase in household improved the ability to buy a home,

Table 1. Estimation affordable house price for home buyer on interest 6.5 per cent based on 30 percent of household

annual income using Year’s Purchases Single Rate, Parry Valuation Table.

Household

Income Group

(Monthly) 30% of annual Household income Affordable house for 20 year funding period* Affordable house for 25 year funding period** Affordable house for 30 year funding period***

RM1000 RM3600 RM39666.60 RM43912.44 RM47011.32

RM1500 RM5400 RM59499.90 RM65868.66 RM70516.98

RM2000 RM7200 RM79333.20 RM87824.88 RM94022.64

RM2500 RM9000 RM99166.50 RM109781.10 RM117528.3

RM3000 RM10800 RM118999.80 RM131737.32 RM141033.96

RM3500 RM12600 RM138833.10 RM153693.54 RM164539.62

RM4000 RM14400 RM158666.40 RM175649.76 RM188045.28

RM4500 RM16200 RM178499.70 RM197605.98 RM211550.94

RM5000 RM18000 RM198333.00 RM219562.20 RM235056.60

RM5500 RM19800 RM218166.30 RM241518.42 RM258562.26

RM6000 RM21600 RM237999.60 RM263474.64 RM282067.92

RM6500 RM23400 RM257832.90 RM285430.86 RM305573.58

RM7000 RM25200 RM277666.20 RM307387.08 RM329079.24

RM7500 RM27000 RM297499.50 RM329343.30 RM352584.9

RM8000 RM28800 RM317332.80 RM351299.52 RM376090.56

RM8500 RM30600 RM337166.10 RM373255.74 RM 399596.22

RM9000 RM32400 RM356999.40 RM395211.96 RM423101.88

RM9500 RM34200 RM376832.70 RM417168.18 RM446607.54

RM10000 RM36000 RM396666.00 RM439124.40 RM470113.20

Note: The calculation of affordable house price based on formula, Affordable House Price: 30% of Annual Household

Income*PV A. .The present value of an annuity (PV A) also known as Year Purchase Single Rate. Parry has been propose

Year Purchase Single Rate table to estimate present values of an annuity (Davidson, 2013). The constant of Year Pur

chase based on interest rate and mortgage loan period. Present Value of Annuity/ Year Purchase Single Rate for 6.5%

(using Parry Valuation Table (Davidson, 2013) are;

*PVA for 20 year funding: 11.0185; **PVA for 25 year funding: 12.1979; ***PVA for 30 year funding: 13.0587.

thus expanding the demand for housing. The

increase in household income expands the avail

ability of mortgage. This indirectly influences the

type of affordable housing that can be purchased

by households. Therefore, the price and the type

of housing that is affordable for the household

is determined by income received (Ismail et al,

2015).

4 SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

The socio-demographic factor is the ad hoc in

housing studies (Mayo, 1981). House prices at

the micro level are influenced by macroeconomic

factors and micro-structural ones. Linneman &

Megbolugbe (1992) has identified that various

regions gave the same response to the national

factor on housing affordability, however, giving

unique response to local factor such as popula

tion, income, employment rate and others. Rela

tively, the level of housing affordability within a

country is the same. The areas in high-income

population would have high house prices, and

vice versa. Income is the most important socio-demographic factor in housing affordability studies. Household incomes would directly affect housing affordability level. In addition, size and type of household, level of education and type of employment also have an impact on housing affordability studies. Yang & Wang (2011) found that most of the categories of households have difficulty in repaying the mortgage. However, the households that have had been working in the public sector and those who have tertiary education are less affected by repayment problems. This study also found that household annual incomes are not sufficient to cover their living expenses and the housing cost. Moreover, ethnicity is one of the socio-demographic factors in housing affordability study. Wither (1997) found that ethnicity has a significant relationship with housing affordability. This study revealed that White Americans face more housing affordability problems compared to Hispanic Americans. Age is also a sociodemographic variable which is very significant in housing affordability's study. Most young adults face difficulties in housing ownership. Bourassa (1996) found that household age below 35 years old have a lower homeownership compared to the household age above 35 years old, although both groups face housing affordability problems including the repayment of the mortgage, and rent payment. Thus, socio-demographic factors including income, age, size and type of household, ethnicity, type of employment, and education level are significant in housing affordability studies. These variables have different impacts on housing affordability (Wither, 1997; Bourassa, 1996; Ying, Luo & Chen, 2013; Yang & Wang, 2012). 5 CONCLUSION A clear understanding of affordable housing and housing affordability is important, especially in policy making. The provision of affordable houses in the housing market must indicate the housing affordability. Affordability is often defined as a household's ability to qualify for conventional mortgage financing to get housing finance or repayment mortgage. In the context of housing, the difference between housing affordability and affordable housing is that the emphasis in housing

affordability is placed on the household income in determining the house prices, whereas affordable houses puts the emphasis on home prices, however, overlooking the household incomes. A limitation of this study is the application of the housing expenses-income ratio in measuring housing affordability. Hence, future research is

Table 2. Estimation of mortgage payment based on the

interest rate of 6.5 percent (using Year Purchase Single

Rate, Parry's Valuation Table.).

Mortgage

Loan (RM) 20 Year* 25 Year** 30 Year*** Annual Payment (RM)

25000 2268.91 2049.53 1914.43

50000 4537.82 4099.07 3828.87

75000 6806.73 6148.60 5743.30

100000 9075.65 8198.13 7657.73

125000 11344.56 10247.67 9572.16

150000 13613.47 12297.20 11486.60

175000 15882.38 14346.73 13401.03

200000 18151.29 16396.26 15315.46

225000 20420.20 18445.80 17229.89

250000 22689.11 20495.33 19144.33

275000 24958.03 20495.33 21058.76

300000 27226.94 24594.40 22973.19

325000 29495.85 26643.93 24887.62

350000 31764.76 28693.46 26802.06

375000 34033.67 30743.00 28716.49

400000 36302.58 32792.53 30630.92

Note: The calculation of mortgage payment based on

formula, Mortgage Payment: Mortgage Loan *1/PV A. .

The constant of Year Purchase based on interest rate and mortgage loan period. Present Value of Annuity/ Year Purchase Single Rate for 6.5% (using Parry Valuation Table (Davidson, 2013) are;

*PVA for 20 year funding: 11.0185; **PVA for 25 year funding: 12.1979; ***PVA for 30 year funding: 13.0587.

proposed to use the residual income method since it is sensible to estimate whether there be a risk of affordability problems, as it takes into account all consumption expenses. Eventually, it allows to set a benchmark for affordable housing consumption (Haffner & Boumeester, 2014).

ACKNOWLEGDEMENT

This work was supported by Ministry of Educa tion and Universiti Teknologi Malaysia under the Fundamental Research Grant Scheme Vot.4F593.

Baum, A., Nunnington, N., & Mackmin, D. 2011. The Income Approach to Property Valuation. Oxford, UK: EG Book, Elsevier Ltd.

Bentley, R., Baker, E., Mason, K., Subramanian, S.V., & Kavanagh, A.M. 2011. Association Between Hous ing Affordability and Mental Health: A Longitudinal Analysis of a Nationally Representative Household Survey in Australia. American Journal of Epidemiol

ogy, 753-760.

Bourassa, S.C. 1996. Measuring the Affordability of Home-ownership. Urban Studies, 1867-1877.

Bujang, A.A. 2006. Pemilikan Harta Tanah Kediaman: Satu Kajian Penilaian Ke Atas Peraturan Kuota Lot Bumiputera Di Daerah Johor Bharu. Kuala Lumpur: Universiti Malaya.

Bujang, A.A., Zarin, H.A., & Jumadi, N. (2010). The Relationship Between Demographic Factor and Housing Affordability. Malaysian Journal of Real Estate, 49-58.

Crowley, S. 2003. The Affordable Housing Crisis: Residential Mobility of Poor Families and School Mobility of Poor Children. The Journal of Negro Education, 72 (1), 22-38.

Davidson, A.W. 2013. Parry's valuation and investment tables.
New York: Routledge/Taylor and Francis Group.

Gabriel, M., Jacobs, K., Arthurson, K., Burke, T., & Yates, J. 2005. Conceptualising and measuring the housing affordability problem. Sydney: Australian Housing and Urban Research Institute.

Gan, Q., & Hill, R.J. 2009. Measuring housing affordability: Looking beyond the median. Journal of Housing Economics, 115-125.

Goebel, P. R., & Miller, N. G. 1981. Handbook of mort

gage mathematics and financial tables. Englewood

Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Haffner, M., & Boumeestera, H. 2014. Is renting unaf

fordable in the Netherlands? International Journal of

Housing Policy, 117-140.

Hancock, K. 1993. ‘Can Pay? Won’t Pay?’ or Economic

Principles of ‘Affordability’. Urban Studies, 127-145.

Hulchanski, J.D. 1995. The concept of housing affordabil

ity: Six contemporary uses of the housing expenditure

to-income ratio. Housing Studies, 471-491. Ismail, A., Bujang, A., Jiram, W.R., Zarin, H.A., & Jaafar, M.N. 2015. Housing Financing Facility and Affordability Level of Bumiputera within Iskandar Malaysia. Journal of Economics, Business and Management, 870-874. Kim, K.-H. 1993. Housing prices, affordability, and government policy in Korea. The Journal of Real Estate Finance and Economics, 55-71. Kuang, W., & Li, X. 2012. Does China face a housing affordability issue? Evidence from 35 cities in China. International Journal of Housing Markets and Analysis, 272-288. Kutty, N.K. 2005. A new measure of housing affordability: Estimates and analytical results. Housing Policy Debate, 37-41. Linneman, P., & Megbolugbe, I. 1992. Housing Affordability: Myth or Reality? Urban Studies, 369-392. Mason, K. E., Baker, E., Blakely, T., & Bentley, R. J. 2013. Housing affordability and mental health: Does the relationship differ for renter and home purchaser? Social Science & Medicine, 91-97. Mayo, S.K. 1981. Theory and Estimation in the Economics of Housing Demand. Journal of Urban Economic, 95-116. Ogua, V.I., & Ogbuozobe, J.E. 2001. Housing policy in Nigeria: towards enablement of private housing development. Habitat International, 473-492. Paz, P.T., & White, M. 2012. Fundamental drivers of house price change: the role of money, mortgages, and migration in Spain and the United Kingdom. Journal of Property Research, 341-367. Stone, M. 2006. What is housing affordability? The case for the residual income approach. Housing Policy Debate, 151-184. Whitehead, C.M. 1991. From Need to Affordability: An Analysis of UK Housing Objectives. Urban Studies, 871-881. Yang, Z., & Shen, Y.

2008. The affordability of owner occupied housing in Beijing. Journal of Housing and the Built Environment, 317-335 Yang, Z., & Wang, S. 2011. The impact of privatization of public housing on housing affordability in Beijing: An assessment using household survey data. Local Economy, 384-400. Yates, J. 2008. Australia's Housing Affordability Crisis. Australian Economic Review, 200-214. Yates, J., Milligan, V., Berry, M., Burke, T., Gabriel, M., & Phibbs, P., et al. 2007. Housing affordability: a 21st century problem. Melbourne Victoria: Australian Housing and Urban Research Institute. Ying, Q., Luo, D., & Chen, J. 2013. The Determinants of Homeownership Affordability among the 'Sandwich Class': Empirical Findings from Guangzhou, China. Urban Studies, 1870-1888. Withers, S.D. 1997. Demographic Polarization of Housing Affordability in Six Major United States Metropolitan Areas. Urban Geography, 296-323. Zebardast, E. 2006. Housing Affordability Analysis for the Different Zones of Tehran City Using Factor and Cluster Analysis. International Conference on Sustainable Housing (pp. 18-19). Georgetown: Universiti Sains Malaysia.

Design of Knowledge Management System to support research activities at university

M. Dachyar, Muhammad Bagus N. Alam & Novandra Rhezza Pratama

Department of Industrial Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, University of Indonesia, Indonesia

ABSTRACT: This study is aimed to design Knowledge Management System (KMS) to capture and distribute knowledge that is related to research activities in the university. Knowledge that is gained during the research can be stored in KMS where it is easier to find. This study used Business Process Reengineering (BPR) method to significantly improve the system design. The improvement process was tested through simulations conducted in Igrafx. The results showed that the knowledge management system can increase the capture and distribution of knowledge in university. The simulations showed that the total knowledge captured using a new KMS is 7775

knowledge/semester. This KMS shared knowledge by using KMS List to Group KM. This KMS can also upload research knowledge such as experience and insight from the research. This paper shows that KMS can support communication between researchers. Therefore, knowledge can be spread among researchers.

1 INTRODUCTION

Higher education is an advanced of secondary education, which has the goal to prepare students to become members of community with academic ability and/or professionals who can implement, develop, and/or create knowledge, technology and/or art (Republik Indonesia, 1989). Research conducted by UNESCO has found new challenges at every element of higher education. The challenges include: (i) the demand; (ii) diversification of provision; (iii) changing time required to learn (iv) increasing use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT), and increasing involvement of social network (Meek, 2009). Information and communication technologies encourage knowledge society to growth. This development is also driven by the need for knowledge system at universities, research, and innovation. The need of knowledge system has encouraged University of Indonesia (UI) to improve services that support research

activities. Is it true that the University needs KM to improve the ability of researchers, lecturers, and students in conducting research

In order to get competitive advantages, univer sity needs to improve service for research activities and KMS could support the research activities.

KMS could support university in research activi ties to get competitive advantages. KMS is expected to associate information communication between actors. The purpose of this research is to design knowledge management system to support the research activities at UI and obtain competi titve advantages. To achieve this purpose, we fol low research methodology in Figure 1. Figure 1. Research Methodology.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Knowledge Management (KM)

The term of Knowledge Management (KM) was introduced previously in early 1990. KM is an activity to identify, capture, develop, under stand, store, and disseminate knowledge aimed at improving ability of innovation, responsive ness, productivity and quality of human, depart ments, and organizations (Dingyong, et al., 2009). KM can provide proper knowledge for members of the organization at the right time.

Knowledge is experiences and skills gained in understanding and explaining the world (Yuan yuan, et al., 2011). Knowledge that can be managed in the form of tacit knowledge (experience, insight, and mental models) or explicit knowledge (documents, formulas, user guide, and books). Tacit knowledge is within someone's thought and every activity and experience that happened, such as opinions, values, or emotions (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Explicit knowledge can be showed in the form of words and numbers such as data, formulas, specifications or manuals (Nonaka & Konno, 1998).

2.2 Knowledge management in higher education

The main purpose of knowledge management is to increase the value of organizations by utilizing knowledge and intellectual resources (Farkas & Kiraly, 2009). In higher educations there are lots of intellectual and knowledge resources that have to be noted to be considered. The processes of knowledge in higher education are: (1) Actors of knowledge process in higher education, (2) The development of an organizational culture that supports KM, (3) A communication system that supports knowledge management activities

is available, (4) Knowing and understanding the dissemination of knowledge barrier and cause, (5) Methods so that knowledge can be acquired by people who need it, (6) The flow of knowledge is influenced by process/other activities and cooperation with other organizations, (7) The willingness and ability of the higher education to invest in technology, and (8) Methods of measuring the performance of KM (Farkas & Kiraly, 2009).

