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A special issue devoted to

Youth Living in the Marginalised Communities

Guest Editors

Raja Suzana Raja Kasim, Samsudin A. Rahim & Norshuhada Shiratuddin

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The *Introduction* explains the scope and objective of the study in the light of current knowledge on the subject; the *Materials and Methods* describes how the study was conducted; the *Results* section reports what was found in the study; and the *Discussion* section explains meaning and significance of the results and provides suggestions for future directions of research. The manuscript must be prepared according to the Journal's **INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS**.

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3. The chief executive editor, in consultation with the editor-in-chief, examines the reviews and decides whether to reject the manuscript, invite the author(s) to revise and resubmit the manuscript, or seek additional reviews. Final acceptance or rejection rests with the Edito-in-Chief, who reserves the right to refuse any material for publication. In rare instances, the manuscript is accepted with almost no revision. Almost without exception, reviewers' comments (to the author) are forwarded to the author. If a revision is indicated, the editor provides guidelines for attending to the reviewers' suggestions and perhaps additional advice about revising the manuscript.

4. The authors decide whether and how to address the reviewers' comments and criticisms and the editor's concerns. The authors return a revised version of the paper to the chief executive editor along with specific information describing how they have answered' the concerns of the reviewers and the editor, usually in a tabular form. The author(s) may also submit a rebuttal if there is a need especially when the author disagrees with certain comments provided by reviewer(s).

5. The chief executive editor sends the revised paper out for re-review. Typically, at least one of the original reviewers will be asked to examine the article.

6. When the reviewers have completed their work, the chief executive editor in consultation with the editorial board and the editor-in-chief examine their comments and decide whether the paper is ready to be published, needs another round of revisions, or should be rejected.

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   The Publisher ensures that the paper adheres to the correct style (in-text citations, the reference list, and tables are typical areas of concern, clarity, and grammar). The authors are asked to respond to any minor queries by the Publisher. Following these corrections, page proofs are mailed to the corresponding authors for their final approval. At this point, **only essential changes are accepted**. Finally, the article appears in the pages of the Journal and is posted on-line.

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AN INTERNATIONAL PEER-REVIEWED JOURNAL

ABSTRACTING/INDEXING

Pertanika is now over 40 years old; this accumulated knowledge has resulted the journals being indexed in abstracted in SCOPUS (Elsevier), Thomson (ISI) Web of Knowledge [ESCI, BIOSIS & CAB Abstracts], EBSCO & EBSCOhost, ERA, DOAJ, AGRICOLA (National Agric. Library, USA), Cabell's Directories, Google Scholar, MyAIS, Islamic World Science Citation Center (ISC), ASEAN Citation Index (ACI) & Rubriq (Journal Guide).

Preface

Malaysia, as a developing nation, does share some of the characteristics of emerging adults in more developed nations. Currently, 65% of the tertiary-educated population is dominated by females. The average age of marriage is 28 years for males and 26 years for females. The unemployment rate in Malaysia sits low at 3.4%. But, what is of greater concern is that 60% of the unemployed population are those between 15 and 24 years of age. Another surprising fact is that only one in every five degree holders below the age of 25 years is employed even though industries are in search for more talented workers. Entrepreneurship is the alternative in this new economic revolution for young people to earn a living. With the rapid advancement of technology, it was estimated that online business values would increase from RM 2.97 billion in 2013 to RM 22.6 billion in 2020. Malaysia has an Internet penetration rate of 76%. Those between the ages of 15 and 24 years of age represent 48% of the total number of Internet users in Malaysia.

In this period of accelerated evolution, academicians, policy makers and youth workers themselves face many challenges in confronting the emergence of the current generation. There should be a review of policies and programmes to comprehend the issues confronting Malaysian emerging adults. Each successive young generation is different because it develops its subjectivities according to the environment prevailing in its particular time and space. Solely sticking to recycling programmes that were successful in the past will not be in the best interest of the development of the young generation, especially with the changing environment where communication among young people is more horizontal i.e. between youth and youth, rather than vertical as in the past, when emphasis was placed on the flow of ideas and programmes from policy makers and youth workers to targetted youths.

For this special issue of PERTANIKA, we invited authors to discuss and debate the current discourse on issues pertaining to youth in marginalised communities in Malaysia. The 13 articles are from a study called ‘Youth Living in Marginalised Communities: Towards Regenerating Youth Development’, a long research project grant funded by the Ministry of Higher Education, Malaysia.

The first article is titled, ‘Media and Youth Participation in Social and Political Activities: Development of a Survey Instrument and Critical Findings’. In this article, Shiratuddin, N., Hassan, S., Mohd Sani, M. A., Ahmad, M. K., Khalid, K. A., Abdull Rahman, N. L., Abd Rahman Z. S. and Ahmad, N. S. Y. develop and validate instruments measuring three constructs, namely level of youth participation, domains of youth participation and youth perception of media and participation. They concluded that the three constructs were integral components in measuring youth participation in social and political activities.

In the second article, ‘Communication Uses and Influence of Employment Among Youth: The Role of Formal Education’, Tan, S. K., Armum, P., Chokkalingam, A. I., Mohd Meerah, T. S., Halim, L., Osman, K. and Chellappan, K. address the issue of employability. They argue that there are five factors that influence the development of communication skills, namely formal education, family, friends, other individuals and the overall environment. They found that there were differences in how these factors influenced both urban and rural youths in developing their communication skills. Formal education was found to be the most dominant influence in developing communication skills.

Introducing a different angle in youth development is an article by Omar, K. A., Omar, D., Othman, S. and Yusuf, Z. M. called 'The Influence of Physical Environment on the Character of Youths'. The authors provide empirical evidence to prove that outdoor infrastructure and facilities that are very much lacking in the low-income urban community do influence the development of positive character among the youth. The lack of infrastructure also influences their leisure activities, causing them to become inactive at home or loiter around in shopping malls and other public places. The authors suggest that it is important for public authorities to ensure provision of adequate and proper outdoor facilities that can help young people to be productive and innovative.

The article by Iskandar, M. M., Mohamad, N. and Othman, S. addresses the physical activity and the BMI level of youth living in low high-rise apartments in the capital city of Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia in 'Physical Activity and BMI Level of Youth Living in Low-Cost Housing in Kuala Lumpur'. One prominent finding proves that there are significant correlations between physical activity and body mass index (BMI). The study found a low level of physical activity among youths in the obese group. The authors suggest that effort must be taken to encourage this group to engage in physical activities and to lead a healthy lifestyle in order to avoid a higher incidence of obesity and other health problems in later life.

Addressing 'Job Preferences Among Marginalised and Non-Marginalised Youths: A Multi-Ethnic Study in Sabah', Balan R., Samsudin A. R., Soon Singh and Jualiana J. found that young people preferred jobs that offer safety and comfort, their two top priorities, followed by jobs that offer more sustainable career orientation and self-realisation. The least preferred job was the one that offered altruism. However, there were no significant differences in job preferences among the youth in marginalised and non-marginalised communities. Overall, the authors show an increasing interest among youth in non-traditional jobs such as those that result in altruism and self-realisation.

Delving deeper into youth participation, Salman, A., Samsudin A. R. and Yusuf, F. in 'Civic and Political Participation among Youth in Malaysia'' reveal a moderate degree of participation both in the civic and the political spheres. Youth in mainstream communities showed a relatively higher degree of participation compared to their peers in marginalised communities. However, the continuing trend in the overall analysis is that the youth are more willing to be active in civic-related activities as compared to politics-related activities. Additional resources are thus needed for the economic, cultural and social development of the youth in Malaysia to support future trends in participation.

Moving on to another area of interest among the youth, Samsudin, A. R. and Hasan, H. H. in their article 'Digital Engagement: A Preliminary Analysis of Youth in an Information Society', raise the issue of getting positive outcomes from digital engagement. The study found that the majority of young people engage in basic activities such as communicating with friends and uploading and downloading pictures, music or videos. These young people are not highly engaged in intermediate activities such as doing transactions online, filing complaints to local authorities or giving comments on news articles. This group of young people showed much less engagement in advanced activities online such as developing websites for volunteering work or engaging with political parties. They suggested that higher digital engagement could produce higher social returns for individuals as well as for society.

The next three articles are related to the role of social innovation in assisting youth entrepreneurial ventures. Raja Suzana, R. K., Zulazli, H. and Zainuddin, A. in their article 'Social Innovation and Its Influence on Youth Start-up: Marginalised Communities in Malaysia' test a conceptual model using the structural equation model. The authors suggest that social innovation is an important mediating factor in grooming successful entrepreneurs besides building social entrepreneurial traits. The model of social innovation for youth start-ups introduces the concept of social entrepreneurship that promotes creative combiners, carving out spaces in society to foster an overall solution that is developed well enough to frame the social innovation model.

The article 'The Impact of Social Innovation on the Success of an Enterprise: Item Validation' by Zulazli, H., Raja Suzana, R. K., Zainuddin, A., Abang Feizal, A. I., and Mokhtarrudin, A. developed and tested two main constructs, namely elements of social innovation and social innovation outcomes. Reliability of item difficulty and person ability were found to be high. As indicated by the category probability curve, the measurement can estimate young entrepreneurial experience with social innovation and their understanding of social innovation outcomes.

The article 'Modelling Social Innovation for Young Entrepreneurs Living in Marginalised Communities in Malaysia' by Zainuddin, A., Raja Suzana R. K. and Zulazli, H. continues to address social innovation and its contribution to entrepreneurial success. The model focusses on what the non-economic function of social innovation brings to social entrepreneurship. The data indicated that social innovation elements and social innovation phases contribute significantly to social enterprise success. The study concluded that social innovation addresses social issues, which in turn produces social change and raises concerns about non-economic values.

Next, Ahmad, N. S. Y. Syed, M. D. and Sani, M. A. explore youth participation in politics, this time among Japanese youth. Their article titled 'Proclivity of Political Participation among *Wakaidesu* (若いです) Japanese' acknowledged that young Japanese showed little interest in politics since political parties generally do not represent their concerns. Those between 20 and 24 years of age represent only 6% of the voting public. Efforts have been made to bring politicians and young people together to discuss issues affecting them through the establishment of Voter's Bar and YouthCreate, two initiatives intended to boost political awareness and participation among Japanese youth.

'Crowdfunding as a Funding Opportunity for Youth Start-ups in Malaysia,' is the twelfth article, and it highlights the expectations of Malaysian youth start-ups on crowdfunding activities as one of the sources of funding alternatives in assisting them to pursue pre-start-up capitals. The work of Mokhtarrudin, A., Masrurah, I. M. K. and Muhamad, S. C. R. examines the types of crowdfunding model being offered in the Malaysian setting. It further explores which types of crowdfunding model appear to be more suitable for meeting youth pre-start-up capital needs. The overarching impression is that Malaysia, despite being the first ASEAN country with its own legal framework on crowdfunding, is focussed merely on equity crowdfunding. Within the context of youth start-ups, the results indicated that youth prefer donation-based and reward-based crowdfunding.

In the last article, entitled, 'Neighbourhood Social Capital and Neighbourhood Safety in Predicting the Subjective Well-Being of Young Malaysians', Chong, S. T., Koh, D., Fauziah, I. and Samsudin, A. R. report on the value of youthful wellbeing. The article focusses on social capital as an attribute of communities, mainly stressing on two elements, trust and reciprocity. Social capital can be developed into three types: bonding social capital, bridging social capital and linking social capital. While there are traditional sources for acquiring social capital such as schools, families, religious institutions and youth clubs, the present generation of young people have the online medium as a new public sphere to get connected to the vast resources of 'new friends'. In facing new challenges and risks, acquiring new social capital is important for safeguarding their well-being. The articles further explore the role of perceived neighbourhood safety as a mediator to neighbourhood social capital and subjective well-being.

Our deepest gratitude goes to Dr. Nayan Kanwal of the Journal Division, Pertanika, Universiti Putra Malaysia, whom we have had the chance to meet, for his wisdom and valuable advice especially during the early stages of our learning process. Through this experience, we have been able to deepen our knowledge of the demanding process of publishing a Special Issue with Pertanika.

Guest Editors:

Raja Suzana Raja Kasim (*Prof. Dr.*)
Samsudin A. Rahim (*Prof. Emeritus Dr.*)

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Media and Youth Participation in Social and Political Activities: Development of a Survey Instrument and Its Critical Findings

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ABSTRACT

The importance of youth participation in the decision-making process in nation building should not be underestimated. Studies have shown that youth in marginalised communities lack opportunities for engagement in the democratic process. However, today's rapidly-advancing media technology provides an opportunity for the authorities to tackle this problem. This research investigates how participation of youth in marginalised communities can be increased through the use of media. The researchers developed an instrument to measure the participation of youth in the decision-making process via different media. This paper presents the instrumentation process and items used for such purpose. The tested instrument is called 'Measure of Media and Youth Participation in Social and Political Activities'. It consists of five sections, which are (a) Demography, (b) Media use, (c) Level of youth participation, (d) Domain of youth participation, and (e) Youth perception of media and participation.

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INTRODUCTION

Studies have shown that the majority of youth do not enjoy full citizenship rights due to their inability to exercise their full rights as citizens to participate, voice opinions and influence decisions on issues affecting the nation. Furthermore, studies have shown that the roles of media, in particular new media, have changed the way citizens exercise their rights and participate in civil society. As such, there is a need to study the important roles of media in empowering youth to engage more fully in nation building. Efforts have to be undertaken to ensure that various authorities and institutions support and engage youth, particularly those who come from marginalised communities, to utilise various types of media positively as tools to facilitate their participation.

To address these issues, this research was conducted to identify ways to increase the participation of youth in the nation's social and political agenda at national and regional levels through utilisation of media. Specifically, this project attempted to identify the current status of youth participation in the country and to determine the ideal roles of marginalised youth participation in social and political settings. In addition, the project aimed to reveal the existing and changing participation norms of marginalised youth, to implement strategies and programmes that promote marginalised youth participation in schools, communities and the government's transformation plan by utilising various media tools that are managed and produced by youths and to develop and propose specific policies and good practices in media use in support of youth participation. This paper describes the initial stage of this ongoing project. An instrument was developed to identify the current status of youth participation in the country and to determine the ideal roles of marginalised youth participation in social and political settings.

Youth and Media Participation

Youth aged between 15 and 25 years make up half the world's population. Date released by the UN data in 2012 showed that this age group, particularly those who were marginalised were jobless, under-employed and excluded from social and economic opportunities. Their participation in nation building, the political process and civic engagement were considerably low; thus, many local youths do not enjoy full citizenship rights (UNDP, 2012; Golombek, 2002). This young generation is now demanding equality to exercise their full rights as citizens to participate, voice opinions and influence decisions on issues affecting the nation. They want more participation and consultation in the national agenda, particularly where educational, political and economic issues are concerned.

Youth participation has many benefits. In general, such participation should be encouraged as it promotes confidence and self-esteem in youth and it provides opportunities for youth to learn and practise their negotiation, planning, reporting and communication skills, which they will need in their future roles. The most important benefit would be that it offers young people the chance to develop their decision-making and problem-solving skills. This may ensure that more appropriate decisions are made.

Scholars have argued that in order for a civil society to function well, it needs to be assisted by the media (Habermas, 1987). The current revolution in the media industry has created a new public sphere for public deliberation. The new media, in particular, have changed the way citizens exercise their rights and have strengthened civil movements to the extent of transforming public opinion. As such, efforts must be undertaken to ensure that the various authorities and institutions support and engage our youth in utilising the various types of media positively as tools to facilitate their participation.

Realising the importance of the role of media and their impact on youth participation, steps need to be taken to ensure that youth, in particular, the marginalised groups, are being consulted and represented and their voices are constantly being heard. This research attempted to answer several research questions: 1. What does youth participation mean in the context of the marginalised groups? and; 2. How can the various forms of media be utilised to enhance marginalised youth participation in the nation-building process?

Youth development, however, is facing challenges and contradictions. In one aspect, the youth are recognised as a national asset (Nadchatram, 2007) that will determine the future progress of the nation. In another context, the youth are labelled an immature group that constantly challenges the norms of society, which has led to their being denied their social responsibility. Welch, Price and Yankey (2002) and Minehbo and Eggermont (2007) argued that media portrayal of youth in a consistently negative fashion further accentuates this contradiction. Youths are pictured as problematic and frequently involved in negative acts without being given equal credit for their potential. According to Penuel (1995, p.1), "regardless of competence, youths are constructed in our society as immature and manipulatable for the purposes of development."

In general, not much effort has been focussed on overcoming problems of youth-at-risk (Rahim, 2010). Most of the current youth developmental programmes target all levels of youth in society. Nothing has been created specifically for local youth-at-risk. By ignoring youth-at-risk, the nation loses out in terms of reaping hidden potential found in approximately one million of its youths between the ages of 15 and 24 years, who may be hugely beneficial to nation building. In general, the profile of at-risk youth in Malaysia (Rahim, 1995; Ismail, 2007) is coming from low-waged families who are not emotionally supportive and living in unsatisfactory conditions. In addition, they are not supervised properly by their parents on activities that they are involved in, deficient in social skills, without a suitable role model and have low aspiration, emotional control and self-esteem.

The above profile substantiates the findings that at-risk youth are marginalised i.e. from the low socio-economic group. Based on family socio-economic standings, there is a probability that this young generation may be deprived of realising its true potential. Contributing to this hindrance is the lack of resources in the families of the youth owing to lacking affordability, low personal aspiration and self-esteem as well as the dire lack of youth development approaches that emphasise the importance of this minority marginalised group.

Instrument Development

The questionnaire survey is commonly used as a data collection method particularly for a social science discipline. It allows researchers to obtain various sets of information regarding knowledge, opinion, attitude, facts and behaviour (Robson, 2002). This study employed a questionnaire survey in order to identify the current status of youth participation in social and political processes through the use of media. The five steps of developing and testing questionnaires proposed by Radhakrisna (2007) were followed through. They are outlined below.

Step 1: Background. In this step, the purposes or goals of the questionnaire survey are determined. In the context of this study, the questionnaire was developed to identify the current status of marginalised youth participation in social and political processes through the use of media. Apart from goals, the target population, timing and mode of the survey were also specified.

Step 2: Conceptualisation. This is the step where the statements and questions are generated to reflect the objective of the study. Measures used and variables involved are also determined in this step. The questionnaires in this study covered four main sections as follows:

a) Demographic information
This information is important to ensure that the respondents indeed belong to the target population. In this study, some commonly used demographic items in many studies (e.g. Kreutzer, 2009; Baboo, 2013; Hassan, Shiratuddin, Sakdan, Hashim & Sajat, 2009) were employed. They included age, gender, race, education, employment status, income level (personal and family), type of accommodation and neighbourhood location.

b) Media use
The items for this section were adapted from Baboo (2013), Kreutzer (2009) and Young (2012), which are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Basis for questionnaire items for media use

Researchers		Media use items
Baboo (2013)	a)	Media devices used – e.g. computer/laptop/notebook, tablet/iPAd, TV, mobile/smart phone, audio devices (ipod, MP3), DVD player, game console (PS. Xbox, Wii etc.), radio, others.
	b)	Media devices owned – e.g. computer/laptop/notebook, tablet/iPAd, TV, mobile/smart phone, audio devices (ipod, MP3), DVD player, game console (PS. Xbox, Wii etc.), radio, others.

Table 1
Basis for questionnaire items for media use (continue)

Researchers		Media use items
Kreutzer (2009)	a)	Media devices used (similar to the above)
	b)	Internet usage (frequency, technology used, for what purposes)
	c)	Usage of SM (what are SM uses and for what purposes)
	d)	How and where participants get news from
Cohen & Kahne (2012)	a)	Access to digital technology – i.e. at home, college/ university, cyber cafes, *Pusat Internet Desa*, others
	b)	Types of media used – i.e. conventional and/or Internet-based
	c)	Source of news – newspaper, TV/radio (broadcast or online), tweets, Facebook posts, blogs, YouTube posts
	d)	Types of participation – friendship-driven (Sharing links or forwarding information through Social Network Services like Twitter or Facebook, sending messages, sharing status updates or chatting online using Social Network Services like Twitter or Facebook) or interest-driven (Post an online comment, review or critique of someone else's media/post, link to or forward information related to your interests, give help, advice or suggestions to others related your interests, use the Internet to organise an online group, discussion or website, participate in a game community, guild, competition etc./participate in an online forum or group related to your interests)
Young (2012)	a)	Resources and capacity to use Internet and SM
	b)	Purpose of SM use
	c)	Types of content shared in SM
	d)	Satisfaction with SM

c) Engagement in social and political processes

The items were aimed at gathering information about youth involvement in social and political activities through the use of media. Items developed by Cohen and Kahne (2012) and Hassan et al. (2009) were adapted due to their suitability to the context of this study. These are presented in Table 2.

Table 2
Basis for questionnaire items for engagement in social and political process

Researchers		Items for youth engagement in social and political activities
Cohen & Kahne (2012)	Engagement in social and political activities: Online and/or offline activities Participatory activities:	
	a)	Exercised voting rights in general election/election at academic institution, local communities, societies and clubs)
	b)	Started or joined a political group on a social network site (like MySpace or Facebook)

Table 2
Basis for questionnaire items for engagement in social and political process (continue)

Researchers	Items for youth engagement in social and political activities
	c) Forwarded or posted someone else's political commentary or news related to a political campaign, candidate or issue
	d) Contributed own article, opinion piece, picture or video about a political campaign, candidate or issue to an online news site
	e) Forwarded or circulated funny videos or cartoons or circulated something artistic that related to a political candidate, campaign or political issues
	f) Commented on a news story or blog about a political campaign, candidate or issue
	g) Wrote an e-mail or blog about a political campaign, candidate or issue
	h) Took part in a protest, demonstration or sit-in
	i) Participated in a boycott or signed petitions
	j) Participated in an event where young people expressed their political views (such as a poetry slam, musical event etc.)
	k) Was active in or joined a group that worked to address social or political issues
Hassan et al. (2009)	Role of participants while using media (follower/contributor/observer/others)

d) Perception of the role and impact of social media on youth engagement in social and political processes

These items were intended to gather information on the perception of respondents regarding the role and impact of social media on youth engagement in social and political processes. This issue is equally important as the rest and should not be underestimated as evidenced by several studies such as Hassan et al. (2009). Three items used in this section are listed below:

i. Whether respondents can use social media to enable sharing of ideas with their friends and families regarding social and political issues

ii. Whether respondents can share or exchange interesting pictures/video clips of political leaders

iii. Whether social media allow respondents to voice out their grievances regarding social and political issues

Conceptualisation of youth perception was completed through three focus group sessions, in which 18 youths of different races and backgrounds were involved. The objectives of the focus group sessions were:

i. To understand how youth conceptualise 'participation'

ii. To identify their participation domain (the specific political and social aspects)

iii. To understand how they get involved (participate) in their roles

iv. To explore what the media push factors and restrictions are in exercising their political and social participation

Table 3 lists the main findings of the analysis.