One activity in the university that provides knowledge is research activity. The knowledge generated from the research needs to be managed and supported with good knowledge management. Research activities will gain knowledge. The use of KM in the activities will provide benefits for university and university researchers as can be seen in Table 1 (Kidwell, et al., 2000). 2.3 Information system and information technology Information system consists of many types of computing and software technologies that can be used for various purposes including data management, communication, and help to make decisions. Technology and information system used in managing knowledge must be able to meet the needs of knowledge management. Technology and information system supporting KM is divided into three (3) types, knowledge creation and capture phase, knowledge sharing and dissemination phase, and knowledge acquisition and application phase (Dalkir, 2005). Using new technology will create and redesign business processes (Dachyar & Christy, 2014). 2.4 Business Process Re-engineering (BPR) Business Process Re-engineering (BPR) is an activity of rethink fundamentally, and radical redesigning of business

processes to gain a dramatic improvement (Hammer & Champy, 1993). BPR is being conducted for companies to develop its businesses. There are four elements of BPR if implemented: Focus on the basics; radical redesigning; deliver great results; and object of re-engineering are business processes. There are five (5) steps in BPR: prepare for re-engineering, map and analyze as-is process, design to-be process, implement reengineered process, and continuously improve process (Muthu, et al., 2006). 2.5 Unified Modeling Language (UML) Unified Modeling Language (UML) is a modeling language that can show an object-based process. In addition to software design, UML is also used to model business processes (Engels, et al., 2005). Table 1. Application and benefits of knowledge management in research activities at universities. Knowledge Management application Benefits Gather researchers Improve competitiveness and responsiveness of researchers to research, grants, contracts and other opportunities Collecting research Reduce research time Connecting researchers with other researchers Facilitate research administration Commercialize research results Link interdiscipline researchers fund for research Improve service

UML is composed of nine diagram modeling sup

port: class diagrams, object diagrams, state chart

diagrams, activity diagram, sequence diagram,

use-case diagrams, component diagrams, and

deployment diagrams. UML is easy to understand

and facilitate communication between the parties

(Dobing & Parsons). UML is used in this study

because it can describe the system well and have

been widely used by the community of the world’s

information system (de Cesare & Serrano, 2006).

Use-case diagram is a diagram that illustrates

our view of the system according to the external

system. Use-case diagram shows the relationship

between the activities and the actors that play a role in activities. Activity diagram is a diagram that is used for modeling workflows that shows the sequence from one activity to another. Activity diagram also shows which role of activities. Activ ity diagrams can be used to describe the system as a whole or specifically one use case only.

3 RESEARCH METHOD

This study uses Business Process Re-engineering (BPR) in designing a knowledge management sys tem. BPR consists of three (3) steps: prepare for re-engineering, map and analyze as-is process, and design the to-be process.

Preparing for re-engineering step is necessary to understand the initial knowledge management system condition in the university. There are sev eral websites to manage knowledge in the uni versity such as: library website, journal website, repository website, and website of international journal subscriptions university. An interview with three experts has been done to get basic model for association information communication between actors. Mapping and analyzing the AS-IS process is conducted after understanding the initial condi tion of knowledge management system. This stage

is assisted by UML. Diagrams which are used in

modeling are use-case diagrams and activity dia

grams. The system that has been modeled is to be

analyzed and evaluated. Design to-be process is

conducted by benchmarking to three universities

which acquired the best knowledge management

system. Knowledge management system design is

made into three models. Model design of the new

knowledge management system is simulated using

iGrafx to see the best system.

4 DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The model that represents the initial condition of

UI’s knowledge management system is shown in

Figure 2. The actors who played a role as spreader of knowledge on this system are the International Database System, System Library Website University, and the University Repository System Website. Actors that stores knowledge or receive knowledge are user, lecturers, and students. There are several things to be considered when designing new knowledge management system: - Knowledge of researchers like experience gained during the conduct of the research is not known by university. - Existing system has passive ability to spread knowledge. University requires a system that can actively capture the knowledge of researchers when they are conducting research. - Knowledge that was stored in the form of journals, theses, etc. and knowledge acquired during the research that researchers conducted such as insight, perception, and experience that is not stored on the current system. - Each system has an actor or a manager, so there is a repetitive activity and knowledge that is difficult to find the location because each system has its own actors. The design of the new system is also done by analyzing each activity. Activities are categorized into three criteria: not value adding, waste generating, and unknown. Process or activity will be eliminated, simplified, or will be incorporated as follows: - Eliminate process; a process

that occurs in the search for knowledge (books, journals, etc.) on a web library, repository, and university journal turns out there are activities that do not have knowledge.
Figure 2. Knowledge Management System As-Is Use-Case Diagram.

- Simplify process; simplification process is carried

out in the process of seeking knowledge on a web

library, repository, and university journal because

of the electoral process and there are a lot of the

same collection there should be a simplification.

- Combine process; combine process is used when

search processes are identical. Merging steps /

process reduces the number of systems involved

and reduces waste.

Based on the analysis results of the initial state in

knowledge management system and benchmarking

to three universities, new knowledge management

system scenarios were designed: KMS Scenario-1,

KMS Scenario-2, and KMS Scenario-3.

KMS Scenario-1 is a system that stores

knowledge in the form of a list called KMS List.

Researcher can create KMS List to store knowl

edge in the form of a list. The name and descrip

tion of KMS list is given in accordance with the

accumulated knowledge in KMS List. Researchers

can search KMS Lists to support their research.

KMS Scenario-2 is a system that provides serv

ices for researchers to organize their knowledge whether it will be shared to all people, groups of researchers or simply for themselves. Research ers can create storage space and dissemination of knowledge along with the service named Group KM. This service helps storage and dissemina tion of knowledge for research done in groups. KMS Scenario-3 is a system that has a combina tion of services from the two previous KMS, KMS Scenario-1 and KMS Scenario-2.

The design of KMS Scenario-1, KMS Scenar io-2, and KMS Scenario-3 shown in Figure 3, Figure 4, and Figure 5, respectively, used case diagrams. The actors who spread knowledge on the new system are the UI library website system and KMS. The actors who store knowledge are the User, lecturers, students, research group, and KMS. Use case has information and activity that is detailed using activity diagram. Example of activ ity diagram from use case “Search research materi als in KMS website” showed in Figure 6.

The initial condition of knowledge manage ment system and three new knowledge manage ment systems are simulated by iGrafx. In the initial condition of KM, there are no website that

Table 2. Comparison of total knowledge/semester between initial condition, KMS Scenario-1, KMS Scenario-2 and

KMS Scenario-3. Initial Condition KMS Scenario-1 KMS Scenario-2 KMS Scenario-3

Captured Knowledge 0 3996 3456 3455

Form of Knowledge

Management None 3996 5183 7775

Shared Knowledge 13824 14903 14903 14903 Figure 3. KMS Scenario-3 Use-Case Diagram. Figure 4. KMS Scenario-1 Use-Case Diagram. can capture knowledge (experience, insight, and perceptions). Use of KMS provides the ability to capture knowledge. Based on the simulation, KMS Scenario-1 can capture knowledge by 3996

knowledge/semester, 3456 knowledge/semester for

KMS Scenario-2, and 3455 knowledge/semester

for KMS Scenario-3.

In terms of forms of knowledge manage

ment, KMS Scenario-1, use KMS List with the

amount of knowledge captured is 3996 knowledge/

semester. KMS Scenario-2 use KM Group as a

place to store and disseminate knowledge to a group

of researchers. The amount of knowledge captured

by the KM Group is 5183 knowledge/semester.

KMS Scenario-3 use KMS List and Group KM

to store, capture and disseminate knowledge. KMS List that is used by KMS Scenario-3 can capture knowledge by 5184 knowledge/semester. The knowledge captured by Group KM is 5184 knowledge/semester. Total knowledge captured using a KMS Scenario-3 is 7775 knowledge/semester. Spreaded knowledge in the initial condition is 13824 knowledge/semester and knowledge drawn from outside the UI database is 10091 knowledge/ semester. KMS Scenario-1, KMS Scenario-2, and KMS Scenario-3, which have the same total

amount of knowledge spread. Total knowledge spread using KMS is 14903 knowledge/semester. From these results, KMS Scenario-3 is the best knowledge management system. KMS Scenario-3 can manage knowledge with the best ability to capture and disseminate knowledge. KMS Scenario-3 can also capture researcher knowledge when conducted research such experience and insight with upload service. Researchers can also share knowledge with KMS List to Group KM, so more knowledge that spread among researcher. Higher education who wishes to implement and use new knowledge management system needs to consider the success factors of KM as follows (Farkas & Kiraly, 2009): - Actors; user's and leadership of the university's support are essential to support the implementation of knowledge management system. - Organizational culture; socialization and training to use the system are ways to get used to a sharing and storing knowledge culture. - Communication system; knowledge that has been collected will be easily dispersed and researchers can discuss and exchange knowledge better. - Knowledge transfer barrier and cause; universities need to consider the possibility of what could hinder the dissemination of knowledge as well as the cause. - Methods to acquire knowledge for people who need it; methods that can be used is the instruction from top to bottom. With this method, researchers which have not used this system previously will try to use the system. - The flow of knowledge is influenced by other process/activities and cooperation with other organizations; changes in knowledge management system need to consider the business processes of other organizations in order to manage the spread of knowledge between organizations. - Willingness and Technology investments; university must have the willingness, funds and technology to implement KMS. - Methods to measure performance; after a successful system implementation, the university must continue to improve the ability to spread, capture and use knowledge.

Figure 5. KMS Scenario-2 Use-Case Diagram.

Figure 6.

5 CONCLUSION

Based on simulation result from three design KMS,

it showed that the best design new knowledge

management system is KMS shared knowledge

with KMS List to Group KM. The best design can also upload research knowledge such experience and insight. Knowledge is gained during the research which can be stored better in KMS where it is easier to find. KMS could support communication activity and distribute knowledge among researcher. In this research, the KMS is just a prototype. For future research, researchers can implement the KMS system and compare the result from implementation with the result from this paper.

Dachyar, M., & Christy, E. (2014). Designing Process Improvement of Finished Good On Time Release and Performance Indicator Tool in Milk Industry Using Business Process Reengineering Method. Journal of Physics: Conference Series, 495(1), 1–10.

Dalkir, K. (2005). Knowledge Management Tools. Dalam Knowledge Management in Theory and Practice (hal. 217–245). Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

de Cesare, S., & Serrano, A. (2006). Collaborative Modeling Using UML and Business Process Simulatioin. Proceedings of the 39th Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences (hal. 1–10). IEEE.

Dingyong, T., Yizhen, T., Long, J., & Zheng, C. (2009). Application Research of Knowledge Management in R&D Enterprise Project Management. Information

Management, Innovation Management and Industrial

Engineering, 2009 International Conference on. 4, hal.

447–452. IEEE. Dobing, B., & Parsons, J. (t.thn.). Dimensions of UML Diagram Use: A Survey of Practitioners. Engels, G., Forster, A., Heckel, R., & Thone, S. (2005). Process Modeling using UML. Dalam Process-Aware Information Systems (hal. 85–117). John Wiley & Sons. Farkas, F., & Kiraly, A. (2009). What Makes Higher Education Knowledge-Compatible? Acta Polytechnica Hungarica, 6(3), 93–104. Hammer, M., & Champy, J. (1993). Reengineering the Corporation: Manifesto for Business Revolution. HarperCollins Publishers, Inc.: New York. Kidwell, J., Linde, K., & Johnson, S. (2000). Applying Corporate Knowledge Management Practices in Higher. Educause quarterly, 23(4), 29–33. Meek, V.L.-L. (2009). Higher education, research and innovation: Changing dynamics. Report on the UNESCO forum on higher education, research and knowledge 2001–2009. Muthu, S., Whitman, L., & Cheraghi, S. H. (2006). Business Process Reengineering: a Consolidated Methodology. Proceedings of the 4 th Annual International Conference on Industrial Engineering Theory, Applications, and Practice, 1999 US Department of the Interior-Enterprise Architecture. Nonaka, I., & Konno, N. (1998). The concept of “ba”: Building a foundation for knowledge creation. California Management Review. Nonaka, I., & Takeuchi, H. (1995). The knowledge-creating company: How Japanese companies create the dynamics of innovation. Boston: Oxford University Press. Republik Indonesia. (1989). Undang-Undang No. 2 Tahun 1989 tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional. Lembaran Negara RI Tahun 1989, No. 6. Jakarta: Sekretariat Negara. Yuan-yuan, D., Yong-cheng, W., & Hong-mei, W. (2011). The Design and Implement of E-Government information system based on Knowledge Management. Jilin.

Improvement of procurement business process (procure-to-pay)

in Indonesian shipping company

M. Dachyar & Bintang Praharani

Department of Industrial Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, University of Indonesia, Indonesia

ABSTRACT: Procurement process or procure-to-pay is an important process for a shipping company

because it contains the process of supplying parts and

services for vessel operation and maintenance.

In order to fulfill the increasing demand and stay competitive, the shipping company should improve

its procurement process. Business process re-engineering method that involves four experts was used to

improve the shipping company procurement process. Current process was mapped and the future process

was designed using Unified Modeling Language (UML). The current and future process was compared

with Igrafx simulation software. The results from this study are four new procurement process designs.

The best procurement process generate 60% reduction time. 2 LITERATURE REVIEW 2.1 Procurement Procurement, which is also known in common as procure-to-pay or purchase-to-pay, is a process to obtain materials or services in order to support company's operational activities and have an important role in shaping competitive capability of a company (Watt, et al., 1992). The goals of procurement process are 7R, right quality of material/ service, right quantity, right place, right time, right source, right cost, and right service both before and after sale (Leenders, et al., 1997). Based on ISO 10845 there are five basic procurement system requirements: (1) fairness; (2) equity; (3) transparency; (4) competition; and (5) cost effectiveness (ISO, 2008). There are many methods used by the companies to conduct the procurement process. Nevertheless, the regulation in Indonesia obligates their companies to use reverse auction as their general method. In reverse auction, the buyers are usually using the net, inviting prospective suppliers through Request For Quotation (RFQ), which compete in real time, and gather e-bids for certain services (Dachyar, et al., 2014). 2.2 Business process re-engineering (BPR) BPR is defined as a fundamental rethink and radical redesign of business processes to generate dramatic improvements in critical performance measures such as cost, quality, service, and speed (Hammer, et al., 1993). BPR is a business strategy management that focuses on designing flow of information and material in an organization (Harvey, et al., 1999).

1 INTRODUCTION

Energy consumption in Indonesia is dominated by

petroleum fuel. In 2012, 37% of Indonesia's energy consumption was petroleum fuel and it was predicted to grow with the growth rate of 5.9% until the year 2035 (BPPT, 2014). The increasing petroleum fuel consumption will escalate the demand of shipping company, which operates oil tanker vessels.

Oil tanker Vessel company, a service company which operates oil tanker vessels used for distributing petroleum to costumers in entire Indonesia, should maintain the operating period of its vessel to comply the customer needs. It can be achieved by efficiently providing parts and services for vessel maintenance which are obtained through procurement process or procure-to-pay. However, in one of the Indonesian oil tanker vessel company, the procurement process does not have a structured flow of information and its lead time is more than the performance standard time. Moreover, there is no detailed procurement planning hence resulting sudden request. Consequently, the process does not carry out the best practice procedure. This situation resulted delays in vessel maintenance and reduces vessel operating period.

The procurement process has an important func
tion to overall oil tanker vessel company perform
ance. Therefore, its performance must be improved
in order to make the company stay competitive and
fulfill the increasing demand. Therefore, the aim of
this study is to design a new process to improve the
performance of shipping company procurement
process.

There are four characteristics of BPR: (1) fun
damental, analyzing based on “what” process that
the company does and “how” the process is done;
(2) radical, solving the root causes and designing
solution by ignoring current procedure and struc
ture; (3) dramatic, the change effort gives signifi
cant and great impact, not an incremental impact;
and (4) process, investigating based on process
(Chan, et al., 1997).

To achieve improvement in process performance,
it is important to identify the improvement area. It
can be done by assessing each activity or step in
the process in term of its value contain (Melnyk,
et al., 2000). The non-value adding process must
be omitted. There are 8 categories of non-value
added activity or waste that is widely used to ana
lyze processes namely motion, delay, conveyance,

correction, over-processing, inventory, over-pro
duction, and knowledge disconnection (Dennis,
et al., 2002).

Redesign is one of the important phases in busi
ness process re-engineering effort. There are ten
best practices of redesign process, which can be
done: task elimination, task composition (com
bining or dividing activity), integral technology
(implement new technology), empower worker,
order assignment, resequencing, specialist-general
ist, integration with supplier and consumer proc
ess, parallelism, numerical improvement (reduce
the number of actor involvement in the process)
(Mansar, et al., 2007).

2.3 Unified modeling language (UML)

Unified Modeling Language (UML) is a visual,
object-oriented, and multi-purpose modeling lan
guage that can be used both for modeling software
system and for modeling business process (Engels,
et al., 2005). UML consists of nine diagrams: class
diagram, object diagram, state-chart diagram,
activity diagram, sequence diagram, use-case dia
gram, component diagram, and deployment dia
gram (Aguilar-Saven, 2004).

3 RESEARCH METHOD

This study was developed using business process re-engineering method, excluded the implementation of to-be process. The method consists of three steps: preparing for business process re-engineering, mapping and analyzing As-Is process, designing To-Be process.

In the first step, the preparation was done by scoping the process. The process starts from parts and services procurement planning until its payment. There are some methods that had been used by the shipping company; however, this study will cover three methods namely direct delegation, direct election, and auction. After that, the study was continued by determining the objective of the re-engineering effort and the measurement parameter. This study uses process lead time as the parameter. In mapping and analyzing As-Is process step, the current procurement process was mapped using use-case and activity diagram, then analysis and evaluation were conducted to get the root problems related to the process. In the third step, the discussion was held to find best solution for redesigning new procurement process with four experts from the shipping company. They are assistant manager technical fleet and technical fleet staff who have the responsibility to manage budget and requisition, senior technical superintendent who has responsibility to oil tanker vessel operation and maintenance, and assistant manager procurement. Use-case and activity diagram was used to design the To-Be process. In this step, some possible new process design was developed. To verify the re-engineering design effectiveness, simulation was built using software (Dachyar, et al., 2014). The software used to perform simulation was Igrafx. Secondary data that consists of 411 procurement records for 23 vessels from the shipping company was used. The lead time data was extracted from these records. Moreover, additional data was obtained by doing observation, discussion, and interview with assistant manager, staff, operator of procurement and technical fleet division. 4 DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULT Procurement process for vessel operation and maintenance

in the shipping company was conducted using three methods namely direct delegation, direct election, and auction. Direct delegation method is done by directly delegating one vendor, so it is conducted without vendor selection. This method is commonly used for sudden and critical request. Direct election method is conducted by inviting all company's registered vendor list using e-procurement system. Auction method has similar procedures as direct election, the difference is auction method requires longer time because this method is done by inviting the entire qualified vendor whether they are registered in company's list or not. The current procurement process in the form of use-case diagram is shown by Figure 1. It illustrates 12 actors and 10 use-cases (oval-shaped element), which are involved in the procurement process. In the real case, those actors come from 3 different divisions which are technical fleet that is

responsible for vessel operation and maintenance,

procurement division that is responsible to pur

chase all requests from vendors, and finance divi

sion that is responsible for the order's payment.

Each use-case consists of flow of information and

activity that is described using activity diagram.

Figure 2 depicts the example of activity diagram

from use case "make requisition".

After mapping the current process, the next

phase is problem analysis. In this study, problem

analysis was done using three steps. First, using

secondary data to get the procurement process

performance, and then using simulation to find the

longest or bottleneck activity, and then continued

by identifying non-value added activity. The last

step of analyzing phase is conducting interview

and discussion with some actors involved in the procurement process to get the root problems.

Based on secondary data shown in Table 1, it can be inferred that the procurement process perform ance was not well-conducted. From 411 records

Figure 1. Procurement process As-Is use-case diagram.
Figure 2. Make requisition As-Is activity diagram.

consist of material and service order from 23 ves sels, 69% or 285 requisitions were fulfilled but their lead time exceeded the performance standard. In detail, 75% requisitions processed using direct del egation, 63% requisitions processed using direct election, and 100% or all requisitions processed using auction method were accomplished above the standard time.

Table 2 shows average lead time of each current procurement process method which is obtained from the simulation. It can be inferred that the average lead time of each method exceeds the standard time. Based on simulation, there are some sub-processes that take the longest time: make req uisition, process requisition, and receive parts/ services.

Next step of analysis phase is non-value added activities identification. This step is focused on the three sub-processes, which took the longest cycle

time as can be seen in Table 3.

From all activities classified as non-value added activity or waste, there are some activities that can not be omitted or eliminated but its lead time or its occurrence must be reduced. For example, real locating vessel budget. This activity is important especially when there is a critical request but the vessel budget is insufficient.

The last step of analyzing phase is conducting discussion and interview with 4 experts to iden tify problems and consider improvement strategy for procurement process, six root problems were discovered:

1. Lack of employees who are capable to manage and plan vessel maintenance.
2. GL ship manager (information system record ing running hour of vessel engine) has not been used effectively and thoroughly.
3. There are some activities that do not give value added on the procurement process.
4. Too many back and forth procedure.
5. Order cost estimation was not made efficiently.
6. Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) system is not optimally used. In order to improve, the performance of procurement process, five solutions have been discovered:
1. Empowering PMS (planned maintenance system) division to

plan maintenance activity using last three to five years historical data based on GL ship manager system [1, 2]. 2. Redesigning information and activity flow of procurement process [3, 4]. 3. Removing payment request document which is made by technical support or procurement division. So, payment request document in the form of invoice and tax document is only made by vendor. Finance division can match vendor’s payment request through transaction record in the ERP system [3, 6].

Table 1. Procurement process performance.

Procurement

Method Within Standard time Out of Standard time % Within Standard time % Out of Standard time

Direct

Delegation 38 116 25% 75%

Direct

Election 88 151 37% 63%

Auction 0 18 0% 100%

Total 126 285 31% 69% Table 2. Average lead time of each method. Direct Delegation Direct Election Auction Performance Standard 31 days 61 days 77 days Average Lead Time 66,45 days 100,3 days 114,7 days Excess 114,3% 64,4% 49% Table 3. Non-value added activities identification. Sub-Process Activity Non-Value Added Category Make requisition Make action plan document Over-production, knowledge disconnection Propose action plan approval Over processing Process requisition Keep action plan Inventory Review cost estimation document Correction Reallocate vessel budget Correction Receive parts/services Make payment request document Over-production Send payment request document to the finance division Conveyance

4. Vendors send invoice and tax document directly

to finance division [3].

5. Renewing estimation database regularly using

data obtained from last transaction [5].

After conducting analyzing phase and discover ing some possible solution, new design of procure ment process was developed using process redesign best practice. The new design covered flow of activ ity and information, which conducted manually and in the ERP system. Improvement design did not include auction process which carried out in the e-procurement system. Table 4 shows improve ment strategies that will be developed as new proc ess design.

After finding the improvement strategies, four new procurement processes were designed. These new processes (to-be processes) were generated by combining some improvement strategies. Table 5 shows the new process design.

To verify the effectiveness of new procurement process, simulation of As-Is and To-Be processes were conducted. Then, the results were compared to select the best procurement process. The simu lation was done using Igrafx software. Simulation results can be seen in Table 6. In the simulation result table, time demonstrates the average of pro curement process cycle time that was generated by Igrafx. The simulation shows the greatest effi ciency of each procurement methods generated by

the fourth procurement process design. By imple

menting this process, direct delegation gained

60.3% efficiency, direct election gained 59.7%

efficiency, and auction gained 58.7% efficiency.

Table 4. Improvement strategies based on process redesign best practice.

No Actor Activity Best Practice

1 PMS department Make detailed vessel maintenance schedule Order assignment

2 Technical Superintendent Add order requirement date on Action Plan Simplification

3 Technical Superintendent Combine order cost estimation and action plan making activity Task composition

4 Technical Superintendent Propose Action Plan document approval Elimination

5 Technical Support Keep Action Plan Elimination

6 Technical Superintendent Review cost estimation document Elimination

7 Technical Support Decrease probability of reallocate vessel budget activity from 40% to 10% Order assignment

8 Technical Support/Procurement Make payment request document Elimination

9 Technical Support/Procurement Send payment request document to the finance division Elimination

10 Vendors Send invoice and tax document directly to the finance division Numerical improvement, simplification
Table 5. New process design (to-be process). To-Be Processes Strategies Combination 1 1,2,3,4,5,6,8,9,10 2 1,2,4,5,6,8,9,10 3 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10 4 1,2,4,5,6,7,8,9,10 Table 6. Simulation result. Method As-Is Model Time (days) 1 To-Be Process To-Be Model Time (days) 2 Efficiency (1/2 ∗ 100%) Direct Delegation 66,45 1 37,94 42,9% 66,45 2 36,51 45,1% 66,45 3 30,56 54,0% 66,45 4 26,35 60,3% Direct Election 100,3 1 43,57 56,6% 100,3 2 41,56 58,6% 100,3 3 41,54 58,6% 100,3 4 40,43 59,7% Auction

114,73 1 51,27 55,3% 114,73 2 48,64 57,6% 114,73 3 49,29 57,0% 114,73 4 47,38 58,7% The final design of new procurement process in the form of use-case diagram after comparing all possible improvement process designs can be seen in Figure 3. In the new use-case diagram, there is one new actor namely PMS division, and one new use-case, which is to make vessel maintenance planning. The flow of activity and information in four use-cases that take the longest time in the procurement process specifically “make requisition,” “process requisition,” “receive services,” and “receive parts” are redesigned. Figure 4 shows one example of redesigned activity and information flow in “make requisition” use-case. Compared with As-Is design that was

Figure 3. Procurement process to-be use-case diagram.

Figure 4. Make requisition to-be activity diagram. Table 7. Procurement process improvement result. Method Lead Time As-Is Process Lead Time To-Be Process Direct Delegation 66,45 days 26,35 days Direct Election 100,3 days 40,43 days Auction 114,73 days 47,38 days

illustrated in Figure 2, this proposed design has

some differences such as the number of actor

involved is reduced and some activities are

eliminated.

The benefit which can be obtained from the

improvement procurement process is the greatest

reduction in parts and services procurement lead

time. Table 7 shows the improvement result.

5 CONCLUSION

This study constructs four redesigned procurement

processes. The best redesigned process is the proc

ess that eliminates four activities which are propose

action plan approval, keep action plan, review cost

estimation document, and make payment request

document. The best redesigned process also simpli

fies two activities such as make action plan by add

ing requirement date field and vendors directly send

invoice and tax document to the finance division.

Moreover, it assigns order or task to the planned

maintenance system division and decreases the

probability of reallocate vessel budget from 40%

to 10%. The best redesigned process gained 60.3%

lead time efficiency from 66.45 days to 26.35 days

(direct delegation method), gained 59.7% lead time

efficiency from 100.3 days to 40.43 days (direct

election method) and gained 58.7% lead time effi

ciency from 114.73 days to 47.38 days (auction

method).

Aguilar-Saven, R.S. (2004). Business process modelling:

Reviewand framework. Int. J. Production Economics,

90, 129–149.

BPPT. (2014). Outlook Energi Indonesia 2014. Jakarta:

Badan Pengkajian dan Penerapan Teknologi. Chan, S., & Choi, C. (1997). A conceptual and analytical framework for business process reengineering. Int. J. Production Economics, 50, 211–223. Dachyar, M., & Christy, E. (2014). Designing Process Improvement of Finished Good On Time Release and Performance Indicator Tool in Milk Industry Using Business Process Reengineering Method. Journal of Physics: Conference Series, 495(1), 1–10. Dachyar, M., & Yupita. (2014). Multiple Criteria Decision Making for Indirect Procurement Division on Electronic Auction at Consumer Goods Company in Indonesia. Advanced Science Letters, 20, 2244–2247. Dennis, P., & Shook, J. (2002). Lean Production Simplified: A Plain-Language Guide to the

World’s Most Powerful Production System 2nd. New York: Productivity Press. Engels, G., Forster, A., Heckel, R., & Thone, S. (2005). Process Modeling using UML. In Process-Aware Information Systems (pp. 85–117). John Wiley & Sons. Hammer, M., & Champy, J. (1993). Reengineering The Corporation: A Manifesto For Business Revolution. HarperCollins Publishers, Inc.: New York. Harvey, S., & Millet, B. (1999). OD, TQM AND BPR: A COMPARATIVE APPROACH. Australian Journal of Management & Organisational Behaviour, 2(3), 30–42. ISO. (2008). Construction Procurement-Part 1: Process, Methods, and Procedures. Geneva: International Organization for Standardization. Leenders, M.R., & Fearon, H.E. (1997). Purchasing and Supply Management Eleventh Edition. United States: Times Mirror Higher Education Group. Mansar, S.L., & Reijers, H.A. (2007). Best Practices in Business Process Redesign: Use and Impact. Business Process Management Journal, 12(2), 193–213. Melnyk, S.A., & Christensen, R.T. (2000). Value-Driven Process Management: Using Value To Improve Processes. Hospital Materiel Management Quarterly, 22(1), 59–67. Mol, M.J. (2003). Purchasing’s Strategic Relevance. Journal of Purchasing and Supply Management, 9(1), 43–50. Watt, C.A., Kim, K.Y., & Hahn, C.K. (1992). Lingking Purchasing to Corporate Competitive Strategy. International Journal of Purchasing and Material Management, 2–8. This page intentionally left blank

Impact of service quality on customer satisfaction in low

cost airline service in Indonesia

M. Dachyar & Muhammad Reyhan Siva

Department of Industrial Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, University of Indonesia, Indonesia

ABSTRACT: The increasing demand of air transport service is an opportunity for companies to get

more customers. The key for companies in improving and maintaining customer relationship is by improv

ing customer satisfaction. This research investigates the impact of service quality factors to customer

satisfaction in low-cost airline. The objects of this research are three low-cost airlines in Indonesia. This

research uses structural equation modeling method to investigate the impact between factors with 705

respondents. This research shows that in low-cost airline service quality does not significantly affect cus

tomer satisfaction. While the company image, customer expectation, and perceived value affect customer

satisfaction and also customer loyalty. 2 LITERATURE REVIEW 2.1 Service quality Customer satisfaction is a direct response to use, while quality of service is defined as the overall customer's impressions and assessment concerning service provided (Culliberg, 2010). Quality of service is the key factor to develop and maintain relationships with customers (Park et al., 2006). Quality of service is the degree of differences between normative expectations and service performance perceptions (Dachyar & Hananto, 2014). The evaluation of service is generally assessed through the service quality procedure known as SERVQUAL, which contains five dimensions: (1) reliability; (2) responsiveness; (3) assurance; (4) empathy; and (5) tangibles, which employs a 22-item instrument for measurement (Parasuraman, 1988). According to (Hernon & Nitecki, 2001) definitions of service quality are based on four main perspectives: (1) excellence, which often externally defined; (2) value, which combine several attributes and is focused on benefit to the recipient; (3) conformance to specifications, which enables precise measurement, but customers may not know or care about internal specifications; (4) meeting expectations, which applies to all service industries. 2.2 Customer satisfaction Customer satisfaction means that customer needs, wishes and expectations are met with the product

1 INTRODUCTION

Air transportation play important role in Indo

nesia. Because geographically, Indonesia is an

archipelago country that gives an advantage to air

transportation in Indonesia. Moreover, the grow

ing personal income, the increase of tourism and

international trading will continue to encourage

the increasing demand in air transportation.