Table 3
Basis for youth perception items

Objectives of focus groups	Youth feedback
Cohen & Kahne (2012)	Focus Group 1:
Understand how youth conceptualise 'participation'	a) Concern about issues related to own community
	b) Gather information and news on things that affect own lives
	c) Sharing information on things in the interest of peers and family members
	d) Discuss government policies that affect them directly
	Focus Group 2
	a) Individual role, as students strive towards academic achievement; through the achievement, they may contribute to national development in their area of expertise
	b) Making the idea of *modal insan* (human capital) a successful agendum
	c) Discuss national issues among peers
	d) Help to distribute flyers, pamphlets or leaflets regarding issues that are in the public interest
	e) Fight for minorities
	Focus Group 3
	a) Get to know community issues
	b) Gather information from the Internet and social media
	c) Express one's rights
	d) Express one's thoughts, opinion and ideas
	e) Freedom of expression with limitations
	f) Criticise or provide feedback to the authorities
Identify their participation domain (the specific political, social & economic aspects)	Focus Group 1
	a) Graduate employment
	b) Rising cost of living
	c) Education system
	d) GST
	e) Racial unity
	f) Political democracy
	g) Good governance of authorising agencies
	Focus Group 2
	a) The rights of minorities in Sabah and Sarawak
	b) Religious, moral, values – social illness
	c) GST

Table 3
Basis for youth perception items (continue)

Objectives of focus groups	Youth feedback
	d) Housing for young people
	e) Rising cost of living
	f) Crime
	g) Corruption among enforcement agencies
	h) Political democracy
	i) Media and information freedom
	j) Education policies and system
	k) Racial unity
	Focus Group 3
	a) GST
	b) Economy
	c) Cost of living
	d) Good governance
	e) Effective government
	f) Religious, moral, values
	g) Culture
	h) Politics – democracy
	i) Employability/Employment
	j) Security
	k) Social illness
	l) Education system
Understand how they get involved (participate) in their roles	Focus Group 1
	a) Using the Internet to get information about current issues
	b) Reading news (digital) and info from social media (Facebook)
	c) Gather information from mass media (radio, television, newspapers, magazine)
	d) Sharing info from social media with friends via social network
	e) Sharing info from social media via interpersonal communication
	f) Graduate services activities
	g) University community programme
	h) Academic (class project/assignment) activity at community level
	Focus Group 2
	a) Involved in community-based activities
	b) Gather information from social media
	c) Share posting/information via social media
	d) Like Facebook posting
	e) Create posting via social media
	f) Follow public opinion on Facebook, Twitter, Instagram
	g) Retweet in Twitter

Table 3
Basis for youth perception items (continue)

Objectives of focus groups	Youth feedback
	h) Watching TV news
	i) Reading newspapers
	j) Co-organise community programmes with organisations
	k) Plan to establish organisations to resolve racial issues
	l) Practise non-biased political thinking/perception
	Focus Group 3
	a) Generally keep up with the news
	b) Gather interested issues/information from the Internet and social media
	c) Share posting/information via social media
	d) Like Facebook posting
	e) Share Facebook posting/Retweet
	f) Utilise knowledge as student to get better understanding on area of interest
	g) Run a social media-based project on sexual security
	h) Do posting on topics of interest
	i) Involved in student society activities to promote law awareness
	j) Become volunteers in breast cancer campaign
	k) Involved in charity activities
	l) Using YouTube to boost charity activities
	m) Volunteer in educational non-profit organisation
Explore what media push factors and restrictions are in exercising their political, social and economic participation	Focus Group 1
	a) Information from mass media is not really objective
	b) Using the Internet to gather information
	c) Smart phone is the best medium for youngsters to get and share information
	d) Prefer media that are trendy and mobile for communication
	e) Social media are the best media they make sharing easier
	f) Using new media will make political participation more comfortable (without needing to physically participate in events such as *ceramah* (talks), rallies or gatherings)
	Focus Group 2
	a) Who are we to get attention from mass media?
	b) We can use new media to voice our opinion or to make people aware about something
	c) Mass media are controlled by certain people/groups
	d) Mass media information is more trusted
	e) Social media are trendy to youngsters
	f) Smart phones provide the best platform for many kinds of channel (website, social networking, TV, radio, newspaper)
	Focus Group 3
	a) Malaysia has placed some restriction on freedom of speech laws/policy

Table 3
Basis for youth perception items (continue)

Objectives of focus groups		Youth feedback
	b)	There are limits/boundaries to certain aspects when dealing with race, religion and politics
	c)	New media (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, YouTube, blogs) is an ideal platform for participation
	d)	Social media is trendy to youngsters as a participation mechanism
	e)	Smart phones provide the best platform for many kinds of channels (website, social networking, TV, radio, newspaper)
	f)	Smart-phone subsidies for youth can become a catalyst of youth involvement
	g)	A stop to smart-phone subsidies could hinder youth participation
	h)	The government should have more platforms to promote youth involvement
	i)	Any policy should get involvement and feedback from youth

Step 3: Formatting and Data Analysis. Step 3 focussed mainly on phrasing the questions, selecting scales of measurement, layout and format, grouping and ordering questions, formatting, writing a cover letter and identifying the proposed data analysis procedure.

Step 4: Establish Validity. Once steps 1 to 3 were completed, the questionnaire should be evaluated for validity by a panel of experts. Validity refers to the amount of systematic or built-in error in measurement (Norlan, 1990). For this purpose, three experts were selected to vet the questionnaires in terms of construct and face validity. A preliminary data collection was also conducted to establish whether responses to the items were applicable to the potential respondents. For this, data were collected from 80 youths. Next, a number of changes were made prior to developing the final version of the instrument.

Step 5: Establish Reliability. Reliability relates to the accuracy of the measuring instrument (Norlan, 1990). In this final step, a pilot test is carried out to measure the reliability. A group of youth participated in this pilot test. The tested instrument is called 'Measure of Media and Youth Participation in Social and Political Activities'. It consists of five sections, which are, (a) Demography, (b) Media use, (c) Level of youth participation, (d) Domain of youth participation, and (e) Youth perception of media and participation.

Establishing Instrument Reliability

The pilot instrument was administered to 100 youths. However, only the responses of 90 were usable and these were utilised to calculate the reliability measures. The respondents represented all age groups of youth (15 to 25 years old). Part A, 'Demography', consisted of 11 items.

Firstly, for types of neighbourhood, it was found that the majority of the respondents' homes were located within traditional villages (27.0%) and land planning areas (31.0%). Others lived in flats (22%), Chinese new villages (10%), low-cost housing areas (8%), estate (1%) and squatters (1%). Most of the respondents were between 19 and 20 years of age (28.0%), while the others were between 21 and 22 years old (27.0%). The group was divided equally in terms of gender (50% male, 50% female). As for the respondents' ethnicity, most were Malay (87.0%) followed by Chinese (4.0%), Indian (7.0%) and Iban (2.0%). In terms of religion, the majority of the respondents were Muslim (88.0%), followed by Christian (2.0%), Buddhist (4.0%) and Hindu (6.0%). The respondents also came from different educational backgrounds. The majority of the respondents had achieved either the level of SPM (47.0%) or a Bachelor's degree (44.0%). Most of the respondents were from families that comprised four to six members (48.0%). Additionally, 83% of the respondents were living in a household that consisted of only one family. Note however that the remaining respondents (13%) were living together in a household with two families. Next, employment status and household income level of the respondents were assessed. It can be seen clearly that most of the respondents (72.0%) were still receiving formal education at either secondary school or institutes of higher education. Nonetheless, 10.0% of the respondents were currently employed. In terms of household income status, the majority of the respondents earned between RM 1,001 and RM 1,500 (30.0%), while 28.0% belonged to the income group of RM 1,501-RM 2,000 and only 10.0% of the respondents earned more than RM 3,501. The results also showed that the respondents lived in houses owned by their parents (66.0%), while the rest (34.0%) lived in rented houses.

In Part B of the questionnaire on Media use, for 'Type and frequency of media used', the results showed that most respondents used mobile phones (54.4%) and computers (33.3%) frequently. The result also showed that the importance of conventional media such as TV, newspapers and radio should not be underestimated as a substantial number of the respondents still used them frequently or occasionally. Details are presented in Table 4. Further, the results showed that the respondents used multiple methods to get access to the Internet. Unsurprisingly, the top three methods used by respondents were via the use of computer at home (61.0%), mobile/smart phones/portable wifi/broadband (61.0%) and computer at the work place or place of study (47.0%). For 'Role when using social media', the results revealed that the respondents played different roles when using social media. Most of the time, the respondents played the role of either observer (80.0%) or follower (62.0%). Not many of them were willing to become contributors (27.0%) or entrepreneurs (12.0%).

Table 4
Type and frequency of media used

Type of media	Frequency of use				
	Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Frequently	Highly Frequently
Computer/notebook/laptop	6	11	28	15	30
Tablet/iPad/iPod	20	25	17	14	14
Mobile/Smart Phones	7	4	15	15	49
TV	8	9	34	26	13
Radio	13	26	32	14	5
Newspapers	15	34	27	11	3
Magazines	17	31	29	7	6

The respondents also provided feedback regarding the most popular social media tools they used and their frequency of using them. The results showed that there were at least seven major social media tools used by the respondents, which are Facebook, WhatsApp, Instagram, YouTube, WeChat, Google+ and Twitter. Among these, Facebook and WhatsApp were the most popular tools, with more than 50% of the respondents using them highly frequently. For ‘Purposes of using new media/social media’, the respondents gave various reasons and purposes (see Table 5). The top five purposes as identified in this pilot study were to get in touch with friends and families, to share knowledge and expertise with others, to get information and latest

Table 5
Purposes of using new media/social media

	Purposes	Yes	No
1.	To document and share personal experience with others	40	50
2.	To get in touch with friends and family	67	23
3.	To share knowledge and expertise with others	53	36
4.	To encourage people to take action on certain issues	31	59
5.	To influence the way people think	19	71
6.	To build a network and meet new friends	44	46
7.	To generate income via business	14	76
8.	To get recognition and increase reputation	14	76
9.	To explore and build confidence and self-belief	25	65
10.	To act as a platform for mind development (including learning and revision)	35	55
11.	To enhance creativity	26	64
12.	To get feedback about products or services	31	59
13.	To get information and latest news	50	40
14.	To act as a hobby during free time	49	41
15.	Others	5	83

news, to act as a hobby during free time and to build networks and meet new friends. Despite slight variations in the results, the findings highlight the potential role of social media as a tool for youth to engage in the decision-making process concerning social affairs, politics and the economy.

In Part C, 'Level of youth participation', the respondents were asked about their involvement in social, political and economic activities. There were 14 items in this section (refer to Table 6) using a 5-point Likert scale for responses i.e. never (1), rarely (2), occasionally (3), frequently (4) and highly frequently (5). The results showed that the respondents were not actively involved in all 10 activities where the mean scores for all these items were below 3.0. The activities which received the highest mean scores for respondent activities included accessing social media to learn about social/political/economic issues (mean=3.04) and sharing issues with others (mean=3.03). These findings could be an eye opener to the government and relevant agencies because of the low level of respondent involvement in social and political activities. Intervention and awareness programmes should be introduced to increase youth engagement in these activities.

Table 6
Social and political activities among youth

	Activities	Mean	SD
1.	Share current news/information/opinions via social media with family/friends on social/political/economic issues	3.02	1.32
2.	Obtain information about social/politics/economic issues	3.02	1.06
3.	Organise activities that help local society	2.38	1.09
4.	Follow social activities while at school/college/university/working place	2.90	1.09
5.	Spread messages/comments/articles on social/politics/economic issues	2.66	1.19
6.	Follow news of current issues in and outside country	3.02	1.02
7.	Volunteer to help society	2.66	1.10
8.	Contribute energy, ideas and money in empowering youth activities	2.53	1.27
9.	Get involved in community activities organised by other parties/government/NGO	2.50	1.26
10.	Write own blog about social/political/economic issues	2.14	1.16
11.	Share the latest issues with others	3.03	1.20
12.	Access social media to know about social/political/economic issues	3.04	1.15
13.	Disseminate information about social event/programmes such as political/religious talks/sports/communal work	2.72	1.20
14.	Participate in event/programme where I can express opinion on social/political/economic issues	2.62	1.30

In Part D, 'Domain of youth participation', the respondents were required to indicate their responses. The responses were based on a 5-point Likert scale i.e. never (1) rarely (2), occasionally (3), frequently (4) and very frequently (5). The results, presented in Table 7, showed that most respondents were interested in information about social problems (such as abandoned babies and drugs) with a mean of 3.19. The other domains that interest the youth most are the national education system, racial unity, freedom of the press and career and employment, in that order.

Table 7
Domain of youth participation

	Activities	Mean	SD
1.	Career/employment	2.92	1.38
2.	National security	2.50	1.16
3.	Corruption/abuse of power authority	2.40	1.23
4.	Freedom of speech	2.66	1.24
5.	Racial unity in Malaysia	2.97	1.08
6.	Efficient administration and accountable government	2.69	1.19
7.	The increase in cost of living	2.79	1.20
8.	National education system	3.09	1.13
9.	Social problems (such as abandoned babies, illegal street racing, drugs)	3.19	1.32
10.	Freedom of the press	2.97	1.19
11.	The issue of crime (such as robbery, theft, rape, murder)	2.92	1.19
12.	Rights/interests of certain	2.87	1.15
13.	Cost/price of buying a home	2.64	1.25

Part E, 'Youth perception of media and participation', presented the results of the respondents' perception of the role of new media and social media. Fifteen items were included in this section and responses were based on a 5-point Likert scale i.e. strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), slightly disagree (3), agree (4) and strongly agree (5).

From the results presented in Table 8, most respondents agreed to the statement that youth in Malaysia prefer to use new media compared to conventional media (mean=3.90, SD=1.13). Findings also showed that smart phones gave them convenience (mean=3.78, SD=1.12) and sharing of information became easier and more attractive with social/new media (mean=3.58, SD=1.00); however, information through conventional media was still believed to be more reliable than that from new/social media (mean=3.36, SD=1.00). Interestingly, many believed the information through new/social media was dubious. The youth did not agree that currently new/social media provided space for one to express dissatisfaction about current issues on governmental or non-governmental entities (mean=2.97, SD=1.12). Therefore, they believed that they required special space and programmes through new/social media to enable them to participate and give opinions on the

Table 8
Perception of the role of new media and social media

	Activities	Mean	SD
1.	New media is the choice of youth today	3.90	1.13
2.	The use of new media and social media has potential to contribute to the sensitive issues related to religion, culture and race	3.46	1.00
3.	I am more convinced of the truth of information through conventional media	3.18	0.91
4.	The use of smart phones provides convenience in doing work, in getting information and in communicating	3.78	1.12
5.	Conventional media pay less attention to youth	3.04	1.09
6.	Sharing of information becomes easier/more comfortable/more attractive through new media/social	3.58	1.00
7.	Conventional media content is controlled and censored more	3.21	1.00
8.	Much of the information through new/social media is dubious	3.32	1.07
9.	Information through conventional media is more reliable than new/social media	3.36	1.00
10.	Space for youth to voice and provide views through conventional media is limited	3.29	1.03
11.	The cost of using new media is a burden	2.93	1.00
12.	New/social media provide a space for me to express dissatisfaction about current issues to the government or non-government entities	2.97	1.12
13.	I have used new media such as news portals, TV streams (e.g. KiniTV, SelangorTV) and radio streams (e.g. hitz.fm, ikim.fm) to give opinion or receive information	2.69	1.00
14.	Youth in Malaysia require special space and programmes through new/social media to enable them to participate and give opinion on the development of the country	3.26	1.15
15.	Views from youth through new/social media should be recorded and considered before the government/administration makes any decision in developing the country	3.43	1.15

development of the country (mean=3.26, SD=1.15). Their views through new/social media should be recorded and considered before the government/administration makes any decisions on the development of the country (mean=3.43, SD=1.15).

Reliability tests were performed on the three most relevant dimensions on measuring media and participation. The Cronbach Alpha values were all more than 0.8, indicating that the internal consistency or average correlation of items in the survey instrument was high. Table 9 lists all the values.

Table 9
Cronbach Alpha values

Dimension	No of items	Cronbach Alpha
Level of youth participation	14	0.856
Domain of youth participation	13	0.930
Youth perception of media and participation	15	0.834

Implementation of Instrument and Its Critical Findings

A survey using the developed instrument was conducted in 2015. It involved 1,029 youths from different races, religions and backgrounds from all states in Malaysia. The respondents of the survey represented all age groups of youth as defined in this research, with males numbering 464 and females, 565. As for the respondents' race, most of them were Malay (69.4%) followed by Dusun (6.2%) and Iban (5.6%). As for religion, most were Muslim (81.0%), followed by Christian (12.1%), Buddhist (4.2%) and Hindu (2.5%). The respondents also came from different educational backgrounds, with the majority being in secondary school (41.0%) and university (27.2%). Most of the respondents had four to six family members (52.1%).

Most of the respondents (73.1%) were still receiving formal education at either secondary school or institutes of higher education, while 17.4% of the respondents were already employed. Besides that, the majority of their parents received income between RM 501 and RM 1,000 (21.5%) and income more than RM 4,001 (10.8%). The majority of the respondents (40.9%) lived in low-cost housing areas. The others mostly lived in villages (30.4%).

The findings indicated that most respondents used mobile phones (567) and computers (239) frequently. The result also showed that the importance of conventional media such as TV, newspapers and radio should not be underestimated as a substantial number of the respondents still used them frequently or occasionally.

The respondents also provided feedback regarding the most popular social media they used and their frequency of using them. The results revealed that there were at least seven major social media tools used by the respondents which were Facebook, WhatsApp, Instagram, YouTube, WeChat, Google+, and Twitter. Among these, Facebook and WhatsApp were the most popular tools used by respondents, with more than 50% respondents using them frequently.

The respondents use social media for various reasons and purposes. The top five purposes identified were to get in touch with friends and families, to share knowledge and expertise with others, to get information and latest news, to act as a hobby during free time and to build network and meet new friends. Despite slight variations in the results, this finding highlighted the potential role of social media as a tool for the youth to engage in the decision-making process involving social issues, politics and the economy. Two activities received the highest mean scores i.e. sharing current news/information/opinions via social media with family/friends on social/political/economic issues and obtaining information about social/political/economic issues.

All the domains and issues voiced out by the youths sampled in this study were closely related to the national agenda. Economic, political and social issues dominated the outcomes. Under economic issues, youth were concerned about their quality of life and employment/how to earn a living. Corruption, racial issues and political stability were considered important matters for the government to handle. Drug abuse and health issues were the main concerns discussed by youth.

It could be concluded from the survey findings that the level of participation among the youth in the marginalised communities was low. Figure 1 clearly indicates this (all items are below the occasional level). New media as a means to participation is most welcomed by the youth. The survey respondents agreed that they required a special space and programmes through new/social media to enable them to participate and give their opinion on the development of the country. They also wished that their views through new/social media be recorded and considered by the government/administration in the decision-making process involving the development of the country.

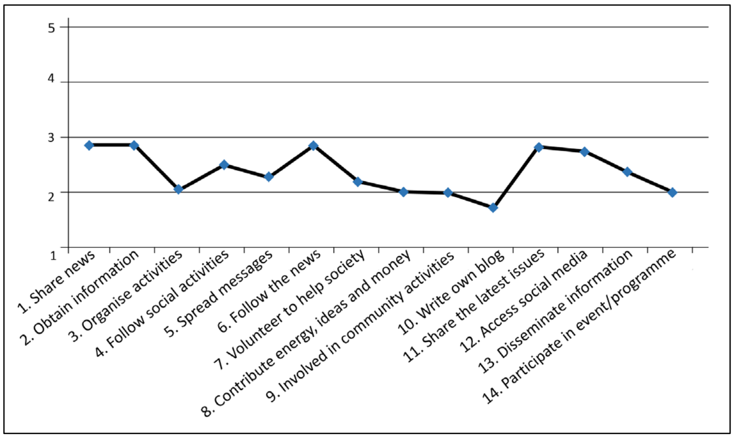

Figure 1. Level of participation

When asked about their web-based skills, the youth listed the following skills, which to them allowed them to voice their opinions:

- use web radio to listen to radio online
- able to download and upload video clips
- know how to share videos
- use Web TV
- post comments and feedback

CONCLUSION

This study attempted to investigate how youth, in particular those who live in the marginalised communities in Malaysia, could contribute more to the decision-making process in nation building. An instrument consisting of three main dimensions was developed and tested. Based on the findings, it is proposed that in measuring media and participation among youth in social and political activities, level of participation, domain of participation and youth perception of media and participation should be included.

Youth in Malaysia have been showing a tendency for their voice to be heard through the increase in youth participation in new media. In providing a specific platform for youth to participate, a platform for youth, called 'Y4M: Youth for Malaysia' (www.youth4malaysia.com.), was developed. This platform is dedicated to Malaysian youth for the sharing of issues affecting them in order to learn from one another. In other words, they have a platform that is able to relay their opinions regarding issues affecting them. Their views can be published in three web broadcasting features: web TV, web radio and web journalism.

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Communication: Uses and Influence of Employment among Youths: The Role of Formal Education

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this paper is to gain an insight into the importance of communication skills in employment and to determine significant roles that support communication ability in the Malaysian context. Data for the analysis were collected and gathered through a questionnaire survey that was distributed online and manually. The results were then analysed based on the frequency and percentage of variables. The findings of the study indicated that almost all respondents agreed that communication skills are important in employment. Five key determinants were provided for the respondents to evaluate their importance in helping to develop communication skills. In view of this, formal education is perceived as the most substantial role in improving one's communication skills. It is thus recommended to respond to the key factors through integration of different approaches to enhance language proficiency and communication skills among youths.

Keywords: Communication skills, employment, formal education, language proficiency, youths

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INTRODUCTION

Communication takes place every day in our daily life. It is about sharing, as without sharing, there would be no communication. Communication involves a repetitive process whereby a speaker encodes information and sends it through a channel to the listener to decode the linguistic information. The listener then takes the input from the speaker, processes the information and translates it back into a thought (Adler, Rosenfeld, & Proctor, 2010; Willems & Varley, 2010). To elaborate further, Kottak (2010) explained that we communicate when we transmit information to others and receive such information from them. In this process, our expressions, gestures and movements, even if performed unconsciously, convey information and are part of our communication style.

Effective communication skills are essential. To a certain extent, we are able to communicate without using language, but we require language for real communication (Willems & Varley, 2010). This has led to an understanding that individuals with a common code can communicate as they share the same code; thus, communicating with others inevitably involves the language system. Kottak (2010) further highlighted the role of language, spoken (speech) and written (writing has existed for about 6,000 years), as our primary means of communication. This is an intuitively interesting view, saying that communication in our everyday lives relies on language most of the time, be it in a face-to-face conversation, writing a letter or any other forms of exchange. Therefore, the teaching of language as an outcome, along with expert content, is important to prepare one to communicate better with others.

Learning occurs throughout one's life through three main education systems, namely formal education, non-formal education and informal education. In many countries, formal education is understood as a type of intentional, organised and structured learning. Formal learning opportunities are offered in schools, training institutions and at colleges and universities. In general, it has a clear curriculum in its educational system, rules for certification and learning objectives, methodology and expected outcomes (Bois-Reymond, 2003; Dib, 1988; Eaton, 2010; Werquin, 2010). On the other hand, non-formal education refers to additional learning environments. As stated by Eaton (2010), non-formal learning may be formally or loosely organised. It may be somewhat structured, but unlike formal education, no grades are given. To elaborate, characteristics of non-formal education are found when the adopted strategy does not require student attendance, decreasing the contact between teacher and student, and most activities take place outside the institution, for instance, home reading and paperwork (Dib, 1988). Meanwhile, informal education is relatively different from formal education and, particularly, from non-formal education even though it is able to maintain a close relationship with both in certain cases. For instance, informal education does not necessarily have to include the objectives and subjects usually encompassed by the traditional curricula, and it does not correspond to an organised and systematic view of education (Dib, 1988).

As communication is said to be essential in one's life to convey information to others, emphasis on language teaching is therefore highlighted in education to enhance one's ability to communicate. Nevertheless, language barriers occur when people do not speak the same language, or do not have the same level of language proficiency. At times, barriers can also occur when participants are using the same language. Hence, language teaching should be emphasised especially in formal education to reduce the language problems and communication barriers.

Malaysia as a multi-racial country consists of three main ethnicities, namely the Malays, Chinese and Indians, and other indigenous ethnicities. It is a melting pot where many different languages are spoken in everyday conversations. Among all these languages, Bahasa Malaysia is the official language while English is viewed as a global language, well-recognised worldwide and is a 'must-learn' language. Understanding the importance of these two languages, the Malaysian Education Blueprint 2013-2025

Table 1
The structure of primary public schools and secondary public schools in Malaysia

Types of school	Typical age	Years	Medium of instruction	Types of language	Weekly time allocated to each subject (in minutes)	
					Phase 1	Phase 2
			Primary Education			
• National School (SK)	7-12	6	Malay	Malay	360	300
				English	300	210
				* Mandarin/ Tamil/Arab	90	60
• National-Type School (Chinese) SJK(C)	7-12	6	Mandarin	Malay	300	240
				Mandarin	360	300
				English	150	180
• National-Type School (Tamil) SJK(T)			Tamil	Malay	300	240
				Tamil	360	300
				English	150	180
			Secondary Education			
• National Secondary School (SMK) Lower Secondary (Form 1 to Form 3)	13-15	3	Malay	Malay	240	240
	16-17	2		English	200	200
				* Mandarin/ Tamil/ Indigenous	40	40
• National Secondary School (SMK) Upper Secondary (Form 4 to Form 5)	16-17	2	Malay	Malay	240	240
				English	200	200
				* Mandarin/ Tamil/ Indigenous	40	40

* Teaching of Mandarin and Tamil languages, as well as other indigenous languages, wherever practical, is based on request by parents, and must consist of at least 15 pupils in the school

(2012) promotes bilingual proficiency to ensure that every child is able to attain, at minimum, operational proficiency in the Malay language, which is the national language and the language of unity, and in English, the international language of communication. Ultimately, students should be able to communicate in both the Malay and English languages upon leaving school. Table 1 displays the structure of formal education conducted in primary and secondary schools in Malaysia.