From 2010 to 2014, the number of sched

uled commercial air transportation users had increased from year to year (BPS, 2015). However, the growth in passenger numbers caused some disadvantage, such as the increasing traffic jam due to expansion, construction of airports, and the number of graduate pilots in Indonesia still not balanced with airline's need. This can lead to full and crowded airport, disrupted flight schedule, and airline hard in seeking employment.

Furthermore, a common problem that often occurs is the lack of assurance level on safety and flight delays. The airline needs to make continuous improvements to survive in intense competition. One thing that must be considered is the quality of service. Service with high quality has become customer needs and will help the company to gain and retain customers (Chen & Tseng, 2011). To obtain a high level of customer satisfaction, high quality service must be performed by a service provider, because the quality of service is considered as the foundation of customer satisfaction (Clemes & Gan, 2008).

or service that can make re-purchasing and customer loyalty (Anton, 1996). In other words,

customer satisfaction is the assessment of the pre purchasing expectations from the product, with the expectations fulfilled after purchasing (Lemon & White, 2002).

Make customers satisfy with the service can cre ate brand loyalty and long-term relationships with customers. But, if the customers are not satisfied they can express their feelings through their behavior (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). Customers can express positive or negative feelings to people they know, so it can affect business reputation positively or negatively (Ryu & Han, 2009). Satisfaction has been widely adapted to measure consumer attitudes toward the company. Satisfying customers is not only able to strengthen their relationship with the company, but also can generate positive word of mouth.

3 RESEARCH METHOD

Structural equation modeling (SEM) is the method of this study. SEM is a method to evaluate the rela tionship between the measured variable with latent variable and between latent variables simultane ously. According to (Lei, 2007) there are five steps in SEM method: (1) model specification; (2) data characteristic; (3) model estimation; (4) model evaluation; (5) model modification.

At model specification stage, literature study was conducted by adopting factors related to service quality and customer satisfaction (Hussain, 2015), (Suki, 2014), and (Park et al., 2006). From exten sive literature study obtained 38 factors related to customer satisfaction and service quality. Valida tion of factors was conducted by Delphi method involved 5 experts resulted 6 latent variables and 31 measured variables. Model specification and hypotheses of the study shown in Figure 1. There are eight hypotheses that will be testes in this study: H1: Company Image affects Customer Expectation. H2: Company Image affects Customer Satisfaction. H3: Customer Expectation affects Perceived Value. H4: Customer Expectation affects Service Quality. H5: Service Quality affects Perceived Value. H6: Service Quality affects Customer Satisfaction. H7: Perceived Value affects Customer Satisfaction. H8: Customer Satisfaction affects Customer Loyalty. Table 1 shows all observed variable that will be used in this study. A questionnaire was used as a primary data collection tool. Respondent of this study are customers from LA airline, AA airline, and CT air

Figure 1. Research model. Table 1. Observed variable. Observed Variable SQ1 Modern and proper aircraft SQ2 Modern and clean facilities in the passenger cabin SQ3 Comfort and cleanness of seat SQ4 On time performance on services in general SQ5 Prompt and accurate baggage delivery SQ6 Prompt handling of delayed flights SQ7 Responsive employees in meeting customer needs and willing to help customers SQ8 Employee politeness SQ9 Feeling safe in transactions with the airline SQ10 Airlines generally provide acceptable flight schedule with enough frequencies SQ11 Customer complaint handling PV1 Price/performance PV2 Performance/price PV3 Always had a good impression of this airline PV4 Security and acurate of service CE1 Expectations for overall service CE2 Service process faster than expectation CE3 An airline that is cleaner than expected CE4 An airline more economical than expected, AI1 Profesional airline in giving service AI2 Innovative

airline AI3 Airline can be trusted AI4 Airline have good relationship with customer CS1 Overall satisfaction CS2 Fulfillment of expectations CS3 Choice to use this airline was wise one CS4 Ideal service CL1 Recommendation to others CL2 Intend to repeat a purchase CL3 Willing to say positive words about the company CL4 Tolerate on increase in price.

line using convenience sampling method. The

questionnaire were conducted in one month with

778 respondents, and only 705 data from respond

ent can be inputted after data screening with 235

respondent each airline. According to (Hair et al.,

2010) minimum respondent in SEM is ratio of five

respondents per observed variable. In this study,

the number of observed variable is 31 which mean

that the adequacy of sample required is 155. Reli

ability test using Cronbach's alpha and validity test

using Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling

adequacy were conducted.

Estimation method used in this study is maxi

mum likelihood estimator because the sample is

around 200 and normally distributed. This study

use IBM SPSS Amos version 22 software to help

calculate estimation and interpret the result.

4 DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1 Goodness of fit and model modification

In this study the data were processed by multivari

ate analysis, structural equation modeling. After

model estimation using maximum likelihood,

the model evaluated by looking at the value of goodness of fit index. Goodness of fit index that will be used to assess the suitability of model are CFI > 0.9, CMIN/DF < 3, RMSEA < 0.08 (Suki, 2014), and SRMR < 0.08 (Lei, 2007).

Fit model is reached after several modifications. Index value that has fitted to parameters and reached the standard model of goodness of fit shown in Table 2.

4.2 Comparison result

Table 3 shows path coefficient between latent variable in all three models. In all three models, there are two negative path coefficient and six positive path coefficient. Two negative values in all three models are service quality affecting perceived value and service quality affecting customer satisfaction. This means that service quality cannot improve both perceived value and customer satisfaction.

Table 4 shows the comparison result of the hypotheses testing between LA, AA, and CT.

The structural model in this research shows the difference between hypothesis that is accepted and rejected. In LA model, H3, H5, and H6 are rejected. In AA and CT model, H5 and H6 are

rejected. Hypotheses accepted if p-value < 0.05

which means the relationship is significant.

This study shows that in low cost airline service

quality is not significantly affecting customer

satisfaction. Table 2. Goodness of fit indices. CMIN/DF CFI RMSEA SRMR LA 2.115 0.903 0.069 0.057 AA 1.934 0.901 0.063 0.051 CT 1.959 0.923 0.064 0.044 Table 3. Path coefficient. Path LA AA CT CI > CE 0.872 0.886 0.949 CE > SQ 0.984 0.947 0.972 SQ > PV −0.863 −0.707 −0.388 CW > PV 1.853 1.715 1.354 CI > CS 0.337 0.276 0.405 SQ > CS −1.149 −0.072 −0.066 PV > CS 1.747 0.745 0.647 CS > CL 0.837 0.89 0.916 Table 4. Comparison result. Path LA AA CT p Accept? p Accept? p Accept? H1 CI > CE *** Yes *** Yes 0.014 Yes H2 CI > CS 0.004 Yes 0.007 Yes *** Yes H3 CE > PV 0.274 No 0.005 Yes 0.008 Yes H4 CE > SQ *** Yes *** Yes *** Yes H5 SQ > PV 0.606 No 0.206 No 0.426 No H6 SQ > CS 0.093 No 0.656 No 0.672 No H7 PV > CS 0.015 Yes 0.002 Yes *** Yes H8 CS > CL *** Yes *** Yes *** Yes Table 5. Total effect to customer satisfaction. LA AA CT Company Image 0.881 0.905 0.944 Customer Expectation 0.625 0.71 0.568 Service Quality −2.657 −0.598 −0.317 Perceived Value 1.747 0.745 0.647 4.3 Total effect analysis Total effect is the value of effect from one latent variable to other latent variable. The bigger value of total effect, the bigger the impact. Table 5 shows the total effect variables that affect customer satisfaction. Based on the result, there are differences in total effect to customer satisfaction between three airlines. In LA airline, variable that affect the most on customer satisfaction is perceived value with

(1.747) total effect value. This means that if LA

wants to improve customer satisfaction, the first

priority factor is to improve perceived value. Fur

thermore, in AA and CT airline, company image

is the variable with the highest total effect value

to customer satisfaction whereas AA (0.905) and

CT (0.944). This means that if AA and CT want

to improve customer satisfaction, the first priority factor to improve is their company image.

In all three models, service quality can not improve customer satisfaction because the hypotheses are rejected and have negative total effect value. This means that in low-cost airline, service quality is not significantly affecting cus tomer satisfaction. If airline want to improve customer satisfaction, they must improve com pany image, customer expectation, and perceived value. Moreover, this research shows that cus tomer satisfaction significantly affect customer loyalty which mean if airline improve customer satisfaction, it will also improve the loyalty of customer.

5 CONCLUSION

Service quality is not significantly affecting cus tomer satisfaction in low-cost airline. The factors that can improve customer satisfaction and loy alty are company image, customer expectation, and perceived value. In LA, perceived value is the factors that have biggest impact to improve customer satisfaction. In AA and CT, company image is the factors that have biggest impact to improve customer satisfaction. The result of this

study has provided a very useful reference for

airline managers and stakeholders to identify sig

nificant factor that affect customer satisfaction in

low cost airline.

Anton, J. (1996). Customer Relationship Management.

New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc. BPS. (2015). Jumlah Penumpang yang berangkat pada penerbangan di bandara utama Indonesia. Retrieved Maret 8, 2015, from www.bps.go.id Clemes, M., & Gan, C. (2008). An empirical analysis of customers' satisfaction in international air travel. Innov. Mark., 4(4), 49–62. Culliberg, B. (2010). Identifying service quality dimensions as antecedents to customer satisfaction in retail banking. Econ. Bus, 12(3), 151–166. Dachyar, M., & Hananto, L. (2014). Innovation and quality service factors to customer loyalty in Indonesia telecommunication company by using structural equation modeling method. Management and Technology in Knowledge, Service, Tourism & Hospitality, 41–44. Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B., & Anderson, R. (2010). Multivariate Data Analysis; Seventh Edition. Pearson Prentice-Hall. Hernon, P., & Nitecki, D. (2001). Service Quality: A Concept not fully explored. Library Trends, 687–708. Hussain, R. (2015). Service quality and customer satisfaction of a UAE-based airline: An empirical investigation. Journal of Air Transport Management, 167–175. Lei, P.-W. (2007). Introduction to Structural Equation Modeling: Issues and Practical Considerations. 33–43. Lemon, K.N., & White, T. (2002). Dynamic Customer Relationship Management: Incorporating Future Considerations into The Service Retention Decision. Journal of Marketing, 66. Parasuraman, A. (1988). SERVQUAL: A Multiple-Item Scale for Measuring Consumer Perceptions of Service Quality. Journal of Retailing, 64(1), 12–40. Park, J.W., Robertson, R., & Wu, C.L. (2006). Modelling the Impact of Airline Service Quality and Marketing Variables on Passengers' Future Behavioural Intentions. Transportation Planning and Technology, 29(5), 391–418. Ryu, G., & Han, J.K. (2009). Word of mouth transmission in settings with multiple opinions: The impact of other opinions on WOM likelihood and valence. Journal of Consumer Psychology, 19(3), 403–415. Suki, N.M. (2014). Passenger satisfaction with airline service quality in Malaysia A structural equation modeling approach. Research in Transportation Business & Management, 26–32. Zeelenberg, M., & Pieters, R. (2004). Beyond valence in customers' dissatisfaction: a review and

new findings on behavioral response to regret and disappointment in failed services. J. Bus. Res, 445–455.

A study to improve Enterprise Resources Planning post-implementation in Indonesian industries

M. Dachyar & Yuda Prawira

Department of Industrial Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, University of Indonesia, Indonesia

ABSTRACT: Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) is a system widely implemented as the backbone in many services and manufacturing industries. At the post-implementation stage, real challenges arise and more critical risks can occur. Unwanted risks in ERP post-implementation can change the initial success of ERP to failure and can also lead to bankruptcy of company's business. The purpose of this study is to assess risk and establish a risk control on post-implementation of ERP in Indonesian industries. This study uses the Define-Measure-Analyze-Improve-Control (DMAIC) approach, Failure Mode and Effect Analysis (FMEA), Performance Evaluation Matrix (PEM), and Quality Function Deployment (QFD) method that involve two expert opinions, 68 respondents. The results of study showed 20 risks beyond the performance zone. QFD method resulted in 5 risk control priorities on ERP post-implementation. 2 LITERATURE REVIEW 2.1 ERP system An ERP system is a suite of integrated software applications used to manage transactions through company-wide business processes, by using a common database, standard procedures and data sharing between and with in functional areas (Aloini, 2012). ERP is one of Information Technology (IT) systems play a significant role in every stage of the supply chain by enabling companies to gather and analyze information (Pairat & Jungthirapanich, 2005). 2.2 Risk after ERP implementation Risk is defined as occurrence of event that has consequences of impacts on a particular project (Kleim & Ludin, 2000). This implies to fundamental characteristics

namely as uncertainty. There are probability the risk may occur result on change business processes which imply substantial losses. Otherwise risk after ERP implementation known in common has impacts or consequences on maintenance, and enhancement of ERP system implementation (Peng & Nunes, 2009). Risks are essentials to human attemptions. Particularly after ERP implementations, user companies may as in certain be confronted with a wide vary of risks when it exploited and optimized the implemented systems.

1 INTRODUCTION

ERP systems are commercial software packages

that enable the integration of transactions oriented

data and business processes throughout an organi

zation (Markus et al., 2000).

Behind the various benefits obtained from ERP,

implementation of this system could endanger the

company due to the nature of complex systems.

The decision to purchase and use of this system

is a critical thing in large range of businesses.

A report entitled “The Standish Group Chaos

Report” said that the success rate of ERP project

only amounted to 16.2%, while 52.7% experienced

project cost overruns, project time overruns and

slightly beyond the benefits and 31.1% of ERP

projects are canceled (Standish Group, 2014). ERP

implementations are often faced with challenges,

difficulties, and problems. If the ERP is success

fully implemented, the stage of “go live” is not the

end of ERP journey. At post-implementation stage,

real challenges will arise and more critical risk can occur (Willis & Willis-Brown, 2002). Unwanted risk after ERP implementation can change the ini tial success of ERP to failure and can also lead to bankruptcy of the company's business.

The objective of this study is to develop risk con trol priorities on ERP post-implementation uses the DMAIC approach. The establishment of priorities is expected to control the risks in order to mini mize the risk and help the company maintain and develop the implementation of the ERP system.

2.3 DMAIC

The DMAIC (Define-Measure-Analyze-Improve Control) is the classic Six Sigma problem-solving process. The DMAIC methodology uses a process step structure. Steps generally are sequential; how ever, some activities from various steps may occur concurrently or may be iterative. The DMAIC five steps are: Define the problem and scope the work effort of the project; Measure the current process or performance; Analyze the current perform ance to isolate the problem; Improve the problem by selecting a solution; and Control the improved process or product performance to ensure the tar gets are met (Hambleton, 2008).

3 METHODOLOGY

This study uses the DMAIC of the Six Sigma

approach in Fig. 1 as follows:

3.1 Define

3.1.1 Define risks after ERP implementation

Risk identification process conducted by the lit

erature. The total of 40 risk events acquired from

risk after ERP implementation ontology (REPO)

(Peng & Nunes, 2009), as shown in Table 1. The

risk ontology of after ERP implementation in four

main categories:

• Operational Risk (OR), occur as operational staffs

use ERP to perform daily business activities.

• Analytical Risk (AR), occur as managers use

ERP to fulfill the analytical tasks.

• Organization-Wide Risk (OWR) risks that may

impact to the entire company • Technical Risk (TR). A group of system that may hinder the ERP system, its meants as functions and performance requirements. 3.2 Measure 3.2.1 Tools 3.2.1.1 FMEA FMEA allows the assessment of potential cause and effects of a failure into product or process. Unlike other procedures for identifying hazards, FMEA can evaluate the criticism of a potential risk, which generates significant implications for risk management in projects. Thus, the identification of “priority risk” of a constraint allows that the stakeholder can adopt the appropriate strategy for defining the response to this risk (Antoniolli et al., 2014). The basic procedure of setting priorities for FMEA improvement is based on the RPN (Risk Priority Number), which in turn is based on multiplying ratios of the three resulting assessment (Chuang, 2010): 1. Severity that the effects of failure modes impact the client (ranging from 1 to 10); 2.

Possibility of occurrence of failure modes (range 1–10); 3. Effectiveness of procedures for the detection of the modes of failure prevention (ranging from 10 to 1) 3.3.1.2 Performance evaluation matrix integrated with FMEA The Performance Evaluation Matrix (PEM) proposed by Lambert and Sharma which as used as a strategy for performance improvement and modified by Lin et al. is used in this research. A PEM composed of severity vs. occurrence, occurrence vs. detection, and severity vs. detection will be applied for explanation (Yang et al., 2006). Different coordinates of performance indices [S, O], [O, D], and [S, D] result in different areas, which will be computed via Equation (1). p i i i y= ( )x- 2 (1) A ±2 standard deviation was used to establish the Upper Control Line (UCL) and the Lower Control Line (LCL) presented as follows: Upper Control Line (UCL) UCL = - Σ 2 4 1 1= 2 ( )-10 - n i j y i j= , n µ (2) Target Value of Center Line T = 0 Lower Control Line (LCL) Figure 1. DMAIC flow chart.

Table 1. Risk in ERP post-implementation ontology (REPO).

Risk Category Risk Event

Operational

Risk (OR) OR 1.1 Operational staffs are not eager to use the ERP system OR 1.2 Operational staffs input wrong data into the system OR 2.1 Sales staffs are not able to obtain data and information they need from the system OR 2.2 Customer info files contained in the ERP system are out-of-date or incomplete OR 3.1 ERP system contains inaccurate supplier records OR 3.2 ERP system contains erroneous or inappropriate bill of materials OR 3.3 ERP system contains incorrect inventory records OR 4.1 Account staffs are not eager to liberate responsibility and to non-account staff OR 4.2 Non-account staffs are unwilling and incapable to take up accounting responsibilities

Analytical

Risk (AR) AR 1.1 Front-line managers refuse to use the ERP system AR 1.2 Managers cannot retrieve relevant and needed information from the system AR 2.1 Sales forecast generated by ERP is inaccurate and inappropriate AR 2.2 Fail to use ERP in predicting actual demands of new products AR 2.3 System fails to support sales staff to tailor special offers to existing customers AR 3.1 Master production schedule generated by the ERP system is inappropriate AR 3.2 System fails to generate appropriate material net requirement plan AR 4.1 Fail to use the system

to generate appropriate financial budgets

Organization-Wide

Risk (OWR) OWR 1.1 Top managers make important IT decisions without consulting to IT experts or system users OWR 1.2 Substantial personnel changes in the top management team OWR 1.3 Support from top managers to ERP post-implementation is insufficient OWR 2.1 IS/ERP development plan is missing, ill-defined or misfit with business strategy OWR 2.2 Direction for ERP improvement and further development is unclear OWR 2.3 Insufficient resources and funds are assigned to ERP training, maintenance and enhancement OWR 3.1 Unsuccessfully form an efficient cross-functional team to review and revise the ERPsystem OWR 3.2 Lose qualified IT/ERP experts OWR 3.3 Lose ERP-related know-how accumulated over time OWR 4.1 ERP users are not receiving sufficient and continuous training OWR 4.2 Users are uncomfortable to use the ERP system (e.g. input or retrieve data) in their daily jobs OWR 4.3 The ERP problems are not gived promptly report OWR 4.4 Data access right to the ERP system is authorized to inappropriate users OWR 4.5 Private data of the system is retrieve by unofficial people OWR 5.1 We cannot receive enough technical support from system vendors OWR 5.2 We cannot receive sufficient and proper consulting advice from system consultants

Technical risk

(TR) TR 1.1 Seamless integration is not achieved between current modules or between current and new modules of our ERP system TR 1.2 ERP system is not able to seamlessly integrate with legacy or new information systems in my company TR 2.1 Infirm data are unautomatically detected into the ERP system TR 2.2 Hardware or software crashes TR 3.1 Technical bugs of our ERP system is not speedily overcome TR 3.2 Outdated and duplicated data of our ERP system is not properly discarded TR 3.3 ERP are improperly modified to new business requirements LCL = - - Σ 2 4 1 1= 2 ( )-10 - n i j y i j= , n μ (3) 3.2.2 Calculate the performance matrix values 3.2.2.1 Sample The sample from this study is a company that has run ERP system at least 2 years after completion of the implementation phase/go live. Total 8 pharmaceutical industries which have implemented ERP system for at least 2 years were selected as research objects. Questionnaires are based on risk after ERP implementation ontology in which it is designed and delivered. Sample for the survey which consists of two types of questionnaires were addressed to two types of

groups of respondents, namely the managerial and operational sides. Therefore, two types of questionnaires, questionnaires A and questionnaires B were sent to each company. Questionnaire A addressed to the managerial, such as operational manager, assistant operational manager, and supervisor to assessed operational, and analytical risks. Meanwhile, questionnaire B addressed to IT managers and ERP users to assessed whole organization and technical risks. A total of 160 questionnaires were distributed, obtained a total of 80 questionnaires were returned and 68 valid questionnaires for further analysis (response rate 43.5%). 3.2.2.2 Calculate the performance matrix values Next, means of severity, occurrence, and controllability of the 40 risks were calculated and rounded generate values S, O, and D as shown in Table 2. The UCL and LCL of ±2 standard deviation can be obtained via Equation (2) and (3) as shown in Table 3. 3.3 Analyze The 40 risks are mapped by Maple 13 in the performance matrix charts of three indices of FMEA, as shown in Fig. 2. After mapping, abnormal coordinates outside UCL and LCL can be obtained. Each abnormal coordinates had a corresponding

Table 3. Coordinates and indices corresponding to the PEM.

Performance

Matrix μ σ UCL LCL UCL Coordinate LCL Coordinate

Severity vs

Occurrence 9 10,17 20,35 -20,35 [14,5108, 0] [0, 14,5108] [10, -4,5108] [-4,5108, 10]

Occurrence vs

Detection 9,075 11,19 22,39 -22,39 [14,7317, 0] [0, 14,7317] [10, -4,7317] [-4,7317, 10]

Severity vs

Detection 1,925 1,90 3,80 -3,80 [11,9506, 0] [0, 11,9506] [10, -1,9506] [-1,9506, 10]

Table 2. ERP post-implementation risk vs SOD

indices.

Risk S O D

OR 1.1 8 9 3

OR 1.2 8 8 5

OR 2.1 7 7 3

OR 2.2 8 3 3

OR 3.1 7 3 3

OR 3.2 8 7 3

OR 3.3 8 6 4

OR 4.1 9 3 3

OR 4.2 8 3 3

AR 1.1 8 1 3

AR 1.2 7 6 5

AR 2.1 7 6 5

AR 2.2 6 6 5

AR 2.3 6 6 5

AR 3.1 7 6 5

AR 3.2 7 6 5

AR 4.1 7 6 5

OWR 1.1 8 3 1

OWR 1.2 6 6 4

OWR 1.3 7 6 2

OWR 2.1 8 6 3

OWR 2.2 6 6 6

OWR 2.3 6 6 3

OWR 3.1 7 5 2

OWR 3.2 7 7 2

OWR 3.3 7 6 2

OWR 4.1 6 4 2

OWR 4.2 6 3 4

OWR 4.3 6 3 2

OWR 4.4 7 2 2

OWR 4.5 8 6 2

OWR 5.1 7 6 2

OWR 5.2 8 7 4

TR 1.1 7 3 4

TR 1.2 6 2 2

TR 2.1 6 2 3

TR 2.2 7 7 3

TR 3.1 7 6 4

TR 3.2 8 4 3

TR 3.3 6 3 4

performance area e for each performance evalu

ation matrix. Abnormal coordinates which are

located beyond UCL have positive value (e+) and

abnormal coordinates which located beyond LCL

have negative value (e-).

Total area e of abnormal coordinates (Ci) can

be obtained by calculating sum of area e for each

matrix. It can be seen that there are 11 risks which

have positive value consist of OR 1.1, OR 1.2, OR

2.1, OR 3.2, OR 3.3, AR 1.2, AR 2.1, AR 3.2, AR

4.1, OWR 2.2, OWR 5.2 and 9 risks which have

negative value consist of OR 4.1, AR 1.1, OWR 1.1, OWR 4.1, OWR 4.3, OWR 4.4, TR 1.2, TR 2.1.

3.4 Improve and control

QFD methods are used next; QFD can be used to determinate priority development of procedures (Dachyar, Omar, & Sena, 2014). Total area e of abnormal coordinates (Ci) would replace the sig nificance/importance weight in QFD table.

Risk controls were defined with literature review and expert opinions. There were 22 controls estab lished that may minimize those risks, they are:

1. Reward and punishment to ERP users;
2. Educating users on the importance of data accuracy and correct data entry procedures and correct data entry procedures;
3. Enhance communication with ERP users;
4. Enhance communication and collaboration across functions;
5. Knowledge sharing among users in the ERP post-implementation;
6. Organizational fit involves match between the actual users and ideal operators required by an ERP system;
7. Enhance communication between the company

and the consultant;

8. Change management and transition

management;

9. Establishment of ERP post-implementation

strategies; 10. Adequate and sustainable training; 11. Periodic system performance review; 12. Top management support; 13. Transactions have required approvals in the workflow; 14. Top leaders allocate sufficient resources to the deployment of the ERP system; 15. Understanding of technology development; 16. Restricting access to change the system, parameters, configurations, customizations, and/or master data; 17. Develop a security infrastructure systems; 18. Develop KPI for ERP system; 19. Enhance data quality; 20. Develop Standard Operation Procedure (SOP); 21. Enhance involvement of managers in the designing ERP; 22. Review security matrix. A correlation development between abnormal risks and risk controls was made. The opinions of experts would be utilized to set up a correlation weighted coefficient in the overlapping matrix. The correlation weighted coefficient (W ij) was measured by a five-point scale. Point 5 stands for extremely strong correlation, 4 for strong correlation, 3 for medium correlation, 2 for weak correlation and 1 for extremely weak correlation. After this coefficient was determined, multiply it with C i corresponding to the abnormal index. The absolute weight (T j) of risk controls could be obtained. The absolute weights are sorted in order and the top five risk controls are selected as follows: adequate and sustainable training, educating users on the importance of data accuracy and correct data entry procedures, develop KPI for ERP system, reward and punishment to ERP users, and enhance communication and collaboration across functions. 4 CONCLUSION DMAIC approach used in this study effectively assesses risk and establishes a risk control

Figure 2. Marked performance matrixes.

priorities. Based on locations of three RPN indices

Severity, Occurrence, and Detection from in per

formance evaluation matrix (PEM) generated 20

risks beyond the control lines.

By extracting QFD which resulted top five

risk controls to minimize risk in ERP post

implementation;

1. Adequate and sustainable training;

2. Educating users on the importance of data

accuracy and correct data entry procedures and

correct data entry procedures;

3. Develop KPI for ERP system;

4. Reward and punishment to ERP users;

5. Enhance communication and collaboration

across functions.

Aloini, D. (2012). Risk assessment in ERP projects. Infor

mation Systems 37: 183–199.

Antoniolli, Pedro Domingos; Argoud, Ana Rita Tiradentes

Terra; Benevides, Gustavo and Pires, Silvio Roberto

Ignacio. (2014). FMEA as a Tool for Managing Risks

in ICT Projects, based on the PMBOK. Asian Journal

of Business and Management Sciences 3(12): 01-24.

Chuang, P. (2010). Incorporating disservice analysis to

enhance perceived service quality. Industrial Manage

ment & Data Systems 110(3): 368-391 Dachyar, M., Omar, M., & Sena, P.A. (2014). Analysis of Satisfaction and Improvement Design of Electronic Insurance Claim Service. Advanced Science Letters 20: 309-311. Hambleton, L. (2008). Treasure chest of six sigma growth methods, tools & best practices: a desk reference book for innovation and growth. United States: John Wait. Kleim, R.L., & Ludin, I.S. (2000). Reducing project risks. Hampshire: Gower Publishing Ltd. Markus, M., Axline, S., Petrie, D., &

Tanis, S. (2000). Learning from adopters experiences with ERP: Problems encountered and success achieved. Journal of Information Technology15: 245-265. Pairat, R., & Jungthirapanich, C. (2005). A Chronological Review of ERP Research: An Analysis of ERP Inception, Evolution, and Direction. Engineering Management Conference. 2005 IEEE International. Peng, G., & Nunes, M. (2009). Surfacing ERP exploitation risks through a risk ontology. Industrial Management and Data Systems 109(7): 926-942 Standish Group. (2014). The Standish Group Report Chaos. Project Smart. Willis, T., & Willis-Brown, A. (2002). Extending the value of ERP. Industrial Management & Data Systems 102(1): 35-38. Yang, et al. (2006). A study on applying FMEA to improving ERP introduction: An example of semiconductor related industries in Taiwan. International. Journal of Quality & Reliability Management 23(3): 298-322.

An implementation model for the healthcare sustainability

C.M. Lopes Machado & A. Scavarda

Federal University of the State of Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Leonardo Baumworcel

Hospital Caxias D'or, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Keywords: sustainability; healthcare; strategic plan

management, establishing organizational standards to meet the internal and external challenges to (or "intending to") good financial performance, environmental, and social. This means preventing the adoption of practices that can lead companies to lead their line of action based on misguided policies [3]. Clearly observed that sustainability involves a review of organizational practices, how to rethink the mission and values of the organization. This reflection requires a more critical behavior, which seeks its legitimacy as an organization, in this regard, these organizations have already implemented a strategic plan as the Balanced Scorecard, to assist in the implementation of the triple bottom line of sustainability [4,5]. Thinking about sustainability is the idea refers to changes in their production processes, where necessary, so that perform their ecologically sustainable activities, thus building production systems that do not cause negative impacts offering products and services that contribute to the improvement of environmental performance consumers and customers [5]. Given the above, it is understood that a sustainable

society is one that does not put at risk the natural resources such as air, water, soil, plant, and animal life. Regarding organization is its ability to have self-sufficiency, and at the same time, concern for the environment, and the welfare of all parties involved. It is necessary to convince people of the importance of changing habits that do not prioritize the environment. Sustainability and its three guidelines should be defined from the institution as a strategic plan. Sustainability should be worked day to day; it has to be a part of the identity of the institution. Thus, the importance of corporate governance structured on good management practices that

1 INTRODUCTION

Sustainability in healthcare is still a new concept and little discussed. However, the business of these institutions generates a large impact on society in the three aspects that guide sustainability: environ mental, economic, and social [1]. According to the World Health Organization, hospitals are respon sible for about 10% of all Brazilian consumption of commercial energy. Hospitals have a great chal lenge to achieve sustainable performance; how ever, it is not only about infrastructure but also on the consciousness of leaders and their teams that engagement is key.