Language teaching has been emphasised in formal education, and the curriculum is improved from time to time. The four important language skills i.e. speaking, writing, listening and reading are included in the language syllabus. In most cases, oral assessments are carried out to examine students' speaking and listening skills whereas, school examinations are a popular approach in all schools to assess students' reading and writing skills.

Education is undoubtedly the platform to enhance an individual's language proficiency and communication skills. Its benefit goes further i.e. in bringing advantage to job seekers in their quest to enter the labour market. Literature has highlighted the relationship between communication skills and the employment mechanism in the job market for young people. Morreale, Osborn and Pearson (2000) stated that poor language skills, especially in writing and speaking, can prove to be a significant hurdle for youths attempting to enter the labour market for the first time. Furthermore, oral communication and listening abilities are among the basic job skills desired by employers. Therefore, youths need to have good language skills in order to learn and to communicate. In support of Morreale et al. (2000), Bax and Mohamood (2005) pointed out that about 50.5% of technical graduates of polytechnics remain jobless for almost nine months following graduation because they lack employability skills such as communication, writing and computer skills. Rasul, Ismail, Ismail, Rajuddin and Rauf (2010) further cited results that showed that employers placed great importance on listening as there will be moments when employees often need to exhibit empathy and listen intently to customers. Hence, communication is proven to be one of the most important skills required in the current competitive employment market.

Employability skills, particularly communication skills of young people, have continually received considerable attention in recent times, and it has been noted that unless urgent steps are taken, young people's communication skills will be deteriorating and their future will bleak. This research looks into the relationship between communication skills and sustainable employment, and the influential roles believed to be particularly important in developing communication skills.

Formal Education and Communication

Formal education might be an efficient way to promote acquisitions of future skill while on the job. Verhaest and Omey (2009) claimed that research studying the link between formal education and skill acquisitions on-the-job is highly relevant from the integration transition policy point of view, and cited Maton (1969), who highlighted that the level of skills needed for a job can be attained through several alternative combinations of formal education and experience on the job. Hence, formal education enhances the efficiency of the employability skills, inclusive of communication skills.

As language and communication are interconnected, it is vital that educational institutions play a fundamental role in promoting knowledge and skills to enhance employability opportunities. Straková (2015) highlighted that there are two factors, internal and external, that affect language acquisition. The internal factors refer to the mental disposition of a learner, the aptitude and the ability to handle the communication process among others. On the other hand, the external factors might include the time and the frequency available for the exposure to the target language. The aim of the early language courses at schools should maximise the benefits obtained. However, Straková (2015) noticed that there were significant weaknesses of language teaching in the classroom context. Therefore, it is believed that learning a language is a complex process that need not necessarily be connected with a classroom and a teacher.

Informal Education and Communication

Learning is a lifelong endeavour. Formal education is compulsory for the majority of students. However, it cannot guarantee a lifelong and well-paid job as it could in the past. Werquin (2010) highlighted that non-formal and informal learning outcomes are part of the lifelong learning system and the labour market, on the other hand, is a place for the production of non-formal and informal learning situations. He further explained that employers in all countries affirm that the most important non-formal and informal learning most likely takes place at work. An example of this, based on Hungary as a case study, is that formal education and a training system do not appear to consistently produce the knowledge, skills and competency required by the labour market in that country.

Communication skills can be understood not only within the framework of formal learning contexts, but also within the non-formal and informal learning contexts (Eaton, 2010). Informal learning is not systematically organised. It does not take place in a formal setting, and it is regularly either experiential, spontaneous or even both. For example, a child can learn a language in the informal setting of the home, or an adult can pick up a language through experiential learning while on vacation. In 2007, the University of Jyväskylä conducted a survey aimed to understand the language situation in Finland. In this study, the research team referred to factors other than formal education such as parents, relationship, environment, friends and own interest as some of the other possible factors that have contributed to the development of one's language ability (Leppänen, 2008). The findings showed that informal education is another influential key determinant in developing one's communication skills.

Education on communication should begin early and continue into adult education. Hamer (2012) denoted that evidence is now both established and growing every year to explain that mothers who are attached to their babies encourage and support their child's communication skills. It clearly described the importance of family in developing one's communication skills. In the home environment, the frequency with which the child plays with letters or numbers and the frequency with which parents said they taught their child songs or nursery rhymes or parents' effort in drawing children's attention to sounds and letters, are all taken into account, and these demonstrate that what parents do has a major impact on helping develop children's communication skills. Apart from that, the individual factor also plays a prominent role in developing communication skills. For instance, when one's confidence is low, one's ability to communicate effectively with other people is usually hampered. Simone (2009) supposed that an individual often considers the difficulties in speaking confidently as the others worry about what the other person is thinking about what they are saying, and how the others might respond to them. To support one's communication ability, the individual factor is essential to boost one's own confidence level, thus breaking the communication barrier.

Communication and Employment

Communication skills are commonly recognised as one of the most significant determinants required in the workplace. Nevertheless, there are disparities between communicating ideas in the workplace and in the academic setting. According to the Office of Disability Employment Policy (2008), the format for interaction in the workplace is different from the group discussion or written homework assigned in a classroom. Students respond to the teacher or ask questions only when they are directed in the classroom context; however, at the workplace, the bigger challenge of communicating occurs when the supervisor specifically asks or seeks an individual's opinions. Hence, employees should enhance their communication skills and learn to share their ideas or concerns appropriately.

As indicated by a 2010 survey conducted by the National Association of Colleges and Employers, communication skills are ranked first among a job candidate's 'must-have' skills and qualities. This emphasises the importance of good communication skills to an employer. This shows that communication skills are essential in exchanging information and conveying ideas and opinions with people (ODEP, 2012).

Gurcharan and Garib (2008) referred to a report by 'Malaysian Today' (2005) that pointed to a survey carried out by the Malaysian Government, which revealed that poor English and poor communication skills were among the four reasons for the unemployment of about 60,000 Malaysian graduates. This shows that there is a correlation between language proficiency and communication skills. This is further supported by Daud, Abidin, Sapuan and Rajadurai (2012), who noted that proficiency in English, the ability to present ideas, explain issues and problems, the ability to speak up in a constructive manner, the ability to resolve problems, the ability to understand the issues and problems faced by a company and the ability to come up with workable solutions to problems are all good communication and interpersonal skills sought by employers. Ismail (2011) also rejected the view that good grades guarantee employment. All these show that graduates need to have a good command of the English language and other soft skills such as communication and computer skills to secure better employment opportunities.

Young people's views on the importance of communication skills in relation to sustainable employment have also been recorded in previous research. According to the findings of the National Literacy Trust Annual Literacy Survey conducted at the end of 2012 involving nearly 35,000 young people aged between 8 and 16 years old, 86.1% of the participants agreed that good communication skills are important for securing a job. These findings confirmed the results gained during the pre-project survey, in which most of these young people thought that they needed good communication skills to get a good job. This indicates that young people do have an insight into the types of skill they are expected to possess in the workplace (Clark & Formby, 2013).

METHODOLOGY

Phase 1

In Phase 1 of the preliminary study, interviews were conducted with 15 companies. An open-ended questionnaire was used in individual interviews to collect data in April 2014. The questionnaires did not contain predefined options or categories, so respondents had the freedom to respond in their own words (Ballou, 2011). This structure was favoured as it helped to discover the full range of possible answers to understand employers' perceptions of today's youths and the employability skills required in the labour market. Each session took approximately half an hour. The data collected were used as a reference in the second stage to generate the questionnaire for the youth. They were not meant to be further analysed in the study.

Phase 2

Questionnaire. A closed-ended questionnaire was developed based on past literature reviews and the findings of the preliminary study. The preliminary study, which was conducted using an open-ended questionnaire, managed to gather the most common responses in Phase 1 from respondents and these were then used to develop this closed-ended questionnaire. An option of answer choices to focus on key factors identified was included. This questionnaire comprised two parts: the demographic profile and youths' perceptions of communication skills in sustainable employment was then administered to youths aged 15 to 40. The first part (Part A) consisted of the respondents' biographical information such as gender, age and place of residence. The second part (Part B) was aimed at determining the respondents' opinions on communication skills in sustainable employment. In this part, respondents were asked to give their view if they agreed that communication was an important skill in sustainable employment and who were the parties that they viewed as having an important role in developing an individual's communication skills. Respondents were given five answer choices; however, they were encouraged to name the parties if they were not stated in the choices given.

Respondents. Questionnaires were distributed randomly in July 2014 to 82 respondents between the ages of 15 and 40 who were selected from rural and urban areas. They were divided evenly based on gender and place of residence.

Procedure. The survey questionnaire was first created using Google Documents as it allowed the surveys to be distributed online and the analysis of data to be done easily. However, since not all the respondents had access to the Internet, hard copies of the questionnaire were also randomly distributed to as many respondents as possible of the target group. Each respondent took approximately 5 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Data from 82 responses were taken into account and further analysed.

Statistical Analysis. The results were first fed into a spreadsheet in Google Documents. The data collected were managed and documented according to the names, labels and descriptions for variables. Then the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22 was used to analyse the data, and the results were presented based on frequency and percentage of variables.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Profile of Respondents

The respondents consisted of 41 females and 41 males, who were divided equally based on gender and place of residence. Forty-one of the respondents were from urban areas while the other 41 were from rural areas. The respondents were then divided according to different cohorts based on their age group. The three cohorts were those between the ages of 15 and 23 (47.6%, n=39); 24 to 31 years old (31.7%, n=26); and those above the age of 31 (20.7%, n=17). Table 2 describes the demographic profile of the participants who participated in the survey.

Communication Skills and Employment

Figure 1 presents the respondents' perception of communication skills in employment. Data revealed that 97.6% (n=80) of the respondents partially agreed that communication skills have a direct

Table 2
Description of respondents' demographic profile

Variables	Category	Total	
		Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Female	41	50.0
	Male	41	50.0
Age	15-23	39	47.6
	24-31	26	31.7
	32-40	17	20.7
Place of Residence	Rural	41	50.0
	Urban	41	50.0

influence on their employment. It was noted that respondents and employers interviewed in the preliminary study showed similar perceptions of the importance of communication skills in employment, and the results were consistent with the findings from previous studies.

Similarly, a 2008 survey conducted by the University of Melbourne with 147 interviewees pointed out that the majority of interviewees felt that communication skills are considered to be the most important factor, not only in performing well, but also in providing opportunities for a promotion or career advancement in the workplace. They also believed that the skills are essential for a successful job interview,

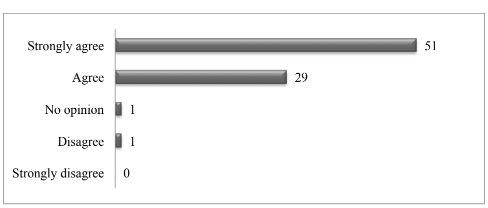

Figure 1. Respondents find communication is an important skill for employment

and later to communicate effectively with colleagues and clients (Arkoudis, Hawthorne, Hawthorne, O'Loughlin, Leach, & Bexley, 2009).

Nevertheless, it is interesting to note that only 1.2% (n=1) of the respondents disagreed that communication is an important skill for employment. This is possibly attributed to their high level of self-confidence and ability to communicate well, resulting in their denial of the importance of communication skills in the labour market. They believed that other determinants are more important than communication skills in getting and retaining a job.

Important Roles in Developing Communication Skills

The respondents were also asked to state the important parties who played key roles in developing their communication skills. Five options were listed for the respondents, and the results of the survey showed that 74.4% of the respondents agreed that formal education supported their communication ability. Figure 2 displays the perceived important roles ranked by the highest percentage value order, and as can be seen, formal education is at the top of the list in developing communication skills. In terms of informal learning, 61.0% of the respondents believed that family was the key factor influencing the development of their communication skills, followed by the environment and friends (59.8% and 48.8%, respectively). It can be concluded that the respondents considered both formal and informal education as pivotal roles in developing communication skills.

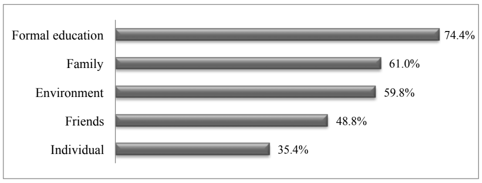

Figure 2. Respondents' perceived important roles in developing communication skills

Interestingly, only 35.4% (n=29) of respondents felt that they were solely responsible for developing their communication skills. This contradicts findings of past studies. This could possibly be due to their perception that the individual factor did not have a huge impact on developing their communication skills unlike formal and informal education.

Eighty out of 82 respondents who considered communication skills as being important for employment tended to have different opinions on the five influential roles in developing communication skills. Figure 3 reveals the opinions of the respondents who agreed that communication skills were important in employment. Even if the respondents had no opinion or disagreed that communication skills played an important role in employment, they were of the same opinion that communication skills had to be practised and developed at home and schools.

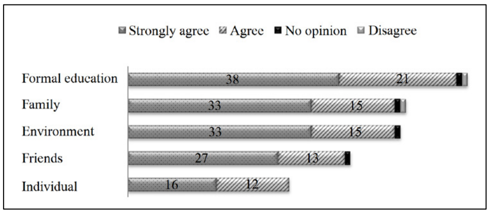

Figure 3. Respondents' views on the importance of developing communication skills based on their perception of the importance of communication skills in employment

Comparison between Rural and Urban Respondents

Figure 4 portrays the rural and urban respondents' views on the importance of the roles played by the five factors in developing communication skills. From the rural respondents' points of view, formal education and family played far more important roles than the other factors in developing communication skills. Similarly, the majority of the urban respondents considered formal education as the key factor influencing the development of communication skills. Nevertheless, more urban respondents looked into the importance of environment in providing opportunities to improve their language proficiency. Urban respondents perceived family and peers as two other significant factors that had an impact on one's progress in developing communication skills.

More respondents from rural areas (78.0%) agreed that formal education supported the importance of developing communication ability than those from urban areas (70.7%). Many rural schools have strong ties to their community, and as students feel comfortable in their schools, and therefore, they are at their maximum potential for learning (University of Michigan, n.d.). It can be suggested that respondents from rural areas believe in formal education, and that it will lead to better learning regardless of the subject matter, including communication skills.

The findings also showed that more rural respondents (63.4%) than urban respondents (58.5%) viewed their family as another party with a substantial role in helping to develop their communication skills. This could possibly relate to most rural respondents having a closer bond with their families. Generally, family members from rural areas would know everything about each other as family is of paramount importance to them. Urban families could be more distant from each other as a consequence of the fast pace of city life. Hence, family members spend little quality time with one another.

Rural respondents and urban respondents have totally different opinions on the importance of the environment and peers in developing communication skills. A total of 65.9% of respondents from urban areas agreed that the environment played an important role in supporting communication ability. As a result, this key factor with its high percentage ranks second on the list. More than half of the urban respondents (53.7%) had the same opinion that friends played a significant role in helping them improve their language proficiency. On the other hand, 53.7% of rural respondents believed in the impact of environment in developing communication skills, followed by friends (43.9%).

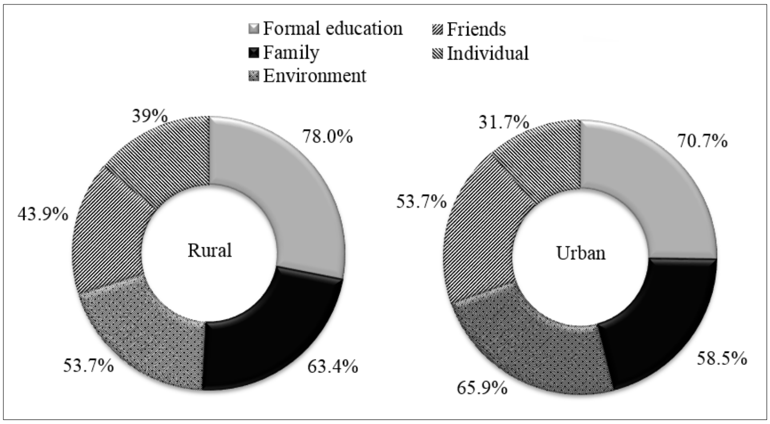

Figure 4. Rural and urban respondents' views on the importance of the roles played by the five factors in developing communication skills

Nevertheless, it is surprising that only a small percentage (31.7%) of the total urban respondents believed that individual factor had an effect on the development of communication skills. There is a significant difference in percentage when compared to other key factors. There could be a possibility that urban respondents are likely to lose their self-confidence in the process of transforming themselves into competitive speakers. Urban lifestyle is very competitive; therefore, urban respondents are exposed to competition all the time. As Nunley (2001) mentioned, competition is a popular blame agent for low self-esteem among youths. They would easily interpret a competitive loss as failure, and this damages their self-esteem. When they lose their self-esteem, they tend to lose their confidence in believing that their ultimate ability and effort can make a difference. As a result, urban respondents are inclined to believe that other parties have a more significant role in sharpening their communication skills.

CONCLUSION

Language proficiency and communication skills are important in preparing youths for the labour market. Therefore, it is important to determine the parties who play important roles in developing the communication skills of youths that will ensure employment opportunities and career prospects.

This study provides insights into the key factors that have potential roles in and an impact on one's communication ability. The next step of action is to respond to these key factors through integrated approaches to enhance language proficiency and communication skills among youths and to prepare them for the workplace.

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The Influence of Physical Environment on the Character of Youths

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the effect of the physical environment (PE) of urban neighbourhoods on the character of youths. The outdoor features of a neighbourhood are often related to the physical environment and social interaction among the people living in the urban community. This study was done to gather data through focus group discussions, observations and interviews with youths, parents and stakeholders to examine the effect of PE on the character of youths. The results showed that outdoor features do influence the character of youths in an urban neighbourhood community. Neighbourhood community should play an important role in providing youths with proper outdoor features and providing opportunities for them to become more productive and innovative.

Keywords: Character of youths, outdoor features, physical environment, social interaction, urban neighbourhoods

INTRODUCTION

The environment is categorised into three groups i.e. natural environment, artificial environment and social environment. Physical Environment (PE) belongs to the artificial environment formed by people with the intention of meeting their needs as those needs change through time (Alemdar, 2010). This space allows for communication between individuals in the community. According to Aydin and Siramkaya (2014), a community is influenced by its artificial environment, which encompasses environment condition, building design, connecting roads and settlement style.

Personal and social character is determined by structural identity or the physical criteria for sheltering or living.

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One of the major factors in defining urban community is the identity of settlements (Wiberg, 1993). According to Alemdar (2010), understanding urban environment requires a holistic approach as each of its elements protects its own values and has a relationship with other elements, making each element more apparent. PE reflects the atmosphere of each era, which completes one another and it gives a new meaning to the whole atmosphere. Residential areas determined the physical environment as wide connection consist of styles and content of the architectural environments, cultural, social perception and intellectual behavioural of the environment (Hashim et al. 2015). Cradock et al. (2009) in their study stated that neighbourhood social interaction was connected according to participation in a recreational activity in the PE, services and individual communication during outdoor activity.

PE includes neighbourhood parks and green spaces built up by people for encouraging a variety of outdoor activities and human behaviour (O'Reilly et al., 2015). In the last decade, there has been a growing number of research works examining the influence of PE or public open space on human behaviour based on physical activity. They have shown diverse relatives between different aspects of the physical environment in terms of proximity, size, quality and availability (Koohsari et al., 2015).

This paper aims to take the hypothesis that the character of youths is manipulated by changes in physical environment change to the next level using interpretation of human thought and qualitative methodological schemes. The main characteristic examined in this study is youth participation in outdoor activities related to the types of physical environment. This research contributes to existing work on the relations between PE and the character of youth.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The measurement used in this research was based on focus group discussion (FGD) sessions with two main target groups consisting of 12 participants in a youth group and six in a stakeholder group. The first group represented marginalised youths and was made up of youths living in People's Housing Programme, a low-cost housing development project (PPR), in Kerinchi, Lembah Pantai, Kuala Lumpur. They were selected from each block of the PPR, and they were keen to share their opinions and express their feelings regarding their physical environment. The youths, both females and males, were selected randomly and were aged between 15 and 24 years old and representated the three main ethnic groups of Malaysia, Malay, Chinese and Indian. They also represented the student, employed and unemployed and married groups. The second group represented stakeholders and included PPR Residents' Committee members (2 participants), a Town Planner from Kuala Lumpur City Hall (DBKL), a Town Planner from the Federal Town and Country Planning Department in

Kuala Lumpur and two members from the Malaysian Youth Council Committee.

The FGD were held at different venues between September 2014 and November 2014. The first session was held in the community hall of the PPR in the afternoon between 3.00 and 5.00 pm. The time was appropriate for the youths as most were back from morning school. The other FGD group was held from 10.00 am to 12.00 noon at Armada Hotel in Petaling Jaya, a location that was accessible for all the participants.

The FGD used a different set of questions focussing on related issues, highlighting the question 'the influence of PE on the character of youths'. Using semi-structured interview questions, the speaker, who was also a member of the research group, conducted the sessions smoothly, and clearly explained how the session was to run so that all participants could share their opinion and express their sentiments.

Both FGDs were recorded using several tape recorders and a video camera while other members of the research team noted down keywords used by the respondents. The session lasted for about two hours. The dialogues were transcribed manually for further analysis.

The main objective of the FGD was to extract information on issues related to the youths' physical environment that contributed to the marginalisation of the youth community of such PPR housing projects developed by the government. This paper discusses some of the findings observed from the FGD.

RESULTS AND FINDINGS

The PPR was observed to consist of six blocks of multi-level housing, with each block having 17 floors. Each floor contained 20 houses and the total number of houses was 2040. The open space provision consisted of one football field and two multi-purpose courts for three blocks.

Data collected from the FGD were categorised into several themes. These included space and facilities interrelated with outdoor and recreational activities, as discussed below.

Space Interrelated with Outdoor and Recreational Activities

Based on qualitative data, space refers to an area in a neighbourhood, especially for youth, to have leisure and recreational activities. These areas include a field, playground, multipurpose courts and green areas.

> *I can see that the area is crowded as space is inadequate of facilities for youth…*
>
> *(Youth FGD Respondent Number 4)*
>
> *…the facilities are not suitable for youths. This area is suited to community use where children can use it, adults can use it and even outsiders may use it. So this area is not for youth facilities as the futsal pitch can be used by everyone.*
>
> *(Residents' Committee Member, Stakeholders FGD)*

Both respondents highlighted that the space provided was small and inadequate, resulting in the marginalisation of the youth in this PPR as they could not use the facilities regularly for outdoor and physical activities because priority of use was given to younger children (Sanders & Munford, 2014).

Another respondent claimed that space was highly limited through barriers. Therefore, some of the youths needed to go beyond the boundaries of the PPR for physical and recreational activities.

> *Some spaces are restricted because most of the residents place their flower pots within the access pathway such as the pedestrian area, green area and even on the stairs.*
>
> *(Youth FGD Respondent Number 2)*

According to these respondents, the insufficient space has changed the character of the youths, causing them to be inactive where once they used to be active. This situation even caused them to stay at home doing nothing or to go to shopping malls, thus missing out on physical activity and social interaction. This is an example of how youths end up organising their activities as a result of surrounding constraints (Richards et al., 2013).

> *"The soccer field, for example, it is too crowded because this area merges the use of residents from three blocks, out of six blocks here. Therefore, if we are too late, this place is full of children aged between 7 and12 years old. So, where can we have our leisure or outdoor activities?"*
>
> *(Youth FGD Respondent Number 6)*

> *...we often head to 'Mid Valley Mega Mall because this is the closest area to home and it provides for social activities because it is large and there are lots of activities that can be done there.*
>
> *(Youth FGD Respondent Number 7)*

Participants in the stakeholder group opined that youths should not be allocated a community space as they would create problems for the community. Youth representatives were not welcomed to participate in any of the residents' committee meetings because it was believed that youths were not mature enough to give opinions.

> *This contradicts Crean's (2012) finding that "youth must participate in decision-making related to policy making and direct service in order to promote adaptive individual decision-making skills."*

> *There are a lot of youth activities. We already provide a badminton court; however still they say their*

needs are not met because they always demand facilities for other activities, such as roller blading, futsal, basketball and netball. But this is a never-ending story, right? They have too many activities.