The business sustainability must be based on three basic aspects: environmental, economic, and social [2]. The first variable concerns the rational use of natural resources and maximizing the positive envi ronmental impacts in the life cycle of products, from

the extraction of raw materials to its final disposal. Moreover, the company must also worry about the positive and negative environmental impacts of farm ing [3]. The economic aspect is the sustainability of business enterprises, which must pursue profit and return on capital. The third point takes into account the social responsibility policies. This tripod is what should guide managers of enterprises by promoting interaction with the environment to ensure access of future generations to natural resources; with the market, to preserve competitiveness and business continuity; and its employees, taking into account social responsibility.

First of all, it is necessary to set up a manage ment system, with the policies defined and has clearly established goals. The moment is incorpo rated sustain-ability into the vision and mission of the company, automatically, these three aspects must be considered [2,3]. Sustainable manage ment is the ability of companies to ensure efficient avoid some recommended actions as confusion between individual and corporate, nepotism, con flict of interest, among others. And it encourages the consideration to shareholders and stakehold ers, ethics in business and the respect for the envi

ronment and people [3,4].

Through awareness, the employee realizes the important social role that is, and can even spread the knowledge gained in the corporate environment in the community, engaging friends and relatives of the importance of sustainability. In addition to the numerous advantages, a conscious and willing professional deploy sustainable practices in the company also helps in increasing the profit margin, with the decrease of expenses (such as water and energy, for example) [3,4,5].

Contributes to the promotion of the brand with the social and environmental engagement and are assured of wearing the shirt of a corporation con cerned about their future and the planet.

The objective of this research is to develop a proposal for a model to help in the implementation of health and sustainability to support the three guidelines through an agile management. The methodology used is descriptive. The proposed model helps towards the development of each health strategic plan, contributing to the growth of both institution and community.

This research is divided into seven sections, included this introduction, healthcare system,

balanced scorecard, sustainability, methodol

ogy, model for the healthcare sustainability, and

conclusion.

2 HEALTHCARE SYSTEMS

The healthcare systems are challenged to seek con

sistent and integrated models that can raise the

maximum result and avoid their own or waste gov

ernment resources, which are scarce while raising

the maximum well-being of the population. After

all, this is the goal services in health preservation

of life [6].

The health industry is among the most emit

greenhouse gasses in the world. The US hospitals

spend about $8.5 billion per year on energy, con

suming almost twice as much energy per square

meter than traditional offices. In Brazil, only hos

pitals are responsible for 10.6% of consumption of

commercial use energy in the country.

The activities in health are complex, layered

on top of a production chain that incorporates

sequences of actions defined for the generation

of products/services [7]. Each procedure requires

a specific activity of connection products/services.

Not only the products/services offered in health are

complex involving high-skill, but the inputs used in
production/services are increasingly sophisticated, with

numerous high costs [6]. Faced with this serious providing the health organizations, specifically managers need to know to solve problems clearly and directly. Troubleshooting is the part of decision-making, which is a systematic process that has the focus on the analysis of a difficult situation, solve problems always involves a decision-making stage. The hospital management must have its features to operate with a focus on skills that should be included on the following pillars: planning, organizational structure, employee satisfaction, budget, evaluation of management, availability of feedback, and ethics, taking into account possible contingencies. In this regard, the provision of health service institutions should seek a director, a strategic planning model as Balanced Scorecard that helps to develop a systemic form of strategies making each within the company employed their efforts in achieving the goals set [8,9]. 3 STRATEGIC PLANNING—BSC The Balanced Scorecard was created in 1990, through a study and has since been refined as a tool for management of thousands of companies. This study was carried out in twelve companies to investigate new performance measurement methods [8]. The reason that led Kaplan and Norton to conduct the study was the ineffectiveness of financial performance measures to measure the financial development of them. What realizes was a reversal of importance between two elements. Managers were using a lot of confidence in the financial measures of performance while putting aside the creation of value for products and services [9]. Numerous alternatives were discussed to solve this problem, reaching a viable and innovative solution of a Scorecard, which were the performance measures to translate the company’s activities in a systemic way. Over the following years, several companies have adopted this tool to achieve immediate results. Kaplan and Norton found that those organizations that have adopted the Balanced Scorecard were not just using as measures of financial performance, but also translating their strategies through these measures [9,10]. The Balanced Scorecard was developed to solve measurement problems in that the managers were finding difficulty in indicators and financial measures, as these were limited and may not measure intangible assets, this problem led managers to look for tools that could translate the assets intangible and measure the value added by them in the company [11].

This strategic model is opposed to the tradi

tional model of financial accounting relating to

the result in the short term, with limitations on the ability to measure intangible elements to add value to the company, providing a more secular view of return on investment.

This model comprises four basic perspectives of measuring the results, they are: financial (such as profitability and earnings per share), market (mar ket size, growth assessment participation, customer satisfaction, and customer retention rate), proc esses (efficiency, costs, and services), and learning and growth (training, knowledge management, and future prospects) [10].

According to Kaplan and Norton BSC is a method that helps managers to develop a systemic way strategy making each within the company employed their efforts in achieving the goals set. Indicators are objects created by the system and shall reflect the company's strategy to be used to assist any action in the organization. Thus, the companies will be able to not only create a strategy but also implement them [9,10,11].

Through direct observation in other com panies, Kaplan and Norton concluded that the Balanced Scorecard is no longer a measurement system to become quickly a management system,

with which the executives were not only com
municating the strategy but also making their
management [10]. Balanced Scorecard stands for
three basic functional moments; they are per
formance measurement system, and then as
a strategic management system, and finally how
the system to guide the company’s focus on
strategic [12].

The BSC is a measurement system, and as an
open system that facilitates the consideration of
issues such as sustainability [13].

4 SUSTAINABILITY

Sustainability is a systemic concept, related to the
continuity of economic, social, cultural, and envi
ronmental aspects of human society. Sustainability
is a means of configuring civilization and human
activities so that society, its members, and their
economies can fulfill their needs and express their
greatest potential in the present while preserving
biodiversity and natural ecosystems, planning, and
acting to achieve the indefinite maintenance of
these ideals [13].

Sustainability is divided into three levels: social,
environmental, and economic. As regards the
social aspect, the reference of the development

of human beings, that is, offer a higher quality of

life for the population, ensuring the enjoyment of

human rights for all [14,15]. In environmental terms, refers to the rationalization of natural resources, preservation of natural ecosystems and minimize the volume of waste generated. Regarding the economic aspect, is defined by economic growth steadily and smoothly [16]. Clearly observed that sustainability involves a review of organizational practices, how to rethink the mission and values of the organization. This reflection requires a more critical behavior, which seeks its legitimacy as an organization [15]. Thinking about sustainability is the idea refers to changes in their production processes, where necessary so that perform their ecologically sustainable activities, i.e., building production systems that do not cause negative impacts offering products and services that contribute to the improvement of environmental performance consumers and customers [16]. Sustainability is a process able to keep a positive quality standard perpetually autonomous maintenance. The concept was introduced in the early 1980s by Lester Brown, founder of Worldwatch Institute, which defined sustainable community like that can meet its needs without reducing the opportunities of future generations [14,15]. Given the above, it is understood that a sustainable society is one that does not put at risk the natural resources such as air, water, soil, plant, and animal life. Regarding organization is its ability to have self-sufficiency, and at the same time, concern for the environment, and the welfare of all parties involved. Over the years, the concept of sustainability went through several understandings, but the essence of sustainability involves environmental and social awareness so that sustainable development can only happen through the efforts of the whole society, without the exclusion of any of its segments. Thus, companies develop actions, programs, projects, and strategies for sustainability for the business [15,16,17]. Sustainable development can be seen as a process: it is the political and participatory process that integrates economic, environmental, spatial, social, and cultural, whether collective or individual, with a view to reaching and maintain quality of life, whether in times of availability of resources, whether in periods shortages, with the prospects cooperation and solidarity between peoples and generations. Hospitals constitute as a center of education, training of human resources, and health research. Also, they are places that perform various activities, namely: treatment, teaching, research,

rehabilitation, health promotion, and disease prevention [18]. Faced with this complexity of activities and their scope of work, hospitals present difficulties for sustainable management because adopting practices related to sustainability is a challenge to management.

Whether the hospital belonging to the public

health or private, they is pressed by the need to

adopt practices that make them efficient enough

to ensure its continuity. The management of

resources, whether public or private, require an

increasing concern for sustainability. The devel

opment of effective strategies and environmental

preservation actions should aim at continuing edu

cation process managers, staff, and students about

sustainability [19,20].

5 METHODOLOGY

This research is characterized qualitative. Thus,

the objective of the research forms the part of a

descriptive approach, as well as describing a situ

review was carried out to assist in building the

model.

The objective of this research is to develop a

proposal for a model to help in the implementa

tion of healthcare sustainability and to support the

three guidelines through an agile management.

The business of health organizations generates

a large impact on society by three dimensions:

economic, environmental, and social. Sustainabil
ity and these three dimensions must be defined in
the organization’s policy and strategic planning;
senior management should be directed involved
in them. They should be worked in their day-to
day. The organization must clearly define how
this policy will direct them and the guidelines
and actions for this. The key to the successful
implementation of the BSC and the three pillars
of sustainability is transparency and the involve
ment of all.

6 MODEL FOR THE HEALTHCARE SUSTAINABILITY

The implementation of the BSC in health implies
a profound change in the way the institution is
managed, and its implementation is not a simple
task, as challenges arise even before decide to use
the BSC.

Sustainability should be a concern of organiza
tions since they are strongly influenced by the sur
rounding environment, while simultaneously the
influence is in depth.

For this engagement of all is the key. Engaging
people are one of the great challenges that directly
affects the sustainability of the business. This rela

tionship, people versus organization, has seen major

changes in the structure of organizations. Need to

convince people of the importance of changing

habits whom do not prioritize the environment. Sustainability should be worked day by day, has to be a part of the identity of the institution. The proposed model (Figure 3) is based on five pillars, which aims by engaging everyone in the institution to build a strategic plan aligned in four perspectives of the BSC and together on the three pillars of sustainability. 6.1 Leadership and engagement The company needs to have good communication, to achieve promotion and clarify the principles and values of the company, based on clear goals without detailed rules and budgets. Leaders must provide clear principles and boundaries, bringing people to a common purpose and share values, adopt a leadership style of guidance and support. The BSC helps managers understand the connections within the organization, thus providing a structure that enables what the critical success factors in implementing the strategy, strengthening the decision-making process, and allowing the implementation of its strategy more effectively. 6.2 Strategic plan base Strategic planning aims to incorporate new values to the organization, maximize and aggregate management, new sustainable practices that bring somehow benefit the institutions, and assist in decision making. The planning when well-constructed, prepared, and practiced at full, has the vital power to raise the status of the company, is valid to point out that planning depends on not only the administration but of everyone involved. Strategic planning consists of the detection of positive and negative factors, external and internal that can influence the business. After this survey the rich content is a reference to the establishment of the strategic management model. Clarify and translate the mission, vision, values and strategy in the financial perspective, customer, internal processes, learning, growth strategy map, and the triple bottom line (economic, environmental, and social). 6.3 Align the organization to the strategy Integrate the strategies of both sustainable business units as financial, functional areas, and individuals to institutional strategy. Promote pooling of resources, skills, and knowledge between the different areas of the organization, through meetings, benchmarking. Improve feedback and the strategic learning process that creates tools for organizational learning at the executive level.

6.4 Change the strategy of the entire organization task

Educate all employees of staff of the institution on business concepts and sustainable strategy of the institution. Set individual scorecards from institutional and link the system of reward and remuneration to the achievement of individual and institutional scorecards.

6.5 Convert the strategy a continual process

Periodically evaluate the consistency of competitive strategy both management teams as the operational. Motivate an organizational culture that encourages strategic learning at all levels. Create information that function as mechanisms to expand communi cation and help users to create management reports for the evaluation of performance systems.

By engaging people is a win-win for both the organization and the individual. The engagement is measured when people believe in the goals and values of the institution, or rather the fulfillment of all the strategic plans. When the institution and the employees achieve continuously high performance, high productivity, and high level of engagement (internal and external) can say that the institution has a sustainable strategic plan.

7 CONCLUSION

Health care management is intended to optimize the operation to obtain maximum efficiency regarding the use of the products and services used to achieve the efficiency of processes and to solve the problems identified. In this process, the manager uses knowledge, techniques, and proce dures that allow to drive the operation of services towards the set goals.

The professional, social, and organizational dif ficulty of this area brings a much higher require ment regarding the creation of a management model that is seeking the involvement of all stake holders. The difficulty lies mainly in the multiplic ity of interests that have to be accommodated in the variety of technical specialties involved in the life of a hospital in the permanent coexistence of humans with cultures, backgrounds, and com pletely different backgrounds.

However, if such changes occur, innovation is the key to an active management, in this sense, manage ment should be directed through a strategic plan, which helps to interact in the competitive environ ment and achieve organizational goals, such as the Balanced Scorecard. Thus, search business strategy to not only structure subsidies to transmit the company

9. Qingwei, F., 2012, “Research on Evaluation Index System of Management Effectiveness on Hospital Human Resource Based on Balanced Scorecard”, Procedia Environmental Sciences, 12, 1040-1044.

10. Houck, M., Speaker, P.J., Fleming, A. S., Rilley Jr, R. A., 2012, “The balanced scorecard: Sustainable performance assessment for forensic laboratories”, Science & Justice, 52 (4), 209-216.

11. Handayani, P.W., Hidayanto, A.N., Sandhyaduhit, P.I., Ayuningtyas, D., 2015, “Strategic hospital serv ices quality analysis in Indonesia”. Expert Systems with Applications. 42 (6), 3067-3078.

12. Tseng, S.C. and Hung, S.W., 2014, A strategic deci sion-making model considering the social costs of carbon dioxide emissions for sustainable supply chain management”. Journal of Environmental Management, 133, 315-322.

13. Buys, L., Mengersen, K., Johnson, S., Buuren, N.V., Chauvin, A., 2014, “Creating a Sustainability Score card as a predictive tool for measuring the complex social, economic and environmental impacts of industries, a case study: Assessing the viability and sustainability of the dairy industry”. Journal of Environmental Management, 133, 184-192.

14. Lee, S., Geum, Y., Lee, H., Park, Y., 2012, “Dynamic

and multidimensional measurement of product

service system (PSS) sustainability: a triple bottom line (TBL)-based system dynamics approach", Journal of Cleaner Production, 32, 173–182. 15. Ionita, F., Cioc, M., 2014, "Strategic Management of the Romanian Health System based on Boehm Model: A Conceptual Framework", Procedia– Social and Behavioral Sciences, 124, 432–441. 16. Gimenez, C., Sierra, V., Rodon, J., 2012, "Sustainable operations: Their impact on the triple bottom line, International Journal of Production Economics, 140 (1), 149–159. 17. Infante, C.E.D.C., Mendonça, F.M., Michele, P., 2013, "Triple bottom line analysis of oil and gas industry with multicriteria decision making", Journal of Cleaner Production, 52, 289–300. 18. Borgonovi, E. Compagni, A., 2013, "Sustaining Universal Health Coverage: The Interaction of Social, Political, and Economic Sustainability". Value in Health,16 (1), S34–S38. 19. Lega, F., Prenestini, A., Spurgeon, P., 2013, "Is Management Essential to Improving the Performance and Sustainability of Health Care Systems and Organizations? A Systematic Review and a Roadmap for Future Studies. Value in Health, 16 (1), S46–S51. 20. Podein, R.J., Hernke, M.T., 2010, "Integrating Sustainability and Health Care. Primary Care: Clinics in Office Practice, 37 (1), 137–147.

Monitoring news articles using multi-agent system

D. Derakhshan, S. Christensen, M. Larsen & N. Memon

The Maersk Mc-Kinney Moller Institute, University of Southern Denmark, Odense, Denmark

ABSTRACT: In this paper we present a multi-agent system for monitoring news feeds. A task is defined

as a set of keywords and a set of news websites. In order for the agent to solve a task, the agent must

visit the websites and find relevant articles in reference to the keywords specified in the task. The task is

also provided with expire date, which specifies when the task is no longer relevant. As the agent visits the

websites, it monitors the websites according the relevant articles it has detected. Therefore, a website with

more relevant articles is monitored frequently than websites with less relevant articles. When a relevant

article has been detected, the server will be notified, and the notification will be provided with the title,

description, link and publish date of the relevant article. Only the headline and the brief description of

the article will be scanned for keywords. have to be handled by the proposed prototype. This can be done by comparing the documents word by word and if the match is above some percentage the document is said to be a duplicate document. 1.1 Analysis of keyword detection When determining which news articles are needed to retrieve, some kind of selection method is needed. The simplest is searching the news for specified keywords, and if the news contains these keywords then it is retrieved. Keywords often provide relevant results, and widely used when searching the Internet. The removal of stop words when choosing keywords in a search is important, it should be kept in mind not to use words such as “this”, “that”, “and” etc. These kind of words are known as stop words, and will most likely occur in every single text found, and therefore does not assist in narrowing the results. Sometimes stop words should not be removed, if one is searching for a quote or similar then the stop words are important (Baeza-Yates & Ribeiro-Neto, 1999). 1.1.1 Boolean queries Boolean logic can be used in a keyword query to further enhance the query. Boolean logic enables the user to use “AND”, “OR” or “NOT” in the query. “AND” can be used to specify that both keywords must be present in the text, or can be used to say that at least one of the two keywords should be present. Boolean expressions can be grouped by using parenthesis. “NOT” can be used to say that this keyword should not appear in the text. Normally “NOT” would return all articles not containing the keyword, which is usually not the

1 INTRODUCTION

Today almost every newspaper has a web site, where

news are posted regularly. The news on the websites

are characterized by being short compared to many

news articles in the newspapers, but these short

news often describe current events (breaking news).

Monitoring the short news is useful if one wants to

characterize how a news story is evolving over time.
The purpose of this paper is to gather the news sto
ries from multiple sources, which can be tracked
and correlated by the newly developed prototype.
The obtained news can easily be mined by another
application in order to detect hidden information.
The problem with monitoring the news is that
there are many news sites where news are posted.
Nowadays, most news sites have Rich Site Sum
mary (RSS) feeds available. The RSS feeds make
it easier to retrieve news from many news sites in
a uniform way. But when monitoring hundreds
of news sites, the volume is too much for a single
computer to handle, a way to handle this volume
is to distribute the monitoring task onto several
computers. The RSS feeds provide semi structured
text, in the form of metadata (for example, author,
date, etc.) a headline and content. This means that
the data do not have to be filtered for other irrel
evant data; such as advertisements, or unrelated
text which would normally be the case if retriev
ing HTML documents. Another issue is that the
news articles may come from news agencies. Reu
ters is one of the major news agencies in Europe,
and many Danish newspapers get news from this

agency, therefore many articles on a current event may be the same. Since the RSS feed does not contain metadata about the original source, this will wanted, therefore “NOT” is used to say “but not containing these”.

If one wants to find documents containing the keyword JFK, but do not want the information about the airport then the Boolean logic would be “JFK” NOT “airport”, this will return results about the person JFK, but it will also exclude very relevant information which in some other context contains the word airport. This example clearly illustrates the issues with keyword searches, the computer does not know that the users do not want to read about the JFK airport but is only interested in information about the person JFK.

1.1.2 Keyword distance measuring

To further enhance the query one could add a maximum distance between the words. This will enable the user to construct queries where two keywords should appear close together. Examples of these could be “retrieve” “information” and “web”. If these keywords are used without constraints on how far apart they may be then many irrelevant result will most likely occur. If a constraint to the distance

between the keywords are added, then the possible sentences is reduced to something similar to “retrieve good information from the web” or “retrieve rele vant information on the web” and many other com binations. If keyword distance is applied to the JFK example, it might improve the returned results, for example one could say that the word airport is OK if it appears in the text more than five words from JFK. This leads to very complex queries and these queries can be very time consuming to generate.

1.1.3 Stemming enhancement

Another improvement to keyword detection is the use of stemming. Stemming is the process of find ing the root form of the keyword, and then “gen erates” all the other forms of the root and uses those in the search. This will allow the user to type “run” and automatically also include “runner”, “running”, “runs” and so on in the search. The use of stemming may or may not improve the returned results (Baeza-Yates & Ribeiro-Neto, 1999).

1.1.4 General issues with keyword search

Keyword queries are not questions to the system, so one cannot say “how do I *?” and then expect the search to return the relevant information, but most often it actually does, because the phrase how

do I *? Often appears in forums and such. It does

however require manually digging through the

returned results to find the answer to the original

question. The user basically has to formulate the

query so it contains words that appear in the docu

ments the user wants to find.

Keyword searching is not intelligent, it does not

know what the user is searching for, and it only knows via the formulated query what it should find. In order for the user to find information he or she must first translate the question in a query which can be very hard to do. The paper is organized as follows. We provide the analysis of multi-agent system in Section 2, the description of the proposed prototype is provided in Section 3. In addition the test results of the two case studies are also demonstrated in the Section 3. The discussions are made in Section 4, while Section 5 concludes by highlighting future perspectives. 2 ANALYSIS OF MULTI-AGENT SYSTEM (MAS) In this Section it is described what an agent is and how it is used in a Multi-Agent System (MAS). Also different methods to allocate tasks between the agents are described (Wooldridge, 2009). 2.1 Agent technology The term agent is mostly used in the academic environment. However there is no clear definition of what an agent should have of properties. Agent based systems or MAS has threads to artificial intelligence and is seen as being appropriate for dynamic and heterogeneous systems. The use of agents is a way of simplify centralized systems by dividing it into less and more simpler tasks. Even though there is no common definition of an agent it is a common understanding that the agent must have some degree of autonomy. This means that the agent decides by its self what to do and cannot be forced to do something that it does not want. The decisions the agent is taking are based on the inputs from the environment it is placed in. Even though there is no clear definition of an agent, the definition used by Wooldridge is as follows (Wooldridge, 2009): “An agent is a computer system that is situated in some environment, and that is capable of autonomous action in this environment in order to meet its delegated objectives.” A simple agent could be a thermostat in a room. The thermostat gets input from the environment in form of the

temperature in the room and has the objective goal of keeping a constant temperature. This agent is however not very intelligent. Wooldridge suggests some properties that an intelligent agent can have (Wooldridge, 2009): 1. Reactivity: Intelligent agents react in the form of perceive and response fashion to the alterations that arise in it in order to satisfy the design objectives.

2. Intelligent agents usually able to exhibit behav

ior which is known as goal directed behavior by

taking the initiative in order to satisfy the design

objectives.

3. Intelligent agents are able to capable of act

ing together with the other agents (and per

haps humans) in order to satisfy the design

objectives.

4. Intelligent agents are autonomous and self-di

rected in the way that they decide by themselves

and do not take dictation.

2.2 Multi-agent system (MAS)

To only have and use one agent can be useful. If

many agents are brought together into a system and

getting the chance to interact with each other; the

potential of the agent technology can be exposed.

A MAS can be defined as (Stone & Veloso, 2000)

“Multi-agent Systems (MAS) is the emerging sub

field of AI that aims to provide both principles for

construction of complex systems involving mul

tiple agents and mechanisms for coordination of

independent agent behaviors.”

A MAS system is more than having some agents.

It is also the result the agents are affecting the envi

ronments with its behaviors and the behaviors

from the agent that affects on the environment.

The AEIO paradigm has been introduced by Yves

Demazeau (1995)] where the author describes a

MAS system containing four elements:

MAS = Agents + Environment + Interactions +

Organization

• Agents: When designing a MAS the agent is a crit

ical part and must be taken in account because it

is the agents that must perform the tasks that the

system has to do. The agents must be designed

carefully to the environment it is going to interact

with so the best result will be the outcome.

• Environment: The environment is where the

agents must perform their task. The environ

ment can be in the form of a physical world or

a virtual world. However the agents must be

designed according to the environment.

• Interactions: If the agents must work together,

the interaction between them must be consid

ered. The interactions can be in the form of

negotiation, corporation or any other informa

tion sharing between the agents.

• Organization: Often agents with the same goals

and behaviors will be grouped in some form.

• This leads to many different opportunities to

optimize the agent’s cooperation and other

forms of coordination between the agents. To allocate the different tasks between the agents some different approaches can be used. One is the auction method. Here the agents give a bid on the different tasks and based on the bid a decision to allocate the task to an agent is made. • English: In the English type of auction the agent with the highest bid wins. This approach is straight forward however the bid from the agent can be too high and therefor it is not sure that the bid from the agent will result in the best performance. • Dutch: In the Dutch auction the bidding will only be of one round. This approach is simple and straightforward. The agent with the highest bid wins. • Vickrey auctions: This method is different from the two others. The agents are making their bid secretly. This means that the agents do not know what the other agents have made of bid. It is the agent with the next highest bid that is selected to perform the task. This approach gives the most right bid from the agents because it is not an advantage for them to give a high bid on a task. Even though the auction method to distribute tasks is straight forward it is always necessary to analyze the problem and decide if there is a more appropriate way of performing the allocation of the task between the agents. 2.2.1 Benefits of Multi-agent systems In situations where many different tasks that must be performed individually but still run concurrent with other tasks the MAS programming paradigm is a good approach to solve complicated problems. Because of the high degree of modeling of the system it can easy be implemented to contain many agents without writing more code. A multi-agent system can be used in many applications as in controlling autonomous driving robots or gathering information from the Internet. 2.2.2 Problems with multi-agent systems Even though there are many advantaged in using MAS there are also limits to its performance. Because of the fact that it is software written by humans it is not the solution to all problems and due to the possible difficult implementation there are many other approaches to simpler problems than using a MAS. Just the implementation of getting one agent to work with a second

agent can be a difficult task and time will often go easy.
3 PROPOSED PROTOTYPE In this section, we describe the details of the proposed prototype we have designed and developed. In the following Sections we present further details about the prototype.

3.1 Description of Graphical User Interface (GUI)

To add a new task and see the results given from

the MAS a GUI has been made. In the GUI it is

possible to see the status of how many agents there

are available to the system. Also the information

regarding numbers of tasks running and com

pleted are present. By pressing the green (cross)

button in the left bottom of the GUI, it is possible

to create a new task. The task has to be given a

name and one or more keywords must be added.

In the same process a deadline has to be entered by

pressing OK the task will start and if an agent is

available the agent will perform the task. The result

of the agents work will be seen in the right list of

the GUI. The details are shown in Figure 1.

The prototype is tested using two case studies.

The results from two case studies are analyzed

in order to get an idea about the usability of the

application.

3.1.1 Case study 1: New York city bombing attempt

In this case study, news concerning the New York

City bombing attempt and its link to Pakistan are

wanted. First the keywords are generated, the most obvious is to use “Pakistan” and “NYC” and “ter ror”. The finding index is set to 2, because we are only interested in the words Pakistan and NYC to appear in a news article before we accept it, this might not be a good idea when adding more news sources to the task. The test is run for only 5 minutes due to time constraints and since it is not exactly a current event, but an event that has happened some time ago. The news sources for the agents are listed below:

- http://rss.cnn.com/rss/cnn_world.rss
- http://rss.cnn.com/rss/
- http://rss.news.yahoo.com/rss/terrorism

The keywords are entered into the prototype.

The application in action can be seen in Figure 2, which shows that the agent assigned to the task has found 5 articles so far. Investigating the articles found, 3 out of 5 proved to be relevant. One must keep in mind that the results are dependent on the query made, and not the application self, the old saying garbage in, garbage out is also true here. The query combined with the amount of news sources is the constraining element in the test. 3.1.2 Case study 2: Iran and nuclear controversy This case study shows that it was not just an accident that the first test returned usable results. This time the ongoing Iran and nuclear controversy and threats of further sanctions by the UN (United Nations) are monitored, the test parameters are the same as before, except the keywords has changed, they are now “Iran” and “nuclear” the finding index is set to two so both keywords must appear before the article is returned. The results of the test can be seen in Figure 3. In this case study 3 out of 3 results were relevant to the search. If doing the same keyword search with google news, which is a news service from Google, over 375 articles are

returned, the reason for this is that the Iran nuclear controversy has been going on for many years, and therefore the results will be many, the

Figure 1. Graphical User Interface of MAS. Figure 2. The application running the NYC monitoring task. Figure 3. Results of the search for news about Iran and nuclear weapons.

RSS feeds used by our application often only con

tain news from the past few days, therefore the user

will experience that when monitoring old news that

not many results will return. The application devel

oped is for monitoring current news and not past

news therefore this is expected.

Both case studies have shown that the prototype

is working as expected, when a task is added it is

assigned to an agent which updates the task with

found articles until the task expires. The tests have

also shown that the application is most suited for

current news as intended.

4 DISCUSSIONS

It has been demonstrated that the developed system

can distribute information retrieval tasks between

different agents. These agents will then monitor the

news sites specified in the task for news containing

the keyword(s). As the system is built now, this list is

the same for all agents, meaning that different tasks

cannot be associated with different sets of sites to

monitor. This will lead to problems if the system is

used for many different news domains. If one wants to monitor the political situation in Russia, and also wants to monitor how Paris Hilton is doing, then the sites associated with the task will be the same, but one really wants to define different sites for the two tasks. Even though RSS is very popular in the news community, there are other domains that the agents do not support at this moment, but these domains can obviously be added if necessary. The fact that every task contains the same news sites to monitor, might result in waste of time, since the agents are monitoring news sites which does not contain any relevant articles. However this problem has been partially solved by introducing relevancy visits to the agent, so the agent visits the relevant news sites more often than others.