(DBKL Town Planner, Stakeholders FGD)

I think if we seat the youth in the committee, we have to call more involved NGOs and stakeholders as well. It will be more difficult to make a decision as the number of members on the committee rises. We as the residents' committee will decide all the decisions for this neighbourhood….

(Chief of Residents' Committee, Stakeholders FGD)

To conclude, if space is not well planned, it poses a barrier on developing the character of youths and prevents them from developing necessary soft skills and social interaction in physical environment spaces. It is important to boost up positive character traits among youth because they are poised to become the future leaders of a country. Thus, physical environment (PE) influences the character of youths to a great degree in many aspects (Crean, 2012).

Moreover, it is better not to promote fundamental programmes but to take action to organise a physical development plan to improvise artificial features for creating human interaction and positive relationship between neighbours and youth (Duncan et al., 2013).

Facilities Provision

The respondents also gave their opinion on how space affected the livelihood of youth in this high-density area. Youth and space need to be bonded; the facilities in a community are the instrument that link them together. The youth respondents felt that the facilities were not sufficient, and they were not satisfied with the availability of those facilities:

...space and facilities are not enough because the number of youth is large here. Plus, we cannot do any activity due to the high density of users. For example, no gym, no tennis, then this has impeded the youth interests and activities.

(Youth FGD Respondent Number 1)

…as students, we think that these facilities are not sufficient. The facilities are minimal compared to the number of us. We may have free time on Sundays, but the facilities are unavailable at that time.

(Youth FGD Respondent Number 3)

For recreational activities, there are inadequate facilities available for use by all parties, especially the youth. If you want to play takraw, others may want to play football or badminton. The availability of space cannot meet the requirements and serve everyone's desire.

(Youth FGD Respondent Number 8)

The above quotations suggest that youths in this area have had bad experiences using the facilities because the number of facilities are inadequate and are not maintained properly. This problem causes them to not be active at outdoor activities during leisure time (Crean, 2012).

This result is clearly contradictory to that found by Danis et al. (2014), who stated that residents are denied the use of neighbourhood parks because of the insufficiency of facilities and space.

I know this place has limited space for outdoor activities, so I decided to do other simple outdoor activities such as walking and using the stairs instead of the elevator.

(Youth FGD Respondent Number 9)

Rather than insufficient facilities, one of the respondents highlighted her opinion that female youths should be given priority to male youths. This female youth is married and a mother, but that does not prevent her from wanting to enjoy leisure time indulging in outdoor activities like other youths.

According to Loon, Frank, Nettlefold and Naylor (2014), male youth often engage in physical activities because of fewer parental restrictions, while female youth only engage in the physical environment (PE) with their parents' permission.

...being women, we hope that they will provide us with a special room for activities such as aerobic exercise and 'poco-poco' dance. The hall can be provided.

(Youth FGD Respondent Number 1)

The Malaysia Youth Council members also expressed their desire to allocate the community hall as a venue for their activities for developing youth skills and character. They also asked the residents' committee for a seat on the community board.

According to Aminzadeh et al. (2013), a higher level of youth members in the community will buffer negative effects to the social condition. In other words, it is best for community members to guide and help youth to build character.

If it were possible, we beg that youth associations be given space in the community hall for them to organise training programmes for youth such as cooking, sewing etc. supported by the government…

(Malaysia Youth Council Secretary, Stakeholders FGD)

If there were an office, the youth could go there to plan and to organise, design activities, or convey dissatisfaction on any situation. That would be the right place to assemble them all.

(Malaysia Youth Council Committee Member, stakeholders FGD)

These quotations suggest that facilities play an important role in PE in building the character of youths actively and in a friendly manner among themselves.

CONCLUSION

It is optimal for youths to be involved in outdoors activities rather than to be closeted in their homes as a means of building character (Thompson, 2013). For this reason, it is necessary that open spaces be provided for youth as they allow for behaviour that is conducive for character building. As suggested by many studies, neighbourhood parks should be equipped with suitable physical facilities, including sport and exercise facilities (Danis et al., 2014) as these activities can help to nurture good character among youth. It is crucial that development of character among youth be triggered from young. Various factors may influence this character recognition in outdoor social interaction in open environments (Broberg et al., 2013).

To conclude, when it comes to planning and design, PE elements should be properly allocated and connected to one another, as this area plays an important role in influencing youth to participate in outdoor activities. Therefore, the elements such as playground, multi-purpose court and a green compound must be connected to important linkages such as a green belt or jogging track.

Therefore, the provision of a safe and healthy PE is constant as supporting elements help youth to nurture important skills and shape positive characteristics in youths. We propose that certain PE might have a different impact on influencing the character of youth. Hence, space and facilities should always be taken into account in planning and designing living space for diverse communities.

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Physical Activity and BMI Level: Youth in Low-Cost Housing Kuala Lumpur

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ABSTRACT

Obesity has been recognised as a major public health concern due to lack of physical activity and a sedentary lifestyle. The aim of this study was to determine the status of physical activity level and body mass index (BMI) among youth living in low-cost housing in Kuala Lumpur. The respondents were youths aged between 15 and 25 (19.80, SD=3.17) years old and consisted of 214 males and 172 females. The BMI value was determined through the ratio of body weight and height, while the level of physical activity was measured using the International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ). The descriptive analysis showed that the mean BMI of male respondents was (22.65, SD=3.11) kg/m² and (23.73, SD=3.30) kg/m² for the females. A total of 227 (58.80%) of the respondents had low-level physical activity (441.57, SD=81.64) MET-min·wk^{-1}. Correlation analysis showed that there was positive correlation between age and BMI ($r=0.18$, $p<0.001$), meanwhile, there was negative correlation between physical activity and age ($r=-0.27$, $p<0.001$), and between physical activity and BMI ($r=-0.24$, $p<0.001$). The study also found the obese group (obese class I) had lower physical activity than other group at the significant level of $p<0.05$, $F(4, 381)=10.483$, $p<0.001$. The youth living in low-cost housing demonstrated poor physical activity level. Therefore, efforts should be made to promote the importance of a healthy lifestyle and being physically active in order to avoid obesity and other health problems.

Keywords: Body mass index (BMI), physical activity, youth

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INTRODUCTION

Physical activity can be defined as any body movement produced by skeletal muscle contraction that may increase energy

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consumption (Thomas & Kotecki, 2007; Bourchard, Blair, & Haskell, 2007). Physical activity can be classified into several classes such as light, medium and heavy. Light physical activity is any movement that produces energy consumption between 1.6 and 2.9 MET (Metabolic Equivalent of Task) (Pate, O'Neill, & Lobelo, 2008; Owen, Sparling, Healy, Dunstan, & Matthews, 2010). Medium physical activity is activity that requires the use of energy between 3.0 and 5.9 MET and heavy physical activity is activity that requires the use of energy equal to 6 MET and above (Ainsworth et al., 2000). Generally, individuals need to increase participation in physical activity to reduce the effects of a sedentary lifestyle to bring improvement to health (Hamilton, Healy, Dunstan, Zderic, & Owen, 2008; Owen et al., 2010). However, the revolution in industry nowadays has led people to be dependent on technology, and this has caused a reduction in physical activity among them (Heyward, 2011), and previous studies have shown that most of the daily work and leisure activities that are carried out on a daily basis require only very little energy consumption, which is about 1 to 1.5% of resting metabolic rate (Pate et al., 2008).

The lack of physical activity or the sedentary lifestyle adopted by young people will usually continue to be practised up to adulthood (Ortega, Ruiz, Castillo, & Sjostrom, 2008). Additionally, many studies showed that a sedentary lifestyle is associated with lipid problems and being overweight (Colley et al., 2013; Duncan et al., 2012; Thorp et al., 2010). The high amount of fat in the body will cause a person to have difficulty in performing physical activities such as jumping and making quick movements because those movements require great energy consumption. People who are less active were found to be more prone to experiencing lack of muscle strength, endurance and flexibility in perform movements (Fahey, Insel, & Roth, 2011; Baumgartner, Jackson, Mahar, & Rowe, 2007).

According to Embong (2011), it was estimated that 66.9% of people in this country live in the city, and this number increased to 70% in 2008. As a result of rising land prices, low and medium-cost housing is needed in urban areas because the population was made up largely of low- and middle-income workers (Malek & Husin, 2012). Until 2005, there were 676,163 housing units in Kuala Lumpur with 188,610 (28%) being units of low and medium cost (Besar, Fauzi, & Ghazali, 2012) and studies have also shown that facilities for physical activity or exercise were less available in low-income neighbourhoods (Estabrooks, Lee, & Gyurcsik, 2003; Heinrich et al., 2008). The lack of space and infrastructure in these neighborhoods limits individual participation in physical activity. This assumption was made due to the characteristics of the physical environment in neighborhoods and was shown to contribute to the level of individual participation in physical activity (Eriksson, Arvidsson, & Sundquist, 2012; Edwards, Jilcott, Floyd, & Moore, 2011), and was also associated with obesity (McAlexander, Banda, McAlexander, & Lee, 2009; Casagrande, et al., 2011). The objective of this study was to determine the level of physical activity and BMI of youth living in low-cost housing in Kuala Lumpur.

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

Respondents was selected based on simple random sampling. Of the 400 questionnaires distributed to respondents, only 386 were returned and met the criteria set. All the respondents were youth who lived in residential areas of the People's Housing Programme (PPR) in Kampung Kerinchi, Kuala Lumpur. Of the 386 respondents, 243 (63%) were males and 143 (37%) were females. The respondents were aged between 15 and 25 years (mean=18.82, SD=3.22). Data collection was carried out between the months of January and February 2015. Data collection was conducted by distributing questionnaires randomly to the youths who were found in the vicinity of residential areas.

IPAQ questionnaire

In this study, the International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ) was used to assess the level of physical activity. The criterion validity for the IPAQ questionnaires was reported to be at r=0.34 (Ekelund et al., 2006). The level of physical activity was measured in MET minutes per week (MET-min·wk^{-1}). The MET-min·wk^{-1} was calculated thus: MET level x number of minutes of activity per day x number of days per week. The level of physical activity of respondents was categorised into low, medium and high. Moderate level physical activity is classified as moderate-intensity physical activity conducted for at least 30 minutes five days per week, while heavy-intensity physical activity is conducted for at least 20 minutes three days per week or a combination of both activities for a total of at least 600 MET-min·wk^{-1}. Further description of the protocol of this questionnaire is available on the website (www.ipaq.ki.se).

Body Mass Index (BMI)

Before the measurement process was carried out, the subjects were asked to remove their shoes, socks, watches and jewellery for the measurement of body mass and height. BMI was determined by calculating the ratio between body mass and height. BMI was calculated using the formula BMI=body mass (kg)/height (m)^2. The BMI level was then classified based on the classification proposed by the World Health Organisation (WHO) for Asians (WHO, 2000). The BMI values were categorised into underweight (less than 18.5 kg/m^2), normal (18.5 to 22.9 kg/m^2), at risk (BMI 23 to 24.9 kg/m^2), obese class I (BMI 25 to 29.9 kg/m^2) and obese class II (BMI 30 kg/m^2 or higher).

Data Analysis

In this study, the t-test was used to compare the BMI and physical activity level between male and female, while the Pearson correlation index was used to determine the relationship between age, BMI and physical activity level. Apart from this, a one-way ANOVA analysis with post-hoc (Tukey) setting was used to analyse the comparison between the physical activity levels among the respondents, who were categorised into underweight, normal, at risk, obese class I and obese class II. The significant level was set at the level of $p<0.05$.

RESULTS

A total of 386 respondents participated in this study. There were 214 (55.4%) males and 172 (44.6%) females. The average age of the respondents was 19.80 (SD=3.17) ranging between 15 to 25 years. The male respondents had mean BMI (M=22.65, SD=3.11) kg/m² and (M=23.73, SD=3.30) kg/m² for females. The t-test demonstrated there were significant differences of BMI between the male and female respondents, t(384)=0-2.844, p=0.005. A total of 108 (27.97%) males and 61 (15.80%) females had normal BMI. Meanwhile, 10 (2.6%) males and 9 (2.4%) females were classified as underweight. Only 33 (8.5%) males and 36 (9.32%) females were categorised into obese class I and obese class II (Table 1).

Analysis from the International Physical Activity Questionnaire score demonstrated that only 159 respondents (41.19%) had achieved moderate physical activity level (M=678.54, SD=87.57) MET-min·wk⁻¹, while the rest 227 (58.80%) had low level physical activity (M=441.57, SD=81.64) MET-min·wk⁻¹ (Table 1). The t-test was conducted to compare the physical activity scores for males and females. There was a significant difference in score for males (M=572.85, SD=152.65) MET-min·wk⁻¹ and females (M=497.67, SD=120.52) MET-min·wk⁻¹, t (384)=5.30, p=0.000 (Table 1).

Table 1
BMI and physical activity characteristic of subjects between genders

	All		Male		Female	
	N	BMI (kg/m²)	N	BMI (kg/m²)	N	BMI (kg/m²)
	Mean (SD)		Mean (SD)		Mean (SD)	
BMI						
Underweight	19	17.93 (0.48)	10	17.95 (0.44)	9	17.91 (0.54)
Normal	169	20.94 (1.80)	108	20.68 (1.59)	61	21.39 (2.09)
At risk	129	24.15 (0.67)	63	24.03 (0.76)	66	24.18 (0.57)
Obese I	59	27.11 (1.13)	28	26.65 (0.94)	31	27.52 (1.15)
Obese II	10	33.40 (1.13)	5	32.69 (0.89)	5	34.10 (0.95)
All	386	23.13 (3.28)	214	22.65 (3.11)	143	23.73 (3.30
		MET-min·wk⁻¹		MET-min·wk⁻¹		MET-min·wk⁻¹
Physical activity						
Low	227	441.57 (81.64)	124	442.49 (80.24)	111	440.76 (83.05)
Moderate	159	678.54 (87.57)	119	700.80 (79.33)	32	631.41(85.41)
All	386	539.18 (143.81)	243	572.79 (170.65)	143	497.29 (110.52)

Correlation analysis between age, BMI and physical activity is shown in Table 2. The Pearson correlation analysis showed that there was a positive correlation between age and BMI, $r=0.18$, $n=386$, $p<0.001$. Meanwhile, there was negative correlation between physical activity and age, $r=-0.27$, $n=386$, $p<0.001$, and between physical activity and BMI, r=0-.24, $n=386$, $p<0.001$.

Inference analysis showed that the obese respondents had lower physical activity (Table 3). There was a significant difference at the $p<0.05$ level in physical activity score for the five BMI-based groups: $F(4, 381)=10.483$, $p<0.001$. Post-comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the obese class I group (M=445.35, SD=71.69) was significantly different from the underweight group (M=557.94, SD=149.05), the normal group (M=561.76, SD=137.54) and the at-risk group (M=558.55, SD=159.50).

Table 2
Correlation between ages, BMI and physical activity

Variables	BMI (kg/m^2)	Physical activity (MET-min·wk^{-1})
Ages	.170**	-.272**
BMI		-.237**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 3
BMI and physical activity characteristic of subjects between genders

	All		Male		Female	
	N	MET-min·wk^{-1} Mean (SD)	N	MET-min·wk^{-1} Mean (SD)	N	MET-min·wk^{-1} Mean (SD)
Underweight	19	557.94 (149.05)	10	542.07 (161.28)	9	575.44 (142.40)
Normal	169	561.76 (137.54)	108	593.61 (141.45)	61	505.37 (110.86)
At risk	129	558.55 (159.50)	63	604.68 (171.42)	66	514.53 (134.31)
Obese class I	59	445.35 (71.69)	28	457.92 (67.84)	31	434.00 (74.25)
Obese class II	10	425.70 (65.95)	5	428.400(41.63)	5	423.00 (89.64)
Total	386	539.03 (143.81)	214	572.79 (152.00)	172	497.29 (120.52)

DISCUSSION

The findings of this study showed that youth aged between 15 and 25 years old and living in the residential area of PPR Kerinchi, Kuala Lumpur had a mean BMI (M=23.13, SD=3.28) kg/m^2. The findings also showed that the females had a higher BMI than the males, and this finding was in line with previous studies in this country that showed that women were more likely to be obese than men (Tan et al., 2011; Sidik & Rampal, 2009). Of the 386 respondents, only 33 (8.5%) males and 36 (9.32%) females were categorised into obese class I and obese class II. Although the percentages were small, the problem of obesity in this area needs to be addressed, because the problem of obesity is escalating in developed and developing countries around the world (Lokuruka, 2013). The National Health and Morbidity Survey (NHMS) has reported that the rate of obesity among adults in this country increased by about two-fold over the past 10 years from 5.5% in 1996 to 14.0% in 2006, while the rate of overweight adults (BMI of 18.5 to 24.9 kg/m^2) increased from 20.7% to 29.1% (Khambalia & Seen, 2010). In 2011, the prevalence of obesity and overweight had increased to 19.5% and 33.6%, respectively (Wan Mohamud et al., 2011). The problem of obesity in this country has reached a serious level as research has shown three out of five deaths in this country has been associated with obesity (Tan et al., 2011). One study conducted in the country showed that the problem of obesity is more common among individuals who engage in less physical activity (Boo et al., 2010).

There are many factors that lead to obesity in a community, such as lack of physical activity, irregular diet pattern, intake of foods high in fat and carbohydrates, problems caused by urbanisation (Lokuruka, 2013) and the number of facilities for physical activity (Jilcott Pitts et al., 2013). Obesity should be taken seriously because obese individuals often engage in less physical activity (Tudor-Locke et al., 2010), do more sitting all day (Johannsen et al., 2008) and have lower physical competence (Rimmer et al., 2010). In addition, obesity was also associated with health problems and chronic diseases such as diabetes (Saboor Aftab, Kumar, & Barber, 2013), cardiovascular disease (Zalesin et al., 2011) and high blood pressure (Mungreiphy, Kapoor, & Sinha, 2011).

This study also demonstrated that only 39.11% of the respondents were active and achieved a moderate level of physical activity with the average MET-min·wk^{-1} (722.62, SD=93.88) for males and (629.81, SD=74.26) for females, while the rest had a low level of physical activity (429.00, SD=79.24) MET-min·wk^{-1} for males and (438.97, SD=77.40) MET-min·wk^{-1} for females. The findings also showed that males were more physically active than females. The problem of physical inactivity is not only prevalent in this region but in the entire world (Hallal et al., 2012; Tudor-Locke et al., 2010; Healy et al., 2011). According to Healy et al. (2011), adults spend about 8.44 hours indulging in sedentary lifestyle, and approximately 41.5% of adults spend at least 4 hours or more in a day sitting down (Hallal et al., 2012). The survey conducted by Tudor-Locke et al. (2010) found that adults spent approximately 56.8% of the rest of the waking day in sedentary living. Studies conducted in this country also found that people in these countries have low levels of physical activity (Soon et al., 2011; Ibrahim et al., 2013; Ayiesah et al., 2013), and according to Sreeramareddy et al. (2012), the level of physical activity of adults in this country is much lower compared to that in developed countries.

Many factors can be associated with the physical inactivity among youth in this area. Previous studies found that physical activity in residential areas could be affected by traffic safety (Jongeneel-Grimen et al., 2013), economic status (Karusisi, Thomas, Méline, & Chaix, 2013) and available infrastructure facilities such as parks and green spaces (Hanibuchi et al., 2011; Cohen et al., 2007; Amorim, Azevedo, & Hallal, 2010). According to Ishii, Shibata and Oka (2010), environmental factors could directly affect the moderate and high intensity of physical activity. Physical inactivity or a sedentary lifestyle is an issue of concern globally because physical inactivity is often associated with the increased risk of cardiometabolic disease (Warren et al., 2010), has a close relationship with mortality (Wilmot et al., 2012) and increases the risk of cardiovascular disease (Ford & Caspersen, 2012). The study also found that there was a relationship between BMI and the amount of physical activity, and this finding was in line with previous studies conducted in this country that found a significant relationship between the amount of daily energy consumption or physical activity and BMI, waist circumference and percentage of body fat (Soon et al., 2011; Ayiesah et al., 2013).

The study also aimed to determine the different levels of physical activity among groups that had different BMI values. The results of the study found that youth who are obese (BMI: 25 to 29.9 kg/m²) had a lower level of physical activity than the group of youths who were categorised as underweight, normal and risky. These findings include all respondents regardless of gender. There are many studies that have shown the relationship between obesity and level of physical activity. Johannsen et al. (2008) found that there was a significant difference in the amount of physical activity between normal and obese individuals. Recent studies also showed that individuals of all ages with low physical activity and low physical fitness were associated with an increase in the percentage of body fat (Gonzalez-Suarez & Grimmer-Somers, 2011; He et al., 2011; Leskinen et al., 2009).

Strengths and Limitations of study

This study measured the level of physical activity of a specific population with a smaller age gap i.e. between 15 and 25 years old and it used a more specific population of youths who lived in a low-cost housing project, PPR Kerinchi, Kuala Lumpur. Due to the diversity of the low-cost houses in Kuala Lumpur and their various infrastructure and facilities, these findings only represent the youth population living in the PPR only. In addition, this study used the IPAQ questionnaire as an instrument to assess the level of physical activity, so the findings of this study depend entirely on the honesty and accuracy of all the respondents.

CONCLUSION

Generally, youth who live in this residential area had a normal BMI value. However, most of them had low levels of physical activity. This study also showed that youth who were overweight were less active or less inclined to engage in physical activity. Due to the fact that physical inactivity is often associated with health problems, a strategy to promote healthy lifestyles needs to be administered, and local authorities should take into account the environmental factors that can lead to youth involvement in physical activity when developing new housing areas in the future. This is because many previous studies have demonstrated that the availability of facilities and infrastructure in the living environment could affect the level of individual participation in physical activity.

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Job Preferences among Marginalised and Non-Marginalised Youths: A Multi-Ethnic Study in Sabah

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed to explore the factors related to job preferences among youths living in marginalised and non-marginalised areas in Sabah. Four dimensions related to job preferences were identified in this study: communality, job comfort, job goals and self-realisation. The study also explored differences in job preferences by gender and ethnicity. A total of 732 youths participated in the study, including individuals from marginalised (N=521) and non-marginalised (N=211) communities. The study found no significant differences in job preferences among marginalised and non-marginalised youths in Sabah. Job comfort was found to be the key factor determining job preferences among youths. In terms of gender, job preferences among young men and women differed only in the dimension of communality in non-marginalised communities and in the dimension of self-realisation in marginalised communities. In terms of ethnicity, there were no significant differences for non-marginalised youth, but significant differences existed in the dimension of self-realisation for marginalised youth. This study's findings can contribute to the development of government policies aiming to help young people find employment.

Keywords: Job Preferences, marginalised, multi-ethnic, non-marginalised, youth

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INTRODUCTION

A job represents a social function and the main channel through which a young man or woman can engage in society after completing formal education (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 2001). Employment is not only important to the role formation of individual youths in

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society, it also brings young people into association with each other (Blustein, Phillips, Jobin-Davis, Finkelberg, & Roarke, 1997). Employment provides an extensive network of social relations while helping youths discover opportunities, develop self-awareness and acquire economic resources. However, before they may begin work, youths 15 years old to 30 years old are typically faced with the challenge of choosing a job. Job priorities are likely to be affected by a number of socio-demographic diversity factors such as age, sex and area of residence (Willis, 1990). In addition, parental employment history and academic performance also influence job preferences (Kerka, 2000). In Malaysia, the development of job preferences occurs when a young person has had the opportunity to assess all areas of interest that could play a role in their future work, to take into account parental viewpoints and to select a type of job that is logical and based on academic background.

Because younger generations represent a country's future political, social and economic development, their priorities in job selection often attract attention in Malaysia (Seo, Khairul, Amalina, & Somsubhra, 2014). Both marginalised and non-marginalised youths will face future challenges in finding job opportunities, and these challenges will affect not only the younger generation, but society at large. In the future, issues facing the country will include creating jobs that Malaysian youths want to fill.

The role of the current generation of youths is the same as that of all other generations: to contribute to the economic growth and social development of the country. It is very important that active young individuals find sufficient and satisfactory job opportunities in order to obtain resources and become thriving, productive members of society.