The system is however because of the archi tecture design, ready for implementing a way to associate different sites for each task. Since each task contains a list of URLs, this list can also be different for each task. The multi-agent based architecture and the sharing of knowledge via the blackboard allows for different types of agents, for example an agent concerned with finding new news sites for use by other agents. An agent that

specifically searches for dark web site could also be developed and seamlessly integrate into the system and share its findings with the rest of the agents. The current monitoring agents can, as mentioned before, be seen as input providers for future text mining agents, which convert the article into useful information. The architecture has been designed with this vision, and this extension can easily be integrated with the MAS. The way the agent determines if an article is relevant, is via a simple keyword matching. This keyword matching is good enough in most cases, if used properly. The agent does not support Boolean logic or stop words or any other keyword search feature. To optimize the resulting set of articles the agent should be able to distinct between different keywords and the importance of those keywords in order to find relevant articles. Another aspect to discuss is the privacy and liberty issues related with this system. This system does not conflict with any human privacy, since the system uses open source intelligence. If the articles conflict with some privacy issues, it is most certain, that this system is not the first node in the chain, since others have leaked the news and this system only finds the news. This system does furthermore not conflict with any legal matters, since it does not conflict with any human rights, or other type of legalities. Moreover it will not make any sense to discuss the false positives and the false negative of the resulting articles, since the system does not text mine the articles, but simply matches its title and description with a set of keywords. If the keywords are not specific enough, the articles the agent will find might not be relevant for the subject that the user is interested in. So it will not make any sense to describe false positives and false negatives, since the output will be depended on the keywords and finding index entered. 5 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK The problem of news monitoring has been analyzed and the system has been designed and implemented. The MAS is designed as a client/server architecture, which enables the system to use many client/agents. The idea of the system was to create a system which distributed the tasks among the available

resources by using the multi Agent paradigm when implementing the system. The task distribution protocol used was the CNet protocol, which enables easy task distribution between agents. However the protocol was not based on auctions as such, since it would not make any sense, because no agents are more suitable than others to solve a task. Therefore the agent which made the first bid would win the contract and thereby the task. The blackboard pattern was used to share common information of interest between the agents and experiments have shown that the protocol as well as the architecture works as intended. Moreover, the agents were able to monitor different websites and with use of the keywords detect potential relevant articles. The keyword detection should be seen as the first generation of this implementation. Future extensions would make the

keyword queries more functional, which would most

likely result in a more relevant set of articles. How

ever the agents favor those websites which has most

relevant articles than those that does not. This also

works as intended so the agent does not waist time

on websites that most likely will not publish any rel

evant articles. The proposed prototype enables the

user to easily monitor specific subjects, and new task

can easily be created once the specifications have

been entered. The prototype is without a doubt the

right paradigm to use when producing the project,

since it works with great satisfaction, while still

keeping in mind that the system is the first version.

In this paper, the prototype is tested using two

case studies. The results from two case studies are

analyzed in order to get an idea about the usability

of the application. The results of the case studies

are exciting and we found that the prototype is

working as expected for the project.

In the current version of the system all the

agents are visiting the same websites independ

ent of the task at hand. However to make the sys

tem more dynamic, an extra feature to the system

could be added. If there were also a monitoring

of new news sites regarding to the specific topic,

it would result in a more dynamic solution. If a

new news site with content related to the specific

topic became public on the Internet, it would then

be automatically added to be monitored by the sys

tem without any human interaction.

In the evaluation of which news that is rel

evant to the system the keywords are taken as a

reference.

Even though it is possible to give a number of

Developer’s perspective on communication issues in prototype

model (case study: Warehouse management system of local agency

for disaster management)

Nur W. Rahayu

Universitas Islam Indonesia, Yogyakarta, Indonesia

ABSTRACT: Using technology to meet user needs in disaster period creates a challenging opportunity

compared with the normal daily life. Having a high-risk

country, Indonesian government encounters

frequent disasters by founding national disaster management authority (called BNPB and BPBD) and

creating a new regulation to utilize technology. A computerized system had been developed to accomplish

its duty to control and distribute logistic and equipment accurately. Observation shows such a difficulty

level for staff to use the system, so we propose a new prototype at province and district level. We capture

requirements inquired by head of warehouse division at province level and logistic administrators at both

level. The web-based prototype has been tested by both developers and users, which resulted well in overall

features. However, the prototype is lack of detail of major feature to serve emergency requests and some

minor features related to item specifications. The root-cause analysis shows both developers and users

communicate well in beginning prototype phase but have less interaction in the late of design phase.

Keywords: warehouse management system; communication; prototype model; logistic and equipment

distribution Using and holding responsibility of domestic and international donation are a part of BNPB duties. Both BNPB and BPBD have also their own warehouses to save logistic and equipment. Common problems arise on the warehouse are inconsistency data between paper and real stock and lack of control to manage the good movements which can lead to misuse. To achieve the goals and overcome those difficulties, a computerized system has been developed to speed up information delivery and carry out internal management for equipment and logistics. Therefore, it has stock search, incoming and out coming items statistics, and province-based stock data. Previous interview in 2014 shows some users' difficulties related to the information system (IS) use at BPBD level. The very detailed steps need to be rearranged to make the system easy to use. To capture users' needs and deliver new approach, a new project has been delivered to build a prototype of similar system at BPBD of Daerah Istimewa

Yogyakarta (DIY) province. Since the project initiative came from developer outside BPBD, the preliminary, design and implementation phase will be a unique challenge. This research tries to capture the details of prototype quality related to communication delivery between developers and users, especially in developer's perspective.

1 INTRODUCTION

Indonesia has high natural disaster risk. Using 28 indicators classified by susceptibility, cop ing capacities, and adaptive capacities, Indonesia has World Risk Index as high as 10.54% (UNU EHS, 2013). Located as a meeting point of Indo-Australia, Euro-Asia, and Pacific Plates, Indo nesia has a broad range of natural disaster risk (BNPB, 2010). Whether it be earthquake, tsunami, eruption, floods, drought or forest fire, the extent of harms are painful and need more attention from government or private agencies.

Indonesian government established Badan Nasional Penanggulangan Bencana (BNPB, Eng lish: National Disaster Management Authority) and Badan Penanggulangan Bencana Daerah (BPPD, English: Local Agency for Disaster Man agement). Having BNPB at national level and BPBD at province and district level, prevention and care of natural disasters are expected to be integrated and fast. However, they still require hard work to develop the boards that are inde

pendent, well coordinated and fully resources. They also need competent employees and quality disaster management policy to deliver their duties and functions effectively (BNPB, 2010).

Communication is a dimension chosen by Hartwick and Bakri to quantify user participation of IS, besides responsibility, relationship of user and IS and daily activities (Hartwick & Barki 2001). Research literature shows user involvement also affects the quality of IS (Sridhar et al. 2010). Moreover, user involvement and user participation make positive correlation to the quality of IS, as high as 92% (Abelein et al. 2013).

This paper is structured as follows: in the next section we present a brief explanation of distribution groove at BPBD and some related works of warehouse system and communication role in IS; next, we outline the research methodology by using model from Hartwick and Bakri work and deliver the detailed features of proposed prototype; and in the last section, we show the result of user testing of prototype and communication activities. We also give some future works of this research in the last section.

2 RESEARCH CONTEXT

The observation takes place in BPBD DIY (prov
ince level) and it sends the logistic and equipment
items to either disaster areas or BPBD at district
level through below mechanism:

1. Provincial BPBD storehouses receive the items.
2. BPBD staffs check the item’s detail, its purpose
and expiry date.
3. The staffs identify the stored items to find the
existed identity number (and increasing its
stock) or obtain a new identity number.
4. BPBD at district level send requests to provin
cial BPBD according to the specified rules.
5. Approved request (by provincial BPBD) will be
followed up by shipment.
6. BPBD could also send the items directly to dis
aster areas as needed as required.

Indonesian government define warehousing IS
related with disaster problems as a system to man
age logistic and equipment as an integrated goods
movement for its receipt, distribution, supply, con
trol, use, removal, and reporting in order to pro
vide base information for decision making (BNPB
2009).

Recently, a computerized system has been devel
oped to maintain BPBD logistic and equipment

stock. Figure 1 shows screenshot of the system,

which relies on Microsoft Excel. BPBD staff use

the system to enter, maintain and check the items.

A final year undergraduate student who has

interest and ability of natural disaster survival pro

posed an improved system as his thesis. Compared

with recent systems, he found some drawbacks,

such as: 1. No reporting feature. 2. Incoming and out coming items are handwritten and monitored by paper use. 3. Lack of stock uses, which can cause human error. 3 RELATED WORKS 3.1 Warehouse management system We have observed several warehouse management systems. The system built for a telecommunication company has features such as booking, rental, items requests, and stock check. While the system developed for public company dealing with aircraft refuelling have some menus of incoming items, out coming items, and stock reporting, another system used by national electricity company has some features such as item requests, item monitoring in rayon area, item searching, and incoming and out coming items. Based on deep reviews, we uncovered similar features among those warehouse systems, which are items requests, incoming and out coming items and also stock check. 3.2 Role of communication in IS success In IS field, user participation is an important factor of IS success, beside the role of stakeholder and agent of change (Markus & Mao 2004). Hartwick and Bakri had been developed four dimensions model to measure the user participation, which are responsibility, user-IS interaction, daily activities, and communication (Hartwick & Barki 2001). Communication itself is defined as information exchange, either formal or informally, which arises among users or among users and stakeholder. It delivers facts, needs, opinion, vision, and some consideration related to IS project. Hartwick and Barki's user participation model consists of 12 questions in communication dimension. It is categorized into communication among Figure 1. Excel based system at BPBD DIY.

users, between user and developer, and also between

participant and management.

4 METHODOLOGY

The developers use prototyping model to build the proposed system, and we apply the model of user participation to capture the communication issues. Developer interviews the Head of Logistic Division and his staff to gather requirement specifications. The information are then translated into object-oriented modelling language and coded into web-based IS. The new system is then delivered to BPBD to be tested using experimental approach. The findings shown in the last section are then discussed to build a better version.

We capture the communication through the project by observing the analysis and design document and interviewing the developer using questions listed in sub category “between user and developer” of Hartwick and Barki’s user participation model, as detailed below:

1. Interview when the project starts: we ask the developer concerning the person in charge at BPBD and their response related to the proposed system.
2. Interview during the project: we ask the developer regarding communication quality between user and developer using four questions in

Hartwick and Barki’s model, i.e.,:

a. The frequency of informal communication.

b. The frequency of fact, opinion, and vision exchange.

c. The occurrence of suggestion or recommendation given by BPBD.

d. The occurrence of suggestion or recommendation supplied by developer.

All of questions are rated using Likert scale

from 1 to 5 (Never, Rarely, Sometimes, Often, and

All-the-time).

3. Interview when the project ends: we ask the

developer to final decision of BPBD, whether

they will be using the newly proposed system or

not.

5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Prototype model

5.1.1 Analysis phase

The developer identified three actors who will use

the proposed system, which is warehouse man

ager at BPBD DIY (as Head of Logistic division),

BPBD administrator at province level (staffs of

Logistic division) and BPBD administrators at district level. The system features many, ranging from items cataloguing to distribution reporting. In detail, the requirements are below: 1. Warehouse manager who is capable to: a. Manage user data (from registration to reporting). b. Receive item reports, either overall or specified by search category. c. Monitor item movement, either regularly or by disaster occurrences. 2. Provincial BPBD Administrator who has the capability to: a. Manage items,

which are including details of their unit. b. Add item receipt using the form and view the result. c. Handle quarantine after checking the items entered into warehouse. d. Add item distribution to share items proportionally and view the status (accepted, pending, or successfully distributed). e. Respond to both internal and external rental by using one of the available statuses (approved, pending, rent, or returned). f. Search item either logistic or equipment. 3. BPBD Administrator at district level who are able to request item when disaster occurs at his area. Full specification of the system needs is illustrated in Figure 2 that is modelled into use case diagram. 5.1.2 Design phase The detailed flows, database, and graphical user interface needed by the prototype are then designed. For example, below is the flow of item receipt: Figure 2. Use case diagram.

1. Items arrive at warehouse.

2. Warehouse staff checks the items.

3. Accepted items will get quarantine status.

4. The condition of quarantined items will be

rechecked for their worthiness.

5. Fine items will be marked OK and sent to logis

tic staff.

6. Logistic staff verifies the items and stores them

to warehouse.

There are 10 relational tables created to accom

modate the prototype’s needs, which are category,

unit, item, quarantine, quarantined_item, request,

detail_request, distribution, distributed_item, and

user. The developer also sketches out more than 30

user interface design to give the details proportion

ally, according to actors and its role.

5.1.3 Prototype testing

The proposed system has been developed using frame work Code Igniter 2.2-stable and its data were stored in MySQL database. At beta testing, the system is assessed using all scenarios described in use case dia gram, which generate successful test result. Figure 3 shows an example of a page owned by Administrator of BPBD related with distribution groove. Editable data in interactive forms are required to maintain users' ease of use since they only need one button click to save all operation needed.

User tests, which are involving three Logistic and Warehouse staffs at April 2015, have shown a posi tive responses because the prototype has met their needs on rental and distribution domains, starting from registration to reporting. On the other hand, the staffs admitted that it lacks of more detailed information of items such as barcode and item's image. Surprisingly, it also needs a new approach of emergency capabilities since it still evolves sev eral steps to accomplish the distribution tasks.

5.2 Communication issues

At the beginning of the project, BPBD asked the developer to carry out the administrative tasks, such as legal permit from the authorities. Finally, the developer got warm welcome and had a chance to ask and correspondence with the Head of Logistics and Emergency Section and one administrator of Goods and Equipment of

Emergency and Logistics Section. During the analysis and design phase of prototyping, the developer gave the document of analysis and design to BPBD and got the feedback informally. The communication takes form of faceto-face meeting. As project initiator, the developer also initiates the formal and informal meetings, so they occur when needed by the developer. It sounds fair, but unexpectedly, in four frequency questions, the developer states that he rarely meets BPBD team, because they are busy persons. We then associate this real situation and the major revision of emergency needs, so we conclude that lack of communication meetings (either formal or informal) could lead to major problem. At the end of the project, we asked the developer whether BPBD would implement the proposed system or not, but he got no clear answer from the BPBD team. But as the undergraduate thesis has been submitted and graded, we doubt that both of developer and users keep in contact after the testing phase. 6 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK The newly proposed system has been developed to facilitate warehouse and logistic division of BPBD to maintain logistic and equipment movement, both in rental and distribution groove. Reports produced by the system are recognized to be beneficial to serve daily operations. But in the last phase, namely testing phase, the emergency needs were not captured in detail at requirement specification phase, so this prototype suffers emergency abilities. To overcome this problem, one additional actor to handle emergency case is needed and then the item specification should be detailed more. We have recognized the communication problem during the project, related to the frequency of formal and informal meetings. We consider the developer more intended on tight schedule of thesis while the users—as busy clients—focused on the flow in general, not in detail. Lessons learned from this case are necessity to maintain the user involvement from the beginning until the end of project, and frequent meetings are required to help developers building best solution as client needed. In order to obtain comprehensive view, further research could gather the objective perspective from all IS stakeholders and compare the situation from many IS cases.

Figure 3. Prototype screenshot.

Abelein, U., Sharp, H., & Paech, B. (2013). Does involv

ing users in software development really influence sys

tem success. IEEE Software, 30, 17-23. doi:10.1109/

MS.2013.124.

BNPB. (2009). Peraturan Kepala BNPB No 06 Tahun

2009 tentang Pedoman Pergudangan.

BNPB. (2010). Rencana Nasional Penanggulangan Ben

cana 2010-2014.

Hartwick, J., & Barki, H. (2001). Communication as

a dimension of user participation. IEEE Transac

tions on Professional Communication, 44, 21-36.

doi:10.1109/47.911130 Markus, M.L., & Mao, J.-Y. (2004). Participation in Development and Implementation—Updating an Old, Tired Concept for Today's IS. Journal of the Association for Information Systems, 5(11), 514-544. doi:10.1097/01.jcp.0000227700.26375.39 Sridhar, V., Nath, D., & Malik, A. (2010). Analysis of User Involvement and Participation on the Quality of IS Planning Projects. Journal of Organizational and End User Computing, 21, 80-98. doi:10.4018/ joeuc.2009070105 UNU-EHS. (2013). World Risk Report 2013 (pp. 1-73). United Nations University.
This page intentionally left blank