In discussing job preferences among youths, one must distinguish between marginalised and non-marginalised youths, as these two groups often face different challenges in obtaining employment (Seo et al., 2014). Marginalisation occurs when individuals are deterred from any opportunity to develop themselves, when they are isolated from participation in society or when they are deprived of certain rights that are enjoyed by the dominant group. Marginalisation impacts a youth's ability to serve as an active member of society in the economic, cultural and political spheres and affects that individual's future job opportunities. Marginalisation occurs not because of an individual's failure or lack of talent or merit, but rather, because of his or her socio-economic status. Compared to marginalised youths, non-marginalised youths enjoy more opportunities for development, are more actively involved as members of society and do not face as many difficulties in finding job opportunities. Marginalisation refers to youth who are staying in poverty level where their income level is only RM760 per month (Seo et al., 2014).

PROBLEM STATEMENT

The youth generation is the age group between 15 and 30 years that tends to be most affected by mainstream development (Seo et al., 2014). Mainstream development presents youths as facing challenges in finding and securing employment as they are forced to compete in the job market with other groups of workers such as migrant workers. Marginalisation also affects the ability of youths, especially marginalised youths, to fulfil their roles in society. Youths who are marginalised from mainstream development tend to have less control over their lives and fewer economic resources compared to non-marginalised youths (Seo et al., 2014). These youths have fewer opportunities to obtain work and they face higher levels of competition; these factors can lead to their feeling decreased levels of self-confidence and self-esteem.

In modern society, employment is seen not only as a source of financial security and the means through which to serve society, but also as a source of identity and self-esteem (Karlsen, 2001). A young person's job is a symbol of the role he or she plays as a member of society. To have a job can also indicate that youths accept their jobs, having selected their jobs based on their own preference. However, the challenges faced by youths in obtaining employment influence the evolution of future job preference. Job preference impact the lives of both current and future generations (Karlsen, 2001).

Karlsen (2001) discussed the ways in which two types of confrontation, direct confrontation and indirect confrontation, could influence job preference among youths. Direct confrontation refers to the socialisation of labour within a specific working culture or, in other words, it refers to work-orientated job options. On the other hand, indirect confrontation refers to the exposure to the working world that is received through the social environment before one begins work (Bourdieu, 1990). For example, a youth is exposed to the world of work through observation of the work experiences of his or her parents and other adults close to him or her during childhood and adolescence. This observation of the experiences of others influences a young person's future job preference (Berka, 2000). According to Karlsen (2001), indirect confrontation influences one's orientation, selection of jobs and attitude towards work; this means social environment affects their job selection.

Willis (1990) explained that youths tend to depend on the formation of identity in choosing a job; society uses jobs as status symbols, with the ability to act freely and creatively in one's work signifying high status. Youths often find themselves in situations in which they lack control over their work assignments (Willis, 1990). Ziehe (1993) also emphasised that youths face dissonance between their expectations of work and the realities of working life, as in modern society youths are not given a wide choice in employment, nor do they enjoy much freedom to move about or express their creativity within the norms that have been established for a specific industry or field. Therefore, youths can develop their job preferences based on the desire for a certain outcome, but the factors influencing job preference are likely to be frustrating due to conflict with social expectations (Creed & Scully, 2000; Karlsen, 2001).

Demographic factors such as gender can influence job preference (Willis, 1990). Young women in Malaysia tend to be influenced by their desire to be perceived as committed to the home and household rather than to the working world (Seo et al., 2014). Even in a modern society in which working women have been accepted, negative connotations still exist in relation to job placement for women, especially when it comes to job selection. It is perceived that some jobs should not be pursued by women, such as that of technician or pilot. It is also believed that young men should not be involved in work that is dominated by women, such as jobs in the culinary field or fashion design. Therefore, there is the question of whether job preference among young men and women is influenced by genuine interest in the job or by other factors, such as familial influence.

Ethnicity is another demographic factor that has been found to impact job preference among youths (Bandura et al., 2001). Such an impact is usually found in societies that have a variety of ethnic groups, such as is the case in Sabah. Among certain ethnicities, traditional perspectives often influence job preference. For example, ethnic Malays often choose jobs related to agriculture or public administration, while ethnic Chinese often choose work that involves business or trade (Seo et al., 2014). Job preference is traditionally influenced by factors such as parental occupation. However, in the context of modern society, factors other than tradition may influence job preference among youths.

Thus, this study was conducted to explore the factors that influence job preference among youths based on four dimensions of job choice: communality, job goals, job comfort and self-realisation (Kalsen, 2001). These factors were determined to encapsulate modern influences on job preference. The study also engaged in comparative analysis based on the demographic factors of gender and ethnic group (Malays, Chinese and other ethnic groups in Sabah).

This study has the following objectives: 1) to study the differences in job preference among marginalised and non-marginalised youth in Sabah; 2) to study the differences in job preference in terms of gender in Sabah; and 3) to study the differences in job preference in terms of ethnicity in Sabah.

METHODOLOGY

Research Instrument and Participants

This study used the quantitative method in the form of a survey questionnaire. The sample consisted of 732 youths aged between 15 years old and 30 years old from Sabah. The respondents were divided into two groups: marginalised youths (N=521) and non-marginalised youths (N=211).

The questionnaire was adapted from the survey on work preference used by Karlsen (2001). Karlsen's original instrument contained 13 items influencing job preference, and it grouped these items into four dimensions. Each dimension described job characteristics that influence preference: altruism, job orientation, safety and comfort and self-realisation. In this study, the researchers kept Karlsen's 13 items and added four items to suit the objectives of the study in Sabah. Thus, the instrument used in this study included 17 items. Four dimensions were derived using factor analysis: communality, job goals, job comfort and the capacity for self-realisation through the job. The survey respondents ranked the importance of each item in influencing their job preference using a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 'not important' to 'very important'. The questionnaire also contained demographic questions on age, gender and ethnicity.

Data Analysis

The researchers used t-tests in data analysis to test for differences between marginalised and non-marginalised youths. In addition, researchers also used ANOVA to test for differences of ethnicity within the groups of marginalised and non-marginalised youths.

RESULTS

Differences in Job Preferences between Marginalised and Non-Marginalised Youths

As can be seen in Table 1, job comfort was the main dimension influencing overall job preferences among both marginal and non-marginal youth populations. Job comfort includes factors such as freedom, satisfaction, independent work time, high income, lack of limitations, competition, ability to make decisions and take risks. The non-marginalised youth displayed a slightly higher mean value for job comfort (4.261) than did the marginalised youth (4.179). The second factor influencing job preference was the capacity for self-realisation, which included the inclusion of

Table 1
Group differences (marginalised and non-marginalised) by the four dimensions of job preference

Dimensions of Job Preference	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Communality Non-Marginalised (Mean=3.53, SD=0.82) Marginalised (Mean=3.56, SD=0.77)	-0.491	730	0.624
Job Goals Non-Marginalised (Mean=3.83, SD=0.81) Marginalised (Mean=3.86, SD=0.73)	-0.391	730	0.696
Job Comfort Non-Marginalised (Mean=4.26, SD=0.68) Marginalised (Mean=4.18, SD=0.77)	1.343	730	0.180
Self-Realisation Non-Marginalised (Mean=4.21, SD=3.44) Marginalised (Mean=3.90, SD=0.88)	1.923	730	0.055

considerations such as artistic and religious values and virtue in choosing a job. It was found that non-marginalised youths valued self-realisation slightly higher (4.208) than marginalised youths (3.896). The third factor was job goals, which included goals for higher wages, the nature of the job and accumulation of power. It was found that the marginalised youths showed a higher mean value (3.856) compared to the non-marginalised youths (3.832) in this dimension. Communality was the fourth dimension, and it included factors such as work location, familiarity with colleagues, work satisfaction, job creation and work atmosphere. The marginalised youths placed slightly more importance on communality (3.559) compared to the non-marginalised youths (3.527). The analysis showed no significant differences between the marginalised and non-marginalised youths in terms of job preference.

Job Preference by Gender

Non-marginalised. Table 2 shows the comparison between male and female respondents within the marginalised and

Table 2
Group differences (marginalised and non-marginalised) by the four dimensions of job preference

Dimensions of Job Preference	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
MARGINALISED			
Communality Male (Mean=3.66, SD=0.76) Female (Mean=3.42, SD=0.86)	2.066	209	0.040
Job Goals Male (Mean=3.88, SD=0.79) Female (Mean=3.79, SD=0.83)	0.777	209	0.438
Job Comforts Male (Mean=4.17, SD=0.66) Female (Mean=4.33, SD=0.68)	-1.735	209	0.084
Self-Realisation Male (Mean=0.85, SD=1.00) Female (Mean=4.50, SD=4.54)	-1.363	209	0.174
NON-MARGINALISED			
Communality Male (Mean=3.55, SD=0.79) Female (Mean=3.57, SD=0.75)	-0.273	519	0.785
Job Goals Male (Mean=3.86, SD=0.77) Female (Mean=3.86, SD=0.70)	-0.025	519	0.980
Job comfort Male (Mean=4.14, SD=0.82) Female (Mean = 4.21, SD = 0.71)	-0.947	519	0.344
Self-Realisation Male (Mean=3.80, SD=0.87) Female (Mean=3.99, SD=0.88)	-2.487	519	0.013

non-marginalised groups that was carried out using t-tests. For non-marginalised youths, the only dimension with a significant difference between male and female respondents was communality, with the young women displaying higher mean scores for this dimension. In other words, the non-marginalised young women in Sabah preferred jobs that were located close to where they lived, that allowed them to become familiar with their work colleagues and that provided them with opportunities to assist others. No significant differences were found between male and female respondents for the dimensions of job goals, job comfort and the capacity for self-realisation. This indicates that both male and female youths in Sabah may be similarly influenced by job goals, job comfort and the desire for self-realisation. Job preference among both male and female non-marginalised youths is driven by factors such as the perceived freedom and ability to exercise artistic talent and creativity in different types of work, to achieve income security and to possess potential for promotion.

Marginalised. Among marginalised youths, self-realisation was the only dimension that demonstrated significant differences between males and females. Young women who lived in marginalised areas displayed higher mean scores for self-realisation compared with their male counterparts. In other words, young women in marginalised areas placed more importance on working in abstract or artistic fields or in social welfare when choosing a career. Meanwhile, no differences were found between marginalised men and women in the dimensions of communality, job goals and job comfort.

Job Preference by Ethnicity

This research also included ethnicity as an identifying factor for respondents in both non-marginalised and marginalised areas. Three major ethnicities were identified: Malay, Chinese and 'other'. The respondents who identified themselves as natives of Sabah, Sarawak or other locations in Malaysia were pooled into the 'other' category. This categorisation took into account the fact that a small population of ethnic groups from Sarawak and other areas were living in Sabah during the course of the study.

Table 3 shows that all three ethnicities were represented in the groups of marginalised and non-marginalised youths. A one-way ANOVA analysis was then undertaken to identify differences between the ethnicities in terms of the four dimensions influencing job preference.

Table 3
Number of respondents of each ethnicity

Group	Race	Frequency	Percent
Non-marginalised	Malay	46	21.8
	Chinese	50	23.7
	Others	115	54.5
	Total	211	100.0
Marginalised	Malay	110	21.1
	Chinese	123	23.6
	Others	288	55.3
	Total	521	100.0

Non-marginalised. Table 4 shows that the ANOVA analyses found no differences between the three main ethnic groups in non-marginalised areas in the context of the four dimensions of job preference. All ethnicities in the non-marginalised population developed job preference based on work location, salary, potential for promotion or quality of life. This gives the impression that for mainstream youths, job preference was not made based on ethnic factors or considerations. These findings suggest that the factors leading to the selection of work are similar for all youths in non-marginalised areas of Sabah.

Table 4
Comparison of dimensions influencing job preference between ethnicities within the population of non-marginalised youths

Dimension	Ethnicity	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	ANOVA Result
Communality	Malay	46	3.36	0.81	[*F*(2, 208)=1.81, *p*=0.17].
	Chinese	50	3.67	0.90	
	Others	115	3.53	0.79	
	Total	211	3.53	0.82	
Job Goals	Malay	46	3.70	0.90	[*F*(2, 208)=1.24, *p*=0.29].
	Chinese	50	3.77	0.89	
	Others	115	3.91	0.74	
	Total	211	3.83	0.81	
Job Comfort	Malay	46	4.28	0.54	[*F*(2, 208)=0.24, *p*=0.79].
	Chinese	50	4.31	0.79	
	Others	115	4.23	0.67	
	Total	211	4.26	0.68	
Self-Realisation	Malay	46	4.14	0.80	[*F*(2, 208)=1.76, *p*=0.17].
	Chinese	50	3.47	1.09	
	Others	115	4.56	4.54	
	Total	211	4.20	3.44	

Marginalised. Table 5 shows the dimensions of job preference among the tribes that live in marginalised areas. The ANOVA results showed that among marginalised youths, the importance placed on self-realisation differed by ethnic group ($p=0.00$). The marginalised young Malays participating in the study displayed a higher tendency to choose work that is abstract and welfare-orientated compared with the Chinese and other ethnicities. These findings suggest that young Malays living in marginalised areas prioritise work that is of a more artistic and welfare-orientated nature. In the other dimensions tested, one-way ANOVA analyses found no significant differences between ethnic groups in marginalised areas.

Table 5
Comparison of dimensions influencing job preferences between ethnicities within the population of marginalised youths

Dimension	Race	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	ANOVA Result
Communality	Malay	110	3.60	0.85	[F(2, 518)=1.66, p=0.19].
	Chinese	123	3.65	0.83	
	Others	288	3.51	0.71	
	Total	521	3.56	0.77	
Job Goals	Malay	110	3.90	0.78	[F(2, 518)=1.23, p=0.29].
	Chinese	123	3.77	0.73	
	Others	288	3.88	0.71	
	Total	521	3.86	0.73	
Job Comfort	Malay	110	4.19	0.70	[F(2, 518)=0.35, p=0.70].
	Chinese	123	4.22	0.82	
	Others	288	4.16	0.78	
	Total	521	4.18	0.77	
Self-Realisation	Malay	110	4.08	0.68	[F(2, 518)=8.72, p=0.00].
	Chinese	123	3.63	1.02	
	Others	288	3.94	0.87	
	Total	521	3.89	0.88	

DISCUSSION

The results clearly illustrate that there is a significant difference in how communality and job goals influenced job preference among the sampled marginalised and non-marginalised youths. In terms of communality, the non-marginalised youths showed higher preference for jobs that allowed them to work close to home, become familiar with colleagues and help other people. They also preferred to have jobs that made them happy, and they wanted jobs that were valued by mainstream society.

In terms of self-realisation, the non-marginalised youths placed emphasis on finding work that aided in the development of artistic, religious and welfare-orientated outcomes. This means that non-marginalised youths chose jobs that emphasised a positive social relationship with the workplace environment. This dimension also emphasised social relationships that fostered interdependence and helped individuals navigate the workplace environment. In addition, this dimension emphasises artistic and creative goals in choosing a job. Typically, non-marginalised youths who have artistic and creative abilities choose jobs that provide opportunities to display such talent. This is because job choices tend to coincide with individual interests and personalities among non-marginalised youths. Moreover, the ability to display one's personality in one's work will contribute to the worker's sense of personal satisfaction and joy.

No significant differences were found between the marginalised and non-marginalised youths in the dimensions of job goals and communality. This finding needs to be given greater attention in future research, as the youths in this study did not show a preference for the type of work they chose for a regular income. The non-marginalised youths placed more emphasis on work that allowed freedom and work related to art and religion. This finding is new in the literature, and it suggests that future generations will no longer focus on the type of work that is prevalent now or on work that yields a stable income.

In terms of job goals, wages were no longer a motivating factor for non-marginalised youths in choosing a particular field of work. In addition, obtaining the status that accompanied permanent employment did not necessarily provide non-marginalised youths with satisfaction, because they may have felt that such status no longer reflected their true identity. Both marginalised and non-marginalised youths increasingly sought work that they felt was satisfying.

The marginalised and non-marginalised youths surveyed in this study did not choose communality as a main factor influencing their job choices. The youths were more concerned with self-reliance and did not pay as much attention to the particulars of location of the job or social relationships they could foster in the workplace. The youths seemed to have an open mind and an inherent desire to learn something new. This attitude provides an opportunity for youths to learn new skills, such as computer skills and soft skills. This attitude will also help youths become more independent and competitive in the workplaces of the future.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Based on these findings, the researchers were able to identify the main factors influencing job preference among marginalised and non-marginalised youths. The factors that were identified can contribute to the implementation of government policies designed to increase youths' future job earnings and to reduce the rate of youth unemployment. This includes invention to make more youths involved in entrepreneurship.

This study aimed to determine the different factors influencing job preference among marginalised and non-marginalised youths. The study found that the dimensions of communality and job goals have different impacts on job preference between groups of marginalised and non-marginalised youths. In addition, the study considered differences in job preference by gender and ethnicity. The study found that there was a significant difference between the three ethnic groups in all factors influencing job preference.

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Civic and Political Participation: A Study of Marginalised and Mainstream Youth in Malaysia

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ABSTRACT

Embedded in democratic constitutions are the rights and freedoms that accompany citizenship, and these rights and freedoms include participation. The central concept of social participation is that citizens can transform themselves from passive bystanders into actively involved citizens working towards what they perceive to be the public good. It is crucial for young generations to participate in socio-political activities, as the development of any society in large part has to do with this demography. This paper examines the offline civic and political participation of 15 to 25-year-olds in Malaysia. The paper is based on a nation-wide survey of 5,042 youth members in Malaysia both from marginalised and mainstream communities. The findings show that this demographic is more active in civic participation as compared to political participation. The top three forms of participation were found to be forms of civic participation, with the least amount of participation found in the political sphere. While mainstream youth appear to have a higher amount of participation compared to those from marginalised communities, their participation is still average overall. Additional resources are thus needed for the economic, cultural and social development of the youth in Malaysia to support future trends in participation. A level playing field is required for young people both from marginalised and mainstream communities to improve their social participation.

Keywords: Civic participation, Malaysia, marginalised community, political participation, young generation

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INTRODUCTION

At the beginning of the 21st century, there are now over a billion young people between the ages of 15 and 24, of whom 85% live in developing countries, mainly in urban settings (CIA World Fact Book, 2014). Many of these young people are in the process of making, or have already made the transition from educational studies to the workplace. Over the last two decades throughout the world, as new workers, these young people have faced a number of challenges associated with globalisation and technological advances in labour markets (ILO, 2004; ILO, 2005). The development of any society in large part has to do with its younger generations. It is therefore crucial for these demographics to participate in the socio-political activities of their nations.

Such participation can come in either offline or online form (Salman & Saad, 2015). Traditional offline political participation has long been the domain of certain groups, in particular, those with high levels of income and education. However, opportunities for political activity have increased along with the development of the Internet. This study sought to gain knowledge as to whether the current opportunities for online political engagement have the potential to change traditional forms of political participation (Smith, Schlozman, Verba, & Brady, 2009).

Smith, Schlozman, Verba and Brady (2009) have developed separate scales to measure both online and offline political participation in relation to five political activities. As the focus of this paper is on participation, the offline activities discussed by Smith et al. (2009) will be the focus of examination in this study, which include contacting a government official in person by phone or letter, signing a paper petition, sending a letter to the editor through a postal service, making a political contribution in person by phone or through the mail, communicating with a civic/political group in face-to-face meetings, printing a letter or newsletter or calling. Smith et al. (2009) classified respondents as "active offline" if they took part in two or more of these activities throughout a year. In the case of the United States, 27% of American adults took part in two or more of these offline activities.

For the younger generations in Malaysia, save for discussing current issues featured in the media, political participation is below average as compared to other developing countries. This failure to participate may be due to lack of interest in politics among Malaysian youth, who are by and large comfortable with their lives and go unbothered by issues related to politics (Salman & Saad, 2015).

At the global level, entire societies can be marginalised, whereas at the national level classes and communities can be marginalised by a dominant social order. Furthermore, ethnic groups, families and individuals can be marginalised within specific localities (Eldering & Knorth, 1998). To a certain extent, marginalisation is a shifting phenomenon that is linked to social status. For example, certain individuals or groups might enjoy high social status at one point in time, but as social change takes place, they lose this status and become marginalised. Similarly, as the stages of individuals' life cycles change, so too does the nature of marginalisation.

At certain stages of one's life cycle, the risk of marginalisation can either increase or decrease. For example, the potential marginalised status of children and youth may decrease as they grow older, while the potential marginalised status of adults may increase as they become elderly. In addition, the potential marginalised status of single mothers may change as their children grow up.

Leonard (1984) defines marginality as "being outside the mainstream of productive activity and/or social reproductive activity" (p.180). This definition relates to two groups: a relatively small group of people who are voluntarily marginal to the social order e.g. new age travellers, certain religious sects, commune members and artists, and those who are involuntarily socially marginal, whom Leonard (1984) characterises as people remaining outside "the major arena of capitalist productive and reproductive activity," and as such, they experience "involuntary social marginality" (p.181). For the purposes of this paper, the focus here is more on the involuntary marginalised within marginalised communities.

The typical impacts of marginalisation in terms of social exclusion are often similar regardless of the causes or processes behind marginalisation, be they social attitudes e.g. towards impairment, sexuality, ethnicity etc. or social circumstances e.g. closure of workplace and absence of affordable housing etc.. Furthermore, marginalised people react differently to marginalisation depending on the personal and social resources available to them (Burton & Kagan, 1996). The authorities of a country must pay attention to factors that can alleviate the predicament of the marginalised in order to bring them into the mainstream community.

While attempting to understand social participation among the younger generations in Malaysia, this paper compares between mainstream community and marginalised communities. The former comprises people who are better off in terms of income, environment and exposure to opportunities due to their social environment. More broadly, the paper examines the civic and political participation of those aged 15 to 25 in Malaysia based on a nation-wide survey of 5,042 young people. Marginalised and mainstream youth are then compared in terms of the differences, if any, in their social participation. Implications for the nation are presented in the conclusion of this paper.

Civic and Political Participation

Embedded in democratic constitutions are the rights and freedoms that accompany citizenship, and these rights and freedoms include participation. The central concept of social participation is that citizens can transform themselves from passive bystanders into actively involved citizens working towards what they perceive to be the public good. Kim (2007) suggested that participation in democracies should go beyond voting and should include participation in government processes.

Meijer, Burger and Ebbers (2009) suggested three forms of participation: political participation, policy participation and social (civic) participation. The focus of this paper is on political and civic participation. This does not mean that political and civic participation are here taken to have no influence on policy. Rather, these two forms of participation are understood to impact policy indirectly.

Political participation refers to the actions of citizens who aim to influence the selection and behaviour of political decision-makers. Social or civic participation refers to the relations between citizens and government, and also includes interaction between citizens. Active involvement among citizens may take the form of making demands of a political and administrative system, including the development of mutual support systems to reach common goals. According to Rowe and Frewer (2000), the reasons for developing forms of citizen participation typically vary, from the recognition of basic human rights related to democracy and procedural justice to the practical recognition that public participation may result in more support for government policies.

According to Norris (2003), political participation has undergone a significant transformation, from involvement in interest groups to new social movements, the conventional repertoire of interest groups to protest politics and state-orientated change to a multiplicity of target agencies. As one of the new political forums of the youth, communications technology such as the Internet have changed political participation from direct, linear communication to network-based approaches.

The younger generations in Malaysia appear to lack interest in politics as the results of this study would later show. In a global report on voter turnout, Pintor and Gratschew (2002) suggested that lack of confidence in political institutions and high levels of social inequality in society have led to greater bias against political participation among socially-deprived groups. Indeed, Putnam (2000) argued that social trust and civic engagement declined significantly in the United States at the end of the 20th century due to increasing lack of trust in the social system and individualistic tendencies.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Based on the findings of this study (Table 1), the younger generations of Malaysia can be said to be more active in offline civic participation compared to political participation. The top three forms of participation among the youth fell into the category of civic participation, including ‘talking to friends or family members on current issues published by the media’, ‘involved in recycling activities’ and ‘engage in charity work and welfare’.

The youth least participated in ‘activities organised by political parties’, ‘meet with elective representatives to solve a problem/ give opinions’ and ‘wear a badge/sticker to support/refute an issue’, all of which fall into the category of political participation. Thus, political participation among the younger generations in Malaysia can be understood to be below average as compared with in other developing countries. Perhaps this is due to the fact that, given their

Table 1
Civic and political participation

	Mean*	SD
Discussion with friends or family members on current issues published by the media	3.19	1.14
Involved in recycling activities	2.78	1.15
Involved in charity work and welfare	2.70	1.18
Volunteer to help the poor/disabled/victims of natural disasters	2.70	1.17
Report crimes in my residence to the police	2.52	1.21
Lodge complaints about services used/public property damage/ unsatisfactory government service	2.48	1.19
Meet personally with government officials to solve a problem	2.25	1.20
Contact the media to give an opinion on a particular issue (opinions/ complaints/awards/backup)	2.24	1.19
Participate in activities organised by political parties	2.04	1.22
Meet with elected representatives to solve a problem/give opinions	2.03	1.15
Wear badges/stickers to support/refute an issue	1.98	1.13

Note: *Rarely (1) to Very often (5)

circumstances at a young age, youth first begin with exposure to civic participation. This might also be due to the fact that a large number of the respondents are still furthering their education. Moreover, the Malaysian tertiary education laws prohibit students from being involved in politics.

The means of the two categories of participation were compared to determine any differences between the mainstream and marginalised groups (Table 2). Overall, both groups showed significant civic participation and low political participation. Comparatively, however, the mainstream group scored higher than the marginalised in the top three participation areas (i.e. 'talk to friends or family members on current issues published by the media', 'involved in recycling activities' and 'engage in charity work and welfare'. Furthermore, the mainstream group scored higher in terms of political participation e.g. concerning 'wear a badge/sticker to support/refute an issue', 'meet with elected representatives to solve a problem/give opinions' and 'participate in activities organised by political parties'.

Further analysis (Table 3) of the means of the two categories of participation among the mainstream and marginalised groups revealed the mainstream group to be significantly more active in both political and civic participation.

It is evident from the data of this study that the majority of participants were more active in online rather than offline civic and political activities. The implication of this is that more young people in Malaysia are becoming passive in terms of tangible contributions to the development of their country, which is a trend that should be

Table 2
A comparison of participation among the marginalised and mainstream (non-marginalised) respondents

	Respondents Category			
	Mainstream		Marginalised	
	Mean*	SD	Mean*	SD
Talk to friends or family members about current issues published in the media	3.23	1.14	3.15	1.15
Involved in recycling activities	2.84	1.17	2.74	1.13
Involved in charity work and welfare	2.71	1.19	2.69	1.17
Volunteer to help the poor/disabled/victims of natural disasters	2.70	1.19	2.69	1.15
Report a crime in my residence to the police	2.54	1.23	2.49	1.19
Lodge complaints against services used/public property damage/unsatisfactory government service	2.52	1.20	2.46	1.18
Meet personally with government officials to solve a problem	2.30	1.26	2.20	1.15
Contact the media to offer an opinion on a particular issue (opinions/complaints/awards/back-up)	2.29	1.22	2.20	1.16
Participate in activities organised by political parties	2.08	1.15	1.99	1.12
Meet with the elected representatives to solve a problem/ give opinions	2.08	1.25	2.00	1.18
Wear badges/stickers to support/refute an issue	2.04	1.15	1.99	1.12

Note: *Rarely (1) to Very often (5)

Table 3
A comparison among Malaysian youth

	Group	N	Mean*	SD	Sig.
CIVPA	Mainstream Community	2251	2.69	0.90	0.023
	Marginalised Community	2791	2.63	0.88	0.024
POLPA	Mainstream Community	2251	2.12	1.02	0.001
	Marginalised Community	2791	2.03	0.92	0.001

Notes: *Rarely (1) to Very Often (5)
CIVPA = civic participation, POLPA = political participation

quickly addressed and critically examined as it could lead to passive citizenship. The findings of the study also show that political participation among the younger generations in Malaysia is below average compared to other developing countries. Eleven items were used to measure the offline civic and political activities of Malaysian youth in this study. Among these items, ‘talk to friends or family members about current issues published by the media’ (mean=3.19) is compared to youth engagement activities. This item is followed by youths who claimed that they were involved in recycling activities (mean=2.78), with involvement in charity work and welfare sharing the same mean (2.70) as volunteering to help the poor/disabled/victims of natural disasters. The means of the other items are as follows: Report a crime in my residence to the police (mean=2.52), lodge complaints about services used/public property damage/unsatisfactory government service (mean=2.48), meet personally with government officials to solve problems (mean=2.25) and contact the media to offer an opinion on a particular issue (opinions/complaints/awards/back-up) (mean=2.24).

The three activities least participated in by the youths were participation in activities organised by political parties (mean=2.04), meeting with elected representatives to solve a problem/give an opinion (mean=2.03) and wear badges to support/refute an issue (mean=1.98). By limiting themselves to online activities, the youth add their voice, yet their active, physical involvement in civic and political activities is questionable. Democracy thrives on active participation, and any society seeking to optimally develop relies on the engagement of its citizens in civic activities.

Table 2 shows a comparison between the marginalised and non-marginalised (mainstream) groups in terms of their offline participation in political activities and civic engagement. As can be seen from the table, the non-marginalised group has a higher involvement in the two areas of examination. The reasons for this could be many. For one, the affluence of the mainstream youth may be a strong influence in this regard. The mainstream due to their affluence have the opportunity for exposure. On the whole, from the results of this study, one could say that there is low participation among both the marginalised and mainstream youth. This could be due to the advent of the Internet, which has potentially affected the way people participate in national issues and activities. Those who are inactive online may be considered old-fashioned by the youth. The world has unquestionably moved into the age of the information super-highway.

Desire to participate may also be low among the marginalised youth due to the perception that their contributions may not be appreciated by others or that such participation may reinforce discrimination or bias (NDI, 2015). The NDI (2015) defines marginalisation as persistent inequality and adversity resulting from discrimination, social stigma and stereotypes. Such marginalisation has been the case for many youths across the globe, thus raising fear among youth and governments of for sustainable development and nation-building when the present adult leaders leave their positions.

As stated earlier, non-marginalised youths were found to greater participate in civic and political activities, and the activeness of this group can be linked to the reasons discussed above. However, as one study of the younger generations in eight EU countries has revealed, it may also be that the younger generations in Malaysia are simply not interested in politics. In the mentioned study, although many felt an allegiance to a certain party, the youth expressed little trust in political parties in general. Indeed, the EU has recognised a trend of disengagement from traditional forms of political participation (Isin & Turner, 2002).

CONCLUSION

Based on the above discussion, it is clear that the younger generations of Malaysia currently lag behind their counterparts in other developing countries in terms of social participation, especially with regard to political engagement. While those from mainstream communities appear to show higher levels of participation compared to those from marginalised communities, the participation of the former is still average. The current offline political participation of youth in Malaysia has significant implications on policy, especially given the 21st century agenda of encouraging younger generations to contribute more to their country. Resources are thus needed for the economic, cultural and social development of the younger generations in Malaysia to support future trends in participation. Such resources will provide a level playing field for young people both from marginalised and mainstream communities, which in turn will improve participation. As it is now, the mainstream is more exposed to opportunities. Hence, by providing resources to support development of the marginalised, the playing field could be level.

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Digital Engagement: A Preliminary Analysis of Marginalized Youth in the Information Society

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ABSTRACT

Efforts have been made to narrow the digital divide in disadvantaged communities through increased investment in Internet infrastructure, with such initiatives particularly advanced by community-based facilities. The hope is for such investment to afford more underprivileged groups the benefits of 21st century society, where many public services are, by default, accessible online. Accordingly, this study focusses on how 15-to-25-year-old Malaysian youths in marginalised communities engage with the Internet in performing various activities in their everyday lives. The findings indicate that the majority of these individuals have access to the Internet but that their engagement spans only basic activities such as communication and uploading and downloading of materials. In terms of intermediate and advanced activities, the investigated youths minimally shop online, search for educational materials and participate in civic and political causes. The results also indicate that attitudes towards the Internet considerably influence the decision of Malaysian youth to occupy themselves with digital activities. Fostering a digitally-inclusive society necessitates expanding digital engagement beyond basic activities – a goal that can be achieved by improving the digital literacy of youth and offering them participatory literacy programmes.

Keywords: Digital engagement, digital inclusion, Internet, participation, young generation

INTRODUCTION

The information society is characterised by the high volume of information made possible by the Internet in everyday life through access to technologies that are compatible with a wide range of personal, social, educational and business activities.

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Through these technologies, citizens can rapidly transmit, receive and exchange digital data, irrespective of distance. Technologies, specifically information and communication technologies (ICTs), are enablers; they are powerful catalysts for improving citizens' lives and wellbeing. For these innovations to truly elevate quality of life, however, the information society should be an inclusive community, where no disadvantaged segments of a population are prevented from realising their life pursuits. Building an encompassing information society, therefore, means ensuring that every person migrates from processes underlain by old paradigms to those grounded in cyberspace. An important goal in this regard is to close the gap between the information rich and the information poor. Marginalised populations should be afforded resources that help them acquire the skills and literacy necessary to effectively adopt new technologies. This access not only accelerates efforts to reduce the digital gap but also reduces the divide in economic, civic and political participation.

Central to the changing media landscape in the information society are Millennials, or individuals who were born after the mid 1980s. According to Wilhelm (2004), Millennials believe in the future, are involved in civil society and conceive themselves to be on the leading edge of progress, especially in terms of mastering new technologies. The youth of this generation spend most of their leisure hours on digital technologies and online activities. E-mailing, instant messaging and updating personal activities on social media are increasingly popular undertakings as are downloading music and movie files and buying products online. The Millennial generation represents the future.

Nevertheless, despite the presence of a generation that represents the future, their access to digital technologies is unequally distributed. All societies suffer from social exclusion and alienation, which also deny marginalised communities access to basic ICT infrastructure. In many instances, this problem is compounded by the lack of digital literacy that enables individuals to maximise the benefits that technologies offer. Recent developments in mobile technologies have provided opportunities for people in remote areas to gain access to the Internet. With respect to the Millennial generation, these developments give rise to questions of "digital choice," that is, whether digital exclusion pertains only to lack of access to technology or also encompasses attitudinal and cultural barriers.

In Malaysia, 73% of its 30 million population live in urban areas. The Internet penetration rate in the country is 70%, which is achieved mainly through broadband services. Supplementary connection for underserved areas is based primarily on a community approach, which involves establishing initiatives such as 1Malaysia Internet Services and 1Malaysia Wireless Villages. Another interesting attribute of the country is that 15-to-24-year-old youth account for 17% of the total population but 36% of Internet usage (MCMC, 2014). A 2012 report by the International

Telecommunication Union (ITU) ranks Malaysia as fourth in the world in terms of youth populations who are active Internet users. These "digital natives," labelled by ITU as those who have been actively using the Internet for the last five years, represent three-quarters of Malaysia's youth population (Malay Mail, 2012, October 12). Although these data indicate a high level of Internet usage among the country's youth, they do not explain what these digital natives do on the Internet and what characteristics or factors drive active engagement online. Do marginalised youth communities have the same opportunities to use the Internet as those extended to their counterparts from privileged families?

This paper presents preliminary findings on digital engagement among the youth of marginalised communities in Malaysia, a developing nation in pursuit of becoming a developed country by 2020. The discussion focusses on how the country's young generation uses the various opportunities offered by the Internet in their daily lives. Are these marginalised youth, who may be economically disadvantaged, also excluded from digital engagement, thus creating a digital underclass?

A Generation Divided

The initial debate about the digital divide concerns access to ICTs. Investment in technological infrastructure is considerably high, but many investment decisions prioritise commercial value rather than social outcomes. In a way, then, the digital divide widens the already existing gap between the rich and the poor, between urban and rural areas or between developed and underdeveloped regions. In the context of the youth, certain segments are digitally included and excluded; this is a problem perpetuated by socioeconomic status or place of residence.

In discussing her concerns regarding the digital divide, Helsper (2011) highlighted the need to provide the socially disadvantaged with Internet access and use digital resources to help improve their wellbeing. In typical circumstances, a socially marginalised group is also digitally excluded because of lack of access; such deficiency stems from the fact that the members of this group cannot afford the high expense associated with acquiring technological hardware. The challenge thus lies in formulating strategies for including socially excluded populations in the digital revolution. Similar concerns are voiced by Warren (2007), who argues that narrowing the digital divide will only disenfranchise the most disadvantaged and vulnerable sectors of society if they are unable to use technological developments to their benefit. As the Internet becomes the default communication medium, minorities become progressively disadvantaged, first in relative and then in absolute terms.

A focus group research conducted by Newman, Biedrzycsi and Broom (2010) identified broad differences in frequency, quality of use, skills, confidence and trust among low-income and disadvantaged groups in Australia. The authors also outlined digital use (or non-use) pathways that are related to existing socioeconomic inequities, indicating that lack of (or limited) digital access or use creates further barriers to improving the underlying determinants of such use. Technological solutions to the digital divide must therefore be driven by a comprehensive approach to digital inclusion.

Roe (2000) revealed that although the physical divide seems to be narrowing in most developed nations, the digital divide persists or continues to expand given the lack of proficiency in using technological or Internet-based applications. In discussing digital inclusion, Walton (2013) focusses on the importance of not only affordable hardware and Internet connectivity but also extending assistance to communities in building ICT skills and thoroughly understanding the safe and effective use of online technology to achieve educational, economic and social goals. The author recommends the incorporation of digital inclusion in national agenda.

In their studies among the youth in advanced democracies, Xenos, Vromen and Loader (2014) averred that even as they were concerned about whether social media was positively related to political engagement, they were optimistic with respect to the overall influence of popular new media on long-standing patterns of political inequality. Flanagan and Levine (2010) argued that the current young generation exhibits less civic engagement than do the earlier generation. This problem may be attributed to a decline or delay in traditional adult patterns of civic engagement, which the authors located in two factors: unequal opportunities that may be influenced by the educational background of the younger generation's parents and the differences in institutional opportunities provided to college and non-college youth during their youth-to-adult years. Civic engagement is important for the functioning of democracies and the growth and maturation that democracy encourages in young adults. The problem is that civic engagement is uneven across social classes, races and ethnicities.

Asian youths are embracing technologies at a burgeoning rate, yet interesting differences in Internet access and use exist among this demographic group. A study on five East Asian cities that are home to youths with six years of Internet usage suggests that although technologies can facilitate citizenship among Asian youths, entertainment-related activities (e.g. downloading music or playing games) remain the most popular activities online. About 65% of these individuals have read news online, 50% have voted over online platforms and 25% have signed online petitions (Lin, Cheong, Kim, & Jung, 2010). In their investigation of Cyprus youth populations, Milioni, Doudaki and Demertzis (2014) indicated that a "reverse digital divide" exists among disadvantaged youths. The authors also revealed that disadvantaged Greek and Turkish youths of the divided Cyprus community engaged more frequently in online expression, association and learning.

Gutierrez and Gamboa (2010) examined the determinants of ICT use among low-income populations in three developing countries, namely, Colombia, Mexico and Peru. The analysis, which was based on two composite indicators, indicated that the single most important factor that limited the digitalisation of low-income individuals in the studied countries was lack of education. The effects of income itself, although positive, were low. Carvin (2000) outlined three types of literacy required to fully integrate Internet usage: the ability to be "information literate" (discern the quality of content), "adaptively literate" (develop new skills while using ICTs) and "occupationally literate" (apply ICT skills in business, education or domestic environments).

Helsper (2011) criticised the British government's plans to make public services "digital by default," arguing that the low-education individuals that make up the digital underclass will be denied access not because of a deficient infrastructure but because of a lack of (effective) take-up of available connections. Such initiatives, therefore, represent a problem that is unlikely to be resolved even with improved infrastructure or as younger generations mature. The digital underclass comprises people who rely most on government services that are now becoming digital by default. Yet, because of ongoing problems with equitable access, those who most need services that supposedly offer huge cost savings through digitalisation are the ones least likely to be able to adopt and benefit from such services when access and corresponding facilities become available. Similarly, Longley and Singleton (2009) contended that those who suffered from material deprivation would also exhibit low Internet usage. In the same vein, economically poor regions will have low Internet access. Individuals or populations who have benefitted from technological diffusion but lack the capability to translate the usefulness of technology to society will, in the long run, drive their communities into social exclusion, thereby preventing larger regional or national integration (Zheng & Walsham, 2008).

Waymer (2012) addressed the extent and manner by which people in "socially excluded" areas of a city engaged with technologies, specifically personal computers and the Internet. The author also probed into the effects of such engagement on quality of life and social inclusion. The results indicated that the manner in which technology is experienced by marginalised social groups did not fit neatly into the dominant discourse of digital inclusion, which emphasises technology as a means of achieving social inclusion, particularly in the realms of civic participation, educational achievement and employment.

METHODOLOGY

As previously stated, this study focusses on the youth of marginalised communities in Malaysia. In this work, marginalised communities are defined as plantation estates, new Chinese villages, traditional Malay villages, land development sites and low-cost apartment complexes in cities. Most of the families living in these residential areas earn an average of less than RM 3,500 (USD 800). The data presented in this paper were obtained through a pilot study on 395 respondents interviewed in a survey. The interviewees are youths aged 15 to 25. The variables used in the analysis are digital engagement, attitudes towards the Internet, Internet experience and educational level.

"Digital engagement" is defined as the frequency with which an individual performs online activities. The respondents were asked to indicate how frequently they involved themselves in 13 online activities on a scale that spanned "no engagement at all" to "very frequent engagement". "Frequent" and "very frequent" were regarded as corresponding to engagement in digital activities. The digital engagement construct had three dimensions, namely, basic, intermediate and advanced engagement.

"Attitudes towards the Internet" is defined as the extent to which respondents perceived the Internet as producing positive life outcomes. A nine-item instrument was used to measure this variable. The respondent categories were based on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "extremely disagree" to "extremely agree". The reliability test produced a Cronbach's alpha of 0.69.

"Internet experience" is defined as the length of time that the respondents devoted to Internet use. The responses were classified into five categories ranging from less than one year's experience to more than 10 years' experience of using the Internet.

"Educational level" was operationalised into three categories, namely, lower secondary education and below (nine years or less of schooling), upper secondary school education (11 years of schooling) and tertiary education (university education).

RESULTS

Table 1 indicates the respondents' Internet experience. Although they came from low-income families, almost all had experienced using the Internet at home, in school, on mobile devices or in community centres. The data also showed that the low-education participants tended to exhibit less experience with Internet usage than did the higher education group (Table 1). Among the individuals who had had lower secondary and primary schooling, only 9% had been using the Internet for more than 10 years. Among the respondents with upper secondary and tertiary education, those with

Table 1
Experience using the Internet

	Lower secondary %	Upper secondary %	Tertiary %	Total %
< 1 year	14	12	5	10
1-3 years	25	29	22	25
4-6 years	37	33	38	36
7-9 years	15	11	18	15
>10 years	9	16	18	15
	100	100	100	100

more than 10 years' Internet experience numbered 16% and 18%, respectively. Only 5% of the individuals with tertiary education had less than one year's experience of Internet use. This figure increased to 12% and 14% when measured on the basis of the experience of the respondents with secondary and lower secondary education, respectively. Overall, about 70% of the respondents across educational levels had at least 4 to 6 years' experience of Internet usage.

The second set of data comprised the responses regarding attitudes towards the Internet. Table 2 indicates that the respondents with more than 10 years' Internet experience (mean score=29.8) tended to exhibit more positive attitudes than did those with less than one year of Internet usage (mean score=27.9). On the basis of these findings, we can argue that attitudes towards the Internet became more positive as experience increased.

Table 2
Internet experience and attitudes towards the Internet

Internet experience	Mean attitudinal score
<1 year	27.9
1-3 years	28.1
4-6 years	29.2
7-9 years	29.5
>10 years	29.8

Table 3 lists Internet attitudes based on educational background. Minimal difference existed across educational backgrounds. The attitudinal mean scores were clustered around an overall mean of 28.9. The data in the table also indicated that attitude formation was more strongly influenced by Internet experience than by educational background.

Table 3
Educational level and attitudes towards the Internet

Educational level	Mean attitudinal score
Lower secondary	28.9
Secondary	28.9
Tertiary	28.8

As mentioned earlier, 13 Internet-based activities were chosen to determine the frequency with which the respondents engaged in these occupations. After a factor analysis, the 13 items were categorised into three types of digital engagement: basic, intermediate and advanced engagement. Figure 1 shows that among the categories, basic engagement was the most frequent type of involvement, with more than 46% of the respondents engaging in activities classified under this dimension. Frequency of activities followed this order: communicating with friends (64%) > surfing for entertainment materials (46%) > uploading personal information, pictures and activities on social media (42%) > playing games (41%).

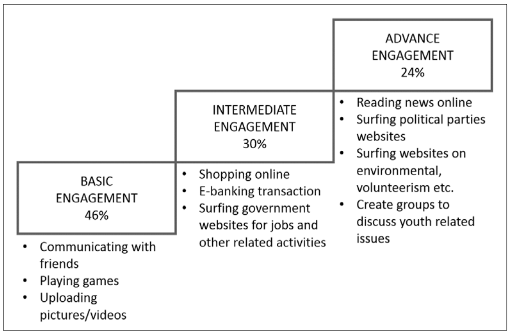

Figure 1. Three dimensions of digital engagement

In terms of intermediate digital engagement, the most frequent activity was surfing for educational materials (57%). Less than 30% of the respondents engaged in the other three activities under this category. Specifically, 26% of the respondents shopped online; 27% surfed government websites to look for job vacancies, renew driving licenses and complete other government-related activities; and 18% performed e-banking. The overall engagement in intermediate activities was 30%.

With regard to advanced digital engagement, the most actively pursued occupation was reading news published on various online applications (49%). In the rest of the activities, the respondents exhibited low engagement, which covered writing comments on blogs or news articles (24%), establishing a social media group for implementing youth activities (23%) and establishing friendships on social media for volunteer work (22%). The activity that stimulated the least engagement was surfing websites of political parties with the intention of participation (19%). The overall engagement in this category was 24%.

The analysis above showed that about 46% of the respondents were actively engaged in basic Internet activities, whereas 30% were actively engaged in intermediate Internet pursuits. The remaining 24% exhibited a high level of advanced digital engagement. These preliminary findings were not compared with a control group, but they nonetheless illustrated that within the investigated marginalised communities, the youth are digitally divided, as determined from the type of engagement that they exhibited online i.e. the digital divide among these individuals manifested itself not in terms of access but in terms of engagement in Internet activities. In the information society, ICTs were supposed to stimulate social change. Being netizens, the youth should be encouraged to espouse high-order digital engagement, which extended beyond basic occupations such as communication.

Let us now attend to a discussion of how improved digital engagement can be encouraged to enable the inclusion of entire communities in the digital society. Among educational level, Internet experience and Internet attitudes, we assumed that the most controllable predictor was the last. Table 4 presents the relationship between attitudes toward the Internet and various levels of digital engagement. In ascertaining this relationship, we controlled for educational level in the analysis. Attitudes more strongly influenced basic engagement among the respondents with lower secondary schooling ($r=0.53$) than among those with secondary ($r=0.19$) and tertiary ($r=0.31$) education. With regard to intermediate digital engagement, attitudes also wielded influence, but such effect was not as strong as that observed for basic engagement ($r=0.26$; $p>0.05$) among the respondents with lower secondary and secondary education ($r=0.25$; $p>0.05$). Among the participants with tertiary education, attitudes did not significantly influence digital engagement, especially at the intermediate ($r=0.15$; $p<0.05$) and advanced ($r=0.12$; $p<0.05$) levels of engagement.

Table 4
Attitudes and digital engagement

Educational level	Basic digital engagement	Intermediate digital engagement	Advanced digital engagement
Lower secondary	0.53**	0.26**	0.17*
Upper secondary	0.19**	0.25**	0.24**
Tertiary	0.31*	0.15	0.12

Note: Education was controlled for in the analysis.
** significant at 0.05
* significant at 0.01

In the analysis of the effects of attitudes on digital engagement, we controlled for Internet experience. Table 5 shows that Internet attitudes exhibited strong influence among the respondents with a long record of engagement in basic Internet activities. A correlation of r=0.45 was derived for the respondents with seven to nine years of experience, and a correlation of r=0.45 was obtained for those with more than 10 years' experience. By contrast, Internet attitudes weakly influenced the respondents with short-term Internet use, such as those with one to three years' experience ($r=0.21$; $p<0.05$) and those with four to six years' experience ($r=0.33$; $p<0.05$).

At the intermediate level, attitudes pose minimal influence on the respondents with long-term Internet experience. A weak but significant correlation exists among those with one to three years of experience ($r=0.28$; $p<0.05$) and those with four to six years of experience ($r=0.28$; $p<0.05$). No significant relationship was found among the respondents who had been using the Internet for a considerable period, such as those with seven to nine years of experience ($r=0.08$; $p>0.05$) and those with more than 10 years of experience ($r=0.17$; $p<0.05$). At the advanced level, attitudes influenced the respondents under the groups with more than 10 years' ($r=0.29$; $p<0.05$) and seven to nine years' ($r=0.21$; $p<0.05$) experience. No significant influence was found among those under the groups with one to three and four to six years of Internet usage.

Table 5
Attitudes and digital engagement

Internet Experience	Basic Digital Engagement	Intermediate Digital Engagement	Advanced Digital Engagement
1-3 years	0.21*	0.28**	0.06
4-6 years	0.33**	0.28**	0.17
7-9 years	0.45**.	0.08	0.21*
>10 years	0.44**	0.17	0.29*

Note: Internet experience was controlled for in the analysis

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Digital engagement is a process that involves learning the skills necessary for online interaction and fostering the motivation to use the Internet. In marginalised communities, providing access to the Internet may be a minor obstacle given the availability of online resources in these environments. The more challenging requirement is encouraging digital engagement among the potential beneficiaries of infrastructural investment to ensure that the economically or socially disadvantaged are not relegated to an inhibitive status quo. Can economically and socially excluded individuals be encouraged to work towards digital inclusion as a means of guaranteeing the progress of a nation? This problem does not revolve around the Internet per se but centres on the capability to harness the Internet for educational, recreational, social and economic change.

Educational level and Internet experience are difficult to exploit as effective antecedents of digital engagement. Accelerating the digital engagement of youths in marginalised communities necessitates inculcating positive attitudes towards the Internet. To guarantee digital inclusion, the young generation should use the Internet for purposes other than communication and entertainment. Without this expansion, desired economic, social and political effects cannot be achieved. An attendant problem is the failure to narrow the gap between the disadvantaged and privileged segments of society. At the intermediate and advanced levels of digital engagement, the Internet exhibits the potential to increase opportunities to acquire education, harness technology for economic advantage and improve involvement in political causes through the expression of ideas and suggestions.

The current approach of providing Internet services to marginalised communities in Malaysia through community-based facilities is a welcome initiative, but in many instances, these facilities are unsustainable because services are slow and the potential benefits that they offer are not clearly defined. The results of this study indicate that even as the youth enjoy commendable access to the Internet, daily engagement at the intermediate and advanced levels still shows room for improvement. Failing to address this imbalanced engagement translates not only into failure to engender digital inclusiveness but also failure to produce desired effects on Millennials, who represent the future of this country.

The digital migration of most government and public services suggests that the digitally non-literate would be in a difficult position to benefit from the public services provided by the government. Life in the 21st century depends on a space of flows, which is characterised by the movement of information, rather than on a space of places, in which movement spans only location.

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Social Innovation and its Influence on Youth Start-ups: The Marginalised Communities in Malaysia

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the extent of the initiatives and change created as the result of social innovation activities in start-ups carried out by youths who live in marginalised communities in Malaysia. The targeted samples were between the ages of 20 and 25 years old. The empirical process involved capturing both tacit and explicit entrepreneurial values in building social innovation moves. This was to fulfil the urgent need for an innovative social innovation model that examines the current trend among youth start-ups. The research adopted the descriptive correlational research design and involved a total of 423 young start-ups. This sampling frame included young entrepreneurs who had engaged in social innovation and micro businesses in Miri and Kuching, Sarawak and the East Coast region of Malaysia. It conceptualised the process of social innovation, its core activities (social entrepreneurship) and the traits of the social entrepreneurs and was supported by their desire to provide solutions to the world's most pressing issues (the creation of social enterprise). This was tested using structural equation modelling. The Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) procedure was employed to validate the measurement model of the latent constructs involved. All the constructs had achieved threshold validity and reliability. The findings revealed that the model also supports the robustness of the European Commission of Social Innovation (2013) and the Malaysia Model of Social Innovation (Raja Suzana, 2016). One of the implications is on the outcome of social innovation initiatives. It can be concluded that this paper provides insight into and develops a new model of social innovation. The greatest change was in the productive powers of society and

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the passion of this group of individuals. The outcomes contributed to both sound practical and theoretical aspects of social innovation value and a model of new venture using social innovation. This paper also contributes to the how and what that create change in this particular context before determining a solution.

Keywords: Entrepreneurial intention, Malaysia, social entrepreneurship, social innovation, youth

INTRODUCTION

Social innovation has received overwhelming interest among the young generations who are seeking a change in the way they manage their business activities. There appears to be a growing body of literature in the for-profit and non-profit organisations that are engaging in social entrepreneurship. The social innovation model has also been widely discussed in research related to social entrepreneurship, which includes all sectors. It was noted, however, that the roles and the extent of the influence of social innovation activities on youth start-ups remain unexplored, particularly involving youths living in marginalised communities in Malaysia. Although entrepreneurship has long been linked to wealth generation and socio-economic growth, social entrepreneurship that embeds the practices and activities associated with social innovation in the Malaysian perspective appears to have received little attention (Raja Suzana, 2016). There is the ‘dark side’ of social entrepreneurship success values that should be given emphasis involving youth start-ups and social enterprises.

Literature on the social impact value is still limited, with little understanding on how youth start-ups that engage in social innovation operate their model of innovation. In addition, the social innovation model that influences the best practices of success remains vague and has not been studied in depth. Although there exist a few empirical studies that have discussed social innovation models extensively, there is still a research gap in the understanding of social innovation itself and its influences on youth start-ups, particularly involving youths who come from marginalised communities.

This paper will examine the factors that constitute a social innovation model for youth start-ups. It further identifies the dimensions of social entrepreneur traits and social enterprise success. The various dimensions that make up a social innovation model will also be explored and discussed. A review of the existing literature on social entrepreneurship, social innovation and traits of social entrepreneurs will be made. This prepares for the dataset for this paper, and it is framed in the context of descriptive research and the development of a social innovation model within the context of youth start-ups in Malaysia.

The methodology used in the research was designed with the objectives of identifying social entrepreneur traits of Malaysian youth and examining the influence of social innovation values on youth start-ups and their relationship with social entrepreneurship elements in the context that is unique to the Malaysian setting. The paper contributes to the body of knowledge by identifying and exploring the factors that have influenced youth start-ups based on their social innovation success stories. The next section will examine the empirical review of these factors on a global basis. Further, this would contribute to the existing literature by enhancing understanding of the social innovation model and its influencing factors on youth start-ups in Malaysia.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Social entrepreneurship can be drawn from various spectra of research. Social innovation and its value in framing the success of business model innovation appear to be receiving increasing attention. In particular, a number of social enterprises have displayed their social innovation moves in the areas of social welfare and the way entrepreneurs managed socio-economic issues such as poverty, unemployment, environment and sustainability. For example, in the area of sustainability, the concept of sustainable development has been coined at the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment since 1972. Through the years, the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) (1987:8) defined sustainable development as development that meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Many researchers have adopted this definition in their studies (Hall et al., 2010). In 1994, John Elkington coined a concept known as 'triple bottom line' (TBL or 3BL), which refers to the integration of economic, social and environmental domains into business practices with an aim to create a new business model that embraces sustainability management. This is in line with the work of Raja Suzana and Ariffin (2013). In the work of Tilley (1999), the research explored the move of sustainability management into the areas of social entrepreneurship. This is further supported by Richomme-Huet and Freyman (2011), who claimed that social entrepreneurship is a new deal in business engaging social values. Evidence from the work of Crals and Vereeck (2004), Schwartz, (2009), O'Neil and Ucbasaran (2011), Nowduri (2012) and Raja Suzana and Adnan (2013) have had some influence on the new paradigm shift in the areas of social innovation.

SOCIAL INNOVATION

The new paradigm shift in social entrepreneurship that embeds social innovation helps to deal with unresolved and the world's most pressing issues. It is believed that these activities leave a significant effect on economic, social and environment agenda. The empirical work of Dees (1998, 2001) and Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum and Shulman (2009) brings values to the definitional criterion sets for social enterprise. According to Bornstein and Davis (2010), the definition of social entrepreneurship was determined in the literature as far back as the late 1980s.

Bornstein (2004) devoted extensive work connecting readers and researchers on the topic of social entrepreneurship as an emerging business model.

Despite the above highlights on the success models of social entrepreneurship, there seems to be some arguable comments about what exactly a social entrepreneur is and does. In the work of Dacin, Dacin and Matear (2010), the authors identified 37 definitions of social entrepreneurship or social entrepreneur. In line with the study of Abu-Saifan (2010), a common concept was missing in explaining which social or profit-making activities fell within the spectrum of social entrepreneurship. Interestingly, social innovations are the main focus in the literature on social entrepreneurship. However, there remains a need to extend knowledge that the approaches are diverse. In this paper, special attention is given to the understanding of the values of social innovation among youth start-ups and the extent of its influence on young entrepreneurs from marginalised communities. Further research in the Malaysian setting shows that the Government supports micro SMEs and is aware of their success stories, issues, outcomes and the contributions they have made to the socio-economic aspect of the nation. However, there is still a lack of research and emphasis given to youth start-ups, particularly involving those from marginalised communities (Raja Suzana, Azham, Sophie, & Wan Safia, 2013). Although micro SMEs possess a substantial role in managing their enterprise and contribute to the socio-economy values, they do not seem to have embarked on social innovation and social entrepreneurship quite readily (Raja Suzana, 2016).

CONCEPTUAL MODEL

In the previous section, it was evidenced that the literature differentiates between various types of social innovation, social entrepreneurship and who a social entrepreneur is and does. This paper selects social innovation as activities associated closely from the social entrepreneurship and its associated social mission along with innovative traits of the social entrepreneurs.

The conceptual framework for this work was developed based on the social innovation guide from the European Commission Social Innovation Principles (2013) and the Social Innovation Model in Malaysia (Raja Suzana, 2016). It conceptualises the process of social innovation, its core activities (social entrepreneurship) and the extent to which entrepreneurs are stimulated (traits of the social entrepreneurs) and supported by their desire to innovate solutions to the world's most pressing issues (social innovation). Figure 1 illustrates the conceptual model used in this paper. This was tested using structural equation modelling.

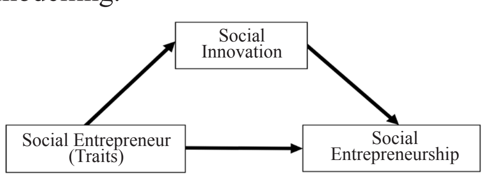

Figure 1. Conceptual model
Sources: The variables of elements of social innovation were adapted from the Guide to Social Innovation, European Commission (2013) and the variables of social entrepreneurship were adapted from the Social Innovation models in Malaysia (Raja Suzana, 2016)

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This paper examines the extent of the initiatives and change created as the result of social innovation activities in start-ups carried out by youths who live in marginalised communities in Malaysia. The targetted samples were between the ages of 20 and 25 years old with at least two years' experience in conducting a business. The empirical process involved capturing both tacit and explicit entrepreneurial values in building social innovation moves. This was to fulfil the urgent need for an innovative social innovation model that examines the current trend among youth start-ups. The research adopted the descriptive correlational research design and involved a total of 423 young start-ups. This sampling frame included young entrepreneurs who had engaged in social innovation and micro businesses in Miri and Kuching, Sarawak and the East Coast region of Malaysia. It conceptualises the process of social innovation and its influence on youth start-ups from the marginalised communities in Malaysia.

The Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) procedure was employed to validate the measurement model of latent constructs involved in this paper. The results are illustrated in Figure 2, Figure 3 and Table 1 below. Three latent constructs were examined to seek the engagement of young entrepreneurs as social entrepreneurs in social innovation and social entrepreneurship.

Figure 2 shows all constructs pooled together for the validation procedure in CFA. The CFA output is given in Figure 3.

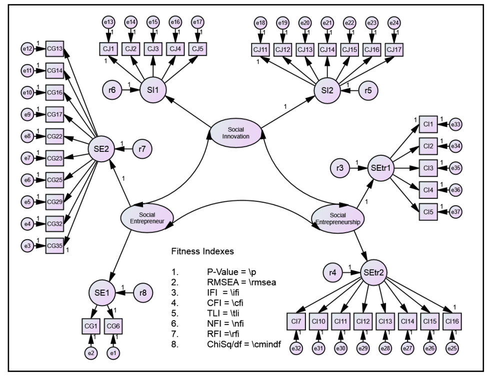

Figure 2. The pooled CFA procedure to validate the three latent constructs simultaneously

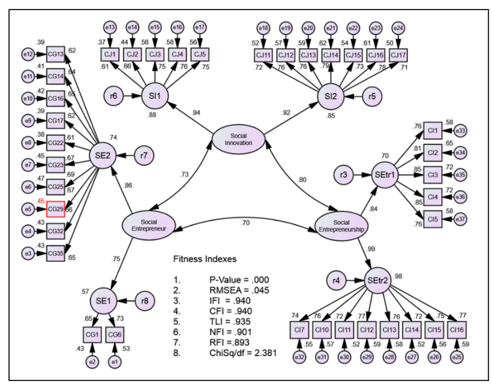

Figure 3. The pooled CFA results showing the fitness indexes, factor loading and the correlation between constructs

All constructs are second-order measured through their respective components. The first construct is traits of the social entrepreneurs. This is an exogenous construct measured using two components, namely the need for achievement (two items) and risk-taker (10 items). The second construct is social innovation. This is the mediator construct measured using two components, namely the identification of new ideas (five items) and socio-economy impact (seven items). The third construct is social entrepreneurship. This is an endogenous construct measured using two components, namely the commercial-purpose (five items) and social-purpose (eight items). All items were measured using an interval scale of 1 signifying 'strongly disagree' to 5 signifying 'strongly agree'. Prior to modelling the structural model and executing the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), the paper validated the latent constructs using the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The analysis chose to employ the pooled CFA, where all constructs were pooled together to run the CFA procedure simultaneously.

Table 1
Assessment of normality for all items measuring the constructs

Variable	min	max	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
CI5	1.000	5.000	-0.420	-4.487	0.453	2.419
CI4	1.000	5.000	-0.514	-5.496	0.510	2.725
CI3	1.000	5.000	-0.497	-5.311	0.736	3.931
CI2	1.000	5.000	-0.533	-5.692	0.652	3.484
CI1	1.000	5.000	-0.749	-7.999	1.048	5.598
CI7	1.000	5.000	-0.372	-3.977	0.432	2.306
CI10	1.000	5.000	-0.327	-3.492	0.170	0.907
CI11	1.000	5.000	-0.333	-3.562	0.234	1.253
CI12	1.000	5.000	-0.176	-1.885	-0.113	-0.601
CI13	1.000	5.000	-0.334	-3.566	0.245	1.307
CI14	1.000	5.000	-0.234	-2.499	0.038	0.205
CI15	1.000	5.000	-0.186	-1.991	0.023	0.123
CI16	1.000	5.000	-0.125	-1.341	-0.198	-1.057
CJ17	1.000	5.000	-0.287	-3.062	0.172	0.920
CJ16	1.000	5.000	-0.300	-3.210	0.415	2.218
CJ15	1.000	5.000	-0.306	-3.268	0.595	3.178
CJ14	1.000	5.000	-0.244	-2.608	0.143	0.766
CJ13	1.000	5.000	-0.252	-2.698	0.248	1.327
CJ12	1.000	5.000	-0.309	-3.301	0.442	2.361
CJ11	1.000	5.000	-.347	-3.708	0.425	2.273
CJ5	1.000	5.000	-.301	-3.213	0.359	1.920
CJ4	1.000	5.000	-.211	-2.259	0.209	1.117
CJ3	1.000	5.000	-0.149	-1.592	0.023	0.125
CJ2	1.000	5.000	-0.247	-2.634	0.258	1.378
CJ1	1.000	5.000	-0.374	-3.995	0.433	2.311
CG13	1.000	5.000	-0.405	-4.326	0.886	4.733
CG14	1.000	5.000	-0.088	-0.944	0.090	0.481
CG16	1.000	5.000	-0.134	-1.433	0.084	0.447
CG17	1.000	5.000	-0.134	-1.429	0.104	0.553

Table 1
Assessment of normality for all items measuring the constructs (continue)

Variable	min	max	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
CG22	1.000	5.000	-0.087	-0.924	-0.227	-1.213
CG23	1.000	5.000	-0.409	-4.371	0.561	2.998
CG25	1.000	5.000	-0.315	-3.363	0.328	1.752
CG29	1.000	5.000	-0.090	-0.965	-0.276	-1.473
CG32	1.000	5.000	-0.504	-5.388	0.657	3.510
CG35	1.000	5.000	-0.257	-2.746	0.002	0.009
CG1	1.000	5.000	-0.847	-9.045	1.322	7.064
CG6	1.000	5.000	-0.659	-7.037	0.994	5.311
Multivariate					634.642	154.595

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The validity of the constructs is illustrated in Figure 4 and Figure 5. It shows a good fitness index on the measurement model with RMSEA=0.043, CFI=0.943, TLI=0.935 and Chi-Square/df=3.129. The measurement appears to have achieved the discriminant validity, where the correlation between constructs are <0.85. In addition, the Cronbach alpha for the constructs reliability achieved the 0.600 threshold, met the CR with more than 0.60 and achieved AVE greater than the 0.5 threshold. All the constructs of the study achieved the validity and reliability threshold.

Prior to modelling the structural model and executing the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), the study had to validate the latent constructs using the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) (Zainudin, 2014). The study chose to employ the pooled CFA, where all the constructs were pooled together to run the CFA procedure at once. The pooled CFA is fast, efficient and reliable. More importantly, this method would overcome the problems of model identification when the number of items per construct is less than four (Zainudin, 2014).

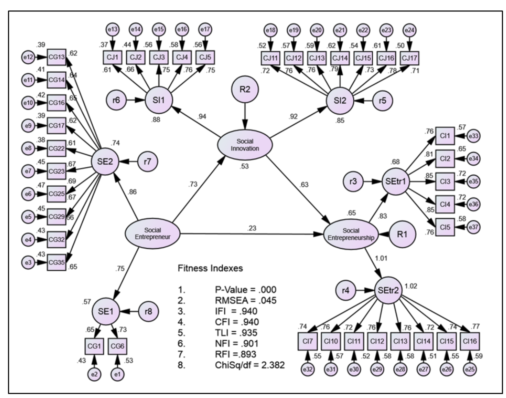

Figure 4. The standardised path coefficient between constructs in the model

The findings revealed that the model also supported the robustness of the European Commission Social Innovation principles (2013) and the Social Return on Investments Model of New Economics Foundations (2004) and the Model of Social Innovation in Malaysia (Raja Suzana, 2016). One of the implications is on the outcome of social innovation initiatives. Young social entrepreneurs appear to have positive and significant effects on social innovation.

The social innovation initiatives have a positive and significant effect on social entrepreneurship. It was estimated that the predictors of social entrepreneurship development among young entrepreneurs explained 65% of its variance. Similarly, the social entrepreneur traits also have positive and significant effects on the development of social entrepreneurship. Social innovation was also found to mediate the relationship between the traits of young social entrepreneurs and social entrepreneurship activities in the Malaysian setting. It was estimated that the predictors of social innovation explain 62% of its variance.

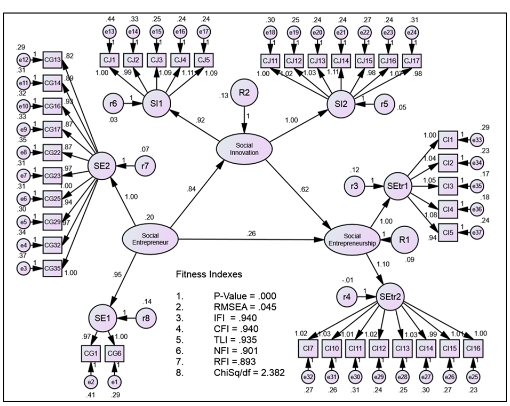

Figure 5. The regression path coefficient between constructs in the model

The findings concluded the results for passionate young social entrepreneurs, be it in micro and small enterprises or non-profit organisations. This research provided insight into the theoretical framework and proved that the greatest change lays in the productive powers of society and the passion of this group of individuals. Today, the bridges that link the success of young entrepreneurs, social organisations and government agencies still remain narrow and less explored. The empirical evidence collected in this study has shed some light into social innovation, and the model has also revealed that social innovation mediates the relationship between social entrepreneurs and social entrepreneurship.

Implications for policy and practice

Research implications. Social innovation in this aspect has improved social economic growth and provides attractive incomes and amenities to young entrepreneurs coming from marginalised areas and raises their overall income level. While most entrepreneurship research gives considerable thought to the question of how enterprises' performance and sustainability work directly and entrepreneurial orientation and intention issues, many fail to consider how to affect change and deliver outcomes beyond their

Table 2
The regression path coefficient between constructs and its significance

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Result
Social Innovation	←---	Social Entrepreneur	0.841	0.084	9.961	***	Significant
Social Entrepreneurship	←---	Social Innovation	0.630	0.069	9.128	***	Significant
Social Entrepreneurship	←---	Social Entrepreneur	0.277	0.075	3.701	***	Significant

immediate reach when implementing social innovation. It appears that our exploration has contributed to revealing its most dynamic outcomes, as it has focussed extensively on this challenge of getting the young social entrepreneur to act.

Practical implications. With regards to practical contributions, the findings show that specific policies orientated towards achieving successful growth among young entrepreneurs is lacking. It is also evident that elements of social innovation have contributed to the social entrepreneurship literature in the Malaysian setting and that little research has focussed on the extent of trying out solutions that help researchers in this field to start thinking and learning what works on a small scale.

This work introduced the social innovation model for young entrepreneurs from marginalised communities in Malaysia and the outcomes that contributed to both sound practical and theoretical aspects of social innovation value and a model of new venture using social innovation. This paper also contributed to the how and what that creates a change in the Malaysian context before making a solution.

CONCLUSION

It can be concluded that change demands the recombination of knowledge with new recipes that suit young entrepreneurs in the Malaysian setting. Young start-up entrepreneurs are passionate and are seen as energetic social entrepreneurs who play a critical role. This new model of social innovation for youth start-ups introduces the concept of social entrepreneurship that promotes creative combiners, carving out spaces in society to foster overall solutions that are well-developed to frame this social innovation model.

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The Impact of Social Innovation on an Enterprise Success: Item Validation

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ABSTRACT

The paper presents a theoretical understanding of the impact of social innovation on the success of an enterprise. Social innovation is framed within the context of the European Commission Social Innovation principles (2013) and the Social Return on Investments Model of New Economic Foundations (2004) and Social Innovation Model in Malaysia (Raja Suzana, 2015). A total of 130 new and young enterprises participated in this survey. Findings indicated that social innovation has a positive and significant relationship with the success of an enterprise. This paper offers indicators developed based on a valid and reliable instrument, which has been empirically tested for its validity and reliability. It was found that social innovation offers a viable model in establishing economic viability and multiple economic specialisations. However, this has its own limitation as it depends heavily on the supporting ecosystem that each region has to offer. The study concludes that social innovation will positively create an impact and play a significant role in entrepreneurship in economic viability if an ecosystem interacts well within the needs of the new and young enterprises. Future work that focusses on specific social innovation programmes and actions that can create more values for new and young enterprises is recommended.

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INTRODUCTION

This paper explores the contributions of young entrepreneurs on the development of social entrepreneurship in Malaysia with regards to their initiatives to work for social-purposes. In essence, social entrepreneurship denotes an activity with a social cause that attacks problems through a business format, even if it is not legally structured as a profit-seeking entity (Dees, 1998; Bornstein, 2004; Raja Suzana & Shaukat Amir, 2013).

Evidence of empirical findings have revealed that social entrepreneurship is a move to pursue multiple dimensions of social engagement. Hence, a number of scholars consider social entrepreneurship as multiple dimensional constructs. Mort, Weerewardena and Carnegie (2003) for example, believed that social entrepreneurship leads to the establishment of new social enterprises and continued innovation in existing ones. They conceptualised social entrepreneurship as being a "multi-dimensional construct" (Mort et al., 2003, p.76). The constructs detail the expression of entrepreneurially virtuous behaviour to achieve a social mission, a coherent unity of purpose and action in the face of moral complexity, the ability to recognise social value-creating opportunities and key decision-making characteristics of innovativeness, pro-activeness and risk-taking (Mort et al., 2003).

Social Innovation in the Malaysian and Global contexts

According to the European Commission of Social Innovation (2013), social innovation can be defined as the development and implementation of new ideas (products, services and models) to meet social needs and create new social relationships or collaborations. It represents new responses to pressing social demands that affect the process of social interactions. A group of great brains unanimously claimed that social innovation is aimed at improving human well-being. According to the European Commission of Social Innovation (2013), social innovations are innovations that are social in both their ends and their means. They are innovations that are not only good for society, but also enhance individuals' capacity to act.

Repositioning the interest of the nation to address the most pressing problems, this chapter focusses on those living in the marginalised communities in Malaysia. According to Raja Suzana (2015), it is necessary to explore the programmes that have been created to support the development of social innovation. In an attempt to explore a robust model, this study referred to the European Commission as it provides guides for social innovation. GENOVASI in Malaysia and the European Commission are two common and useful examples as they offer the concepts and approaches that meet social needs, create new social relationships and represent new responses to pressing social demands. In addition, both have the same agenda that focusses on driving towards entrepreneurship and stimulating innovation, which are in line with the Malaysian 2020 Vision.

Young Entrepreneur as a Change Maker

Although being attacked from many directions, today's young entrepreneurs are keen to be change makers. They appear to share one common feature i.e. striving to build platforms that unleash the human potential. They struggle to increase the number of people who have the opportunity to contribute their talents to the world. However, the extent to which these young entrepreneurs are able to create change remains debatable. Many young entrepreneurs pursue social, environmental and economic impact that they claim have effects on people, their communities and the environment. To measure the effects is actually to examine the extent to which the effects have contributed to change in the social mission. Hence, it is necessary to communicate the social outputs and value social outcomes through the reality of the theory of change.

Theory of Change

The researchers believe that young entrepreneurs need a deep understanding of social innovation and how it contributes to the success of their enterprise. Thus, the researchers aimed to explore this further and focus on the social innovation outcomes that capture the social outputs and value social outcomes. It is hoped that this research will help to demonstrate the extent of young entrepreneurs' interest to contribute towards society and its stakeholders. The research also aimed to explore how the theory of change guides social entrepreneurs in measuring social outputs and outcomes and impact the value chain.

The extent to which social outputs, outcomes and impact are needed needs to be further explored as it will assist us in designing the appropriate programme in response to the young entrepreneurs' desire for contributing and doing social innovation works. It will lead to an improved programme management with effective planning and evaluation, increased understanding of the impact of young entrepreneur's work, deliver stronger communication of the value of young entrepreneurs' move towards social mission and to the people that they believe matter, as well as enhance attention to social, economic and environmental value created by these young entrepreneurs (New Economics Foundation, 2004).

In developing this measurement, it is important to direct the young entrepreneurs' thinking towards the elements of change as a way of thinking about why the activities they venture in would ultimately lead to their desired social outcomes. According to Raja Suzana and Adnan (2013), defining and assessing the impact of social ventures can be done if a young entrepreneur is able to make desirable change happen. Similar to the approach of the "if-then" condition, each condition, if it appears to be met, signals that desirable change will happen. This is further explained in the model of the New Economics Foundations (2004) as illustrated in Table 1 below.

Table 1
Theory of change

Items	Descriptions
Inputs	The resources (e.g. money, staff time, capital assets, etc.) required to operate the venture or organisation
Outputs	Indicators and other measurable variables from an organisation's operations that the management can directly measure such as people trained, trees planted and products sold
Outcomes	Specific changes in attitudes, behaviours, knowledge, skills, status, or level of functioning that result from enterprise activities such as finding a job, avoiding getting sick or reducing emissions by a certain amount
Impact	The difference between the outcome for a sample exposed to an enterprise's activities and the outcome that would have occurred without the venture or organisation
Goal alignment	The management process of evaluating whether outcomes or impact met desired goals and determining what can be done to improve operations

Source: New Economics Foundation (2004)

In this context, the basic format of any theory of change would be to look beyond individual founders and institutions to the change-making potential of all people and their interactions. The theory recognises that social entrepreneurship that embraces social innovation is contagious.

Social Innovation Outcomes

In illustrating social innovation outcomes, the model proposed to gauge the extent to which the desired outcomes and impact are created through the social venture's activities is based on the Social Innovation Model in Malaysia (Raja Suzana, 2015). She claimed that social entrepreneurship helps to facilitate and translate social innovation whenever the process leads to more effective responses for societal problems. In turn, social innovation outcomes will bring value in that they would benefit societies with relevant job creation and other socio and economic impact.

Building on the theory of change, that social innovation outcomes appear to interact with other leading indicators, generally, social venture activities and outputs take the approach adopted in the New Economics Foundation (2004), while the outcomes and impact are tailored uniquely so as to ensure they fit the Malaysian setting (Raja Suzana, 2015). The social innovation elements and outcomes also serve to differentiate between one another and are illustrated in Table 2 below:

Table 2
Social innovation elements and outcomes

Social Innovation Elements	Social Innovation Outcomes
Identification of new/unmet/inadequately met social needs	Impact on job creation
Development of new solutions in response to these social needs	Impact on social development
Evaluation of the effectiveness of new solutions in meeting social needs	Impact on economy development
Scaling up of effective social innovations	Impact on the environment Impact on youth sustainability

Sources: New Economics Foundation (2004); European Commission (2013) and the Bureau of European Policy Advisors (2013) and Raja Suzana (2015) Social Innovation Model in Malaysia

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Understanding the theory of change assists researchers in understanding the way social innovation works in its entirety. Social innovation describes the entire process by which new responses to social needs are developed in order to deliver better social outcomes. As defined by the European Commission (2013), the social innovation process is composed of four main elements as outlined in Table 2.

In the Malaysian enterprise setting, it appears that many social innovators are young entrepreneurs. These individuals associate their businesses with service innovation (Raja Suzana & Ariffin, 2013). This includes innovation in services and in service products, new or improved ways of designing and producing services and innovation in service firms, organisations and industries – organisational innovations and the management of innovation processes within the service organisations. Social design is also used as a term to describe particular approaches to social innovation.

In sum, social innovation approaches are notably innovations in the internationally recognised sense, but whose primary goal is to create social change. Not all enterprises are social enterprises; likewise, not all innovations are social innovations. Compared to the mainstream innovations, "social innovations" are critically driven by an extra motive, a social mission, and the value they create is necessarily a shared value, economically and socially (Ferri, Deakins, & Whittam, 2009). Elements of transfer of knowledge are indeed desirable (Fointain & Tan, 2004).

In exploring the interest of social innovation moves among young entrepreneurs in Malaysia, this research explored their interests in understanding each element of social innovation. More specifically, the research examined the elements of social innovation raised among young entrepreneurs in Malaysia and tested the proposed model of social innovation.

The conceptual framework was developed based on the social innovation guide from the European Commission (2013), the Bureau of European Policy Advisors (2013) and the Malaysian model of social innovation (Raja Suzana, 2015). It conceptualises the process of social innovation, its core activities and the extent to which entrepreneurs are stimulated and supported by their desire to provide solutions to the world's most pressing issues. The conceptual framework as framed in Figure 1 below depicts the extent to which the social innovation model is developed from the concept of the theory of change that proposed socio-economy impact and job creation outcomes (New Economics Foundation, 2004; Raja Suzana, 2015).

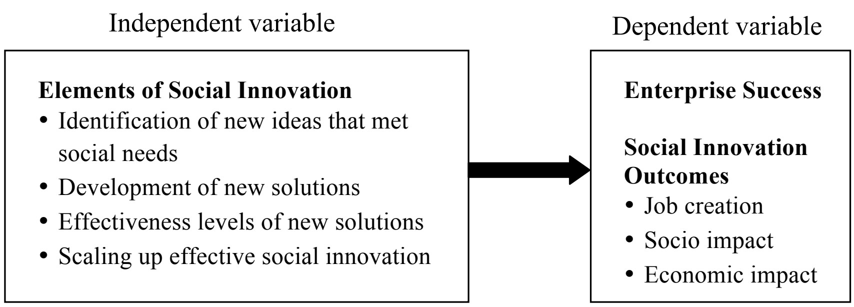

Figure 1. Conceptual framework
Source: Variables of elements; social innovation is adapted from "Guide to Social Innovation" and the European Commission (2013) while the variables of social innovation outcomes are adapted from the New Economics Foundation (2004) and Raja Suzana's (2015) Social Innovation Model in Malaysia

RESULTS

This section examines the use of descriptive correlation along with the result of the Rasch measurement analysis that provides rich data and the results of our exploration with 130 young entrepreneurs. The sampling frame includes young entrepreneurs who had engaged in social innovation initiatives among micro entrepreneur enterprises in Miri and Kuching, Sarawak and those within the East Coast region of Malaysia.

They were chosen for their keen interest in supporting almost all aspects of development and implementation of new ideas such as products, services and models to meet social needs and were passionate to create social relationships and collaborations. Their keen interest was determined by their social engagement and voluntary participation in various programmes involving social interactions. Being grouped with similar interest aiming at improving well-being, these participants were not only able to show their passion for helping society but also for enhancing their capacity to empower others and act based on their own desire to solve pressing problems faced by society.

The sample size was governed by the extent of precision and confidence desired (Sekaran, 2004). Based on the table provided by Nunally (1978), the suitable sample size needed at least 200 young entrepreneurs. Since the population for this study was 1,500 young entrepreneurs, the sample size was more than the sample size calculated using the G*Power package, which was only 119.

The sampling frame or the name list of all official citizens who took part in the 2013 Malaysian national election was acquired from the Electoral System of the Election Commission of Malaysia. Each element in the sampling frame was then numbered. The sampling interval for this systematic sampling was set at 6. The sampling interval was calculated, and each interval provided information on how to select elements in the frame before selecting one for the sample. Simple random selection was done among the sampling interval of 1 to 6, and number 3 was selected. The sample was chosen by taking the third unit of analysis and every ninth unit after that until all the 200 samples required were selected.

The instruments used were the identification of new ideas that met social needs, development of new solutions, effectiveness levels of new solutions and scaling up effective social innovation elements. The 5-point Likert scale was used, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The data were analysed using WINSTEPS, version 3.64.2. In the initial analysis, responses to the test items and the statements in the questionnaire were analysed separately. The following were also examined: (i) the validity of items and respondents' responses, (ii) the capacity in which the items were able to define a continuum of increasing intensity, (iii) reliability, and (iv) unidimensionality.

Findings and Discussion

Table 3 shows that the reliability of item difficulty estimates was quite high (0.97). The item separation index of 5.43 indicated that the items could be separated into five strata of difficulty. As item reliability indicates the ability of the test to reproduce the hierarchy of items along the measured variable (Bond & Fox, 2007; Linacre & Wright, 2004), a reliability coefficient of 0.97 suggested that this order of item hierarchy would be replicated with a high

Table 3
Person and item reliability coefficients

	RAW SCORE	COUNT	MODEL MEASURE	INFIT ERROR	OUTFIT MNSQ	ZSTD	MNSQ	ZSTD
MEAN	268.4	130.0	1.58	.22	1.00	-0.6	1.00	-0.6
SD	27.6	0.0	1.37	0.02	0.53	3.2	0.54	3.2
MAX.	355.0	130.0	6.63	0.34	2.25	5.0	2.29	5.1
MIN.	213.0	130.0	-0.85	0.19	0.04	-9.2	0.04	-9.3

REAL RMSE 0.25 ADJ.SD 1.35 SEPARATION 5.43 Person RELIABILITY 0.97 |
|MODEL RMSE 0.22 ADJ.SD 1.35 SEPARATION 6.03 Person RELIABILITY 0.97
SE oF Person MEAN = 0.14

The model developed was based on social innovation outcomes degree of probability if the items were given to other comparable cohorts. With regards to person measures, the reliability coefficient was considerably higher at 0.97. This was attributed to the considerable misfit responses in the data. Responses to the statements in the questionnaire, on the other hand, showed greater consistency, and this was shown in a higher reliability coefficient for the questionnaire data.

Items and Person Distributions

One of the most important features of the Rasch approach is that respondents' scores and item difficulty were transformed onto one scale so that they were related (Linacre & Wright, 2004; Bond & Fox, 2007). This allowed for item difficulty and person ability to be directly compared. This is known as 'mapping', where estimates of a person'd ability and item difficulty are represented graphically in the form of an item-by-person map (see Figure 3). Since both the items and persons are represented graphically on the same logit scale, it is possible to see if the items fit the ability of the respondents. From the map, it is evident that a large number of items can be found along the continuum on which the majority of respondents' abilities fall. However, there are items at the difficult and easy ends where a minimal number of respondents could be found.

```
--------------------------------------------------------------------------------

       Persons MAP OF Items
          <more>|<rare>
                +
                |
          XXXX  |   CG31
  2         XX S+   CG38
        XXXXXX  |T  CG26
       XXXXXXX  |   CG18   CG24   CG33   CJ7
          XXXX  |S  CG14   CG15   CG28   CG34   CJ1    CJ15   CJ4
         XXXXX  |   CG16   CG17   CG19   CG21   CG22   CG23   CG25   CG27
  1      XXXXX  +   CG30   CG37   CG40   CI12   CI16   CJ13   CJ14   CJ17
      XXXXXXXX  |   CJ2    CJ3    CJ6    CJ8    CJ9
  0       XXXXX M+M CG10   CG29   CG32   CG35   CG39   CI11   CI13   CI14
           XXX  |   CI15   CI6    CJ11   CJ12   CJ16   CJ5
      XXXXXXXX  |   CG13   CG20   CG36   CG5    CI10   CI8
 -1        XXX  |S  CG12   CI2    CI3    CI4    CI5    CI7    CI9    CJ10
         XXXXX  |   CG11   CG4    CG7    CG9
         XXXXX  |T  CG1    CG3    CG6    CI1
         XXXXX  |   CG2    CI8
           XXX S|
  -2        XX  |
             X  |
         XXXXX  |
           XXX  |
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                +
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```

Figure 2. Person map of items

Figure 2 indicates the distribution of items based on the self-report questionnaire. As expected, items on the questionnaire which were self-reported (social innovation elements and social innovation outcomes) clustered towards the bottom of the logit scale.

Figure 3 and Figure 4 present the hierarchy of items based on their difficulty. This indicates that the participants had largely overestimated their actual ability. The most difficult item on the test was item CG31. Two items, item CG2 and CI8, were the easiest on the test and were clustered together with the self-report items. Person distribution was better matched to the items that tested their actual outcomes in delivering social innovation. Persons were also largely clustered at the middle of the scale (between -1 logit and +2 logits), where most of the items were located. This suggests that the items were not functioning well enough to clearly separate persons into differing levels of ability and that participants had somewhat accurately estimated the relative difficulty of the measures of spread and measures of centre. However, they underestimated their knowledge about the types of social innovation moves and overestimated their knowledge on delivering impact and values. Furthermore, it was found that in most cases, young entrepreneurs overestimated their ability based on the outcomes of social innovation. For the purpose of comparing the differences between the items (social innovation elements versus social innovation outcomes), we chose to compare several items relating to the types of data and graphic representation of data concepts. This can be viewed in the Category Probability Curve shown in Figure 5 below. The curve indicates that no

ENTRY NUMBER	RAW SCORE	COUNT	MEASURE	MODEL S.E.	INFIT MNSQ	INFIT ZSTD	OUTFIT MNSQ	OUTFIT ZSTD	PTMEA CORR.	EXACT MATCH OBS%	EXACT MATCH EXP%	Item
64	319	130	1.27	.17	1.83	4.6	1.88	4.9	B .51	51.5	60.4	CG31
52	353	130	.14	.19	1.47	2.7	1.49	2.8	C .53	57.7	66.1	CG19
54	354	130	.11	.19	1.46	2.7	1.44	2.5	D .51	59.8	66.2	CG21
57	342	130	.53	.18	1.30	1.9	1.35	2.1	E .51	62.9	64.4	CG24
69	364	130	-.27	.20	1.24	1.5	1.20	1.2	F .55	63.9	67.8	CG36
30	349	130	.29	.19	1.22	1.4	1.18	1.1	G .56	57.7	65.6	CJ14
37	373	130	-.62	.20	1.20	1.3	1.19	1.2	H .48	67.0	69.0	CG4
39	376	130	-.73	.20	1.03	.2	1.14	.9	I .56	68.0	69.4	CG6
40	372	130	-.58	.20	1.08	.6	1.14	.9	J .48	68.0	68.9	CG7
33	351	130	.22	.19	1.13	.9	1.09	.6	K .62	69.1	65.9	CJ17
66	342	130	.53	.18	1.12	.8	1.11	.7	L .57	64.9	64.4	CG33
47	345	130	.43	.19	1.12	.8	1.07	.5	M .55	67.0	64.8	CG14
41	385	130	-1.10	.20	1.09	.6	1.11	.7	N .28	70.1	69.6	CG8
67	348	130	.32	.19	1.10	.7	1.08	.6	O .53	60.8	65.4	CG34
65	357	130	.00	.19	1.08	.6	1.07	.5	P .50	67.0	66.7	CG32
22	350	130	.25	.19	1.07	.5	1.08	.6	Q .51	57.7	65.7	CJ6
68	355	130	.07	.19	1.06	.4	1.08	.6	R .55	69.1	66.4	CG35
1	378	130	-.81	.20	1.07	.5	1.08	.5	S .46	66.0	69.6	CI1
4	366	130	-.34	.20	1.05	.4	1.08	.5	T .54	68.0	68.0	CI4
26	365	130	-.30	.20	1.07	.5	1.02	.2	U .57	64.9	67.9	CJ10
38	364	130	-.27	.20	1.03	.3	1.06	.4	V .56	63.9	67.8	CG5
60	352	130	.18	.19	1.04	.3	1.05	.4	W .60	64.9	66.0	CG27
44	372	130	-.58	.20	.430	-.1	1.05	.4	X .40	69.1	68.9	CG11
15	356	130	.03	.19	1.05	.4	1.04	.3	Y .62	69.1	66.6	CI15
63	354	130	.11	.19	1.04	.3	1.03	.3	Z .53	68.0	66.2	CG30
7	365	130	-.30	.20	.91	-.5	.90	-.6	z .68	73.2	67.9	CI7
6	358	130	-.04	.19	.87	-.8	.91	-.5	y .57	67.0	66.9	CI6
29	353	130	.14	.19	.90	-.6	.87	-.8	x .51	64.9	66.1	CJ13
73	354	130	.11	.19	.88	-.8	.86	-.9	w .68	70.1	66.2	CG40
55	349	130	.29	.19	.82	-1.2	.88	-.8	v .55	69.1	65.6	CG22
21	357	130	.00	.19	.82	-1.2	.88	-.8	u .56	71.1	66.7	CJ5
13	359	130	-.08	.19	.87	-.8	.87	-.8	t .71	75.3	67.0	CI13
25	352	130	.18	.19	.87	-.8	.86	-.9	s .64	67.0	66.0	CJ9
34	377	130	-.77	.20	.86	-.9	.86	-.8	r .57	72.2	69.5	CG1
42	375	130	-.69	.20	.86	-.9	.85	-.9	q .45	71.1	69.3	CG9
20	348	130	.32	.19	.84	-1.1	.86	-.9	p .62	64.9	65.4	CJ4
18	352	130	.18	.19	.85	-1.0	.85	-1.0	o .61	67.0	66.0	CJ2
62	356	130	.03	.19	.84	-1.0	.85	-1.0	n .55	72.2	66.6	CG29
2	366	130	-.34	.20	.83	-1.1	.84	-1.0	m .58	78.4	68.0	CI2
19	350	130	.25	.19	.82	-1.2	.84	-1.1	l .65	74.2	65.7	CJ3
32	355	130	.07	.19	.81	-1.2	.81	-1.2	k .74	74.2	66.4	CJ16
61	346	130	.39	.19	.80	-1.3	.81	-1.2	j .67	64.9	65.0	CG28
45	365	130	-.30	.20	.81	-1.3	.76	-1.6	i .68	75.3	67.9	CG12
56	350	130	.25	.19	.78	-1.5	.81	-1.3	h .62	70.1	65.7	CG23
27	357	130	.00	.19	.78	-1.5	.76	-1.6	g .66	71.1	66.7	CJ11
10	364	130	-.27	.20	.78	-1.5	.77	-1.5	f .70	78.4	67.8	CI10
49	351	130	.22	.19	.73	-1.9	.75	-1.7	e .67	73.2	65.9	CG16
46	362	130	-.19	.19	.75	-1.7	.73	-1.8	d .61	72.2	67.4	CG13
31	348	130	.32	.19	.74	-1.8	.69	-2.2	c .67	73.2	65.4	CJ15
8	362	130	-.19	.19	.71	-2.0	.70	-2.0	b .65	71.1	67.4	CI8
35	385	130	-1.10	.20	.71	-2.1	.67	-2.2	a .60	79.4	69.6	CG2
MEAN	356.6	130.0	.00	.19	.99	-.1	1.00	-.1		67.7	66.6	
S.D.	11.9	.0	.44	.01	.22	1.3	.22	1.3		5.4	1.7	

Figure 3. Item statistics: Correlation order

collapsing of items is necessary. It estimates young entrepreneurs' experience in social innovation and empirical understanding relating to the types of social innovation that show that there are fewer discrepancies. This is indicative of the presence of fit responses to the items.

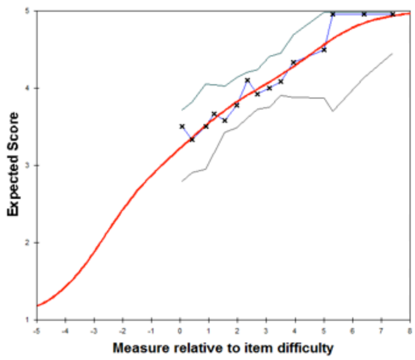

Figure 4. Measure relative to item difficulty

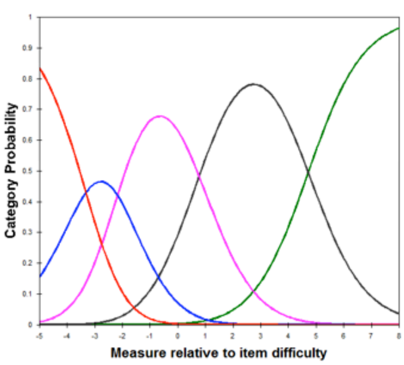

Figure 5. Category probability curve

DISCUSSION

The following discussion outlines the contribution that this research has made in two interdisciplinary areas of social innovation and entrepreneurship among young entrepreneurs in Malaysia.

Young entrepreneurs demonstrate their interest in social innovation through their social enterprises. As discussed, social entrepreneurship is characterised by a rigorous focus on outcomes. In one of the interviews, further analysis was done on young entrepreneurs and their experiences after engaging in the after-school education activities as part of their social products assisting their clients and beneficiaries. The two main subjects in which the young children performed below their grade levels were English and Mathematics. They used a smart training programme for instructors, and it has demonstrated substantial improvement in students' skills in Maths and reading in English. Students who participated in the smart training programme appeared to have advanced during the school years, and they continued to show progress. These young entrepreneurs received no preferences from the government over other approved service providers, most of which they believed paid less attention to quality.

Young social entrepreneurs pursuing long-term impact and outcomes in measuring their social innovation often assess their progress against the theory of change. In the above example, the pressing issues are to assist all young children in Malaysia to receive a good education. In order to achieve this objective, it must tackle problems that were set in motion by those from the bottom-of-the pyramid population or to be more specific, youths living in the marginalised communities. To derive into its social innovation outcomes, the measurement of success is set by the number of alumni who assume leadership positions in public education and the number of young schoolchildren who have shown positive improvement in their studies.

Young Entrepreneurship and Their Implications for Policy and Practice

The majority of research on social entrepreneurship has been conducted in developed countries such as the USA, United Kingdom, Australia and Canada; however, in the Malaysian context, there is lack of research on this. According to Raja Suzana, Azham, Sophie and Wan Safia (2013), few investigations have been carried out to address the Malaysians' interest in modelling the outcomes of social innovation among young entrepreneurs.

While most entrepreneurship research gives considerable thought to the question of how the performance and sustainability of enterprises work directly, and on the entrepreneurial orientation and intention issues, many fail to consider what creates change and delivers outcomes beyond their immediate reach when implementing social innovation. It appears that this research has contributed to its most dynamic outcomes, and that it has focussed extensively on this challenge of bringing young social entrepreneurs into action.

CONCLUSION

This research draws on several international research works that have enabled us to develop ideas for solutions that are both attractive and have the potential to create change. It is also evident that elements of social innovation have contributed to literature on social entrepreneurship as little research has focussed on the extent of trying out solutions that help researchers in this field to start thinking and learning about what works on a small scale. This work has also contributed to explaining how and what creates change before investing in providing a solution.

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Modelling Social Innovation for Young Entrepreneurs Living in the Marginalised Communities in Malaysia

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ABSTRACT

The heart of social innovation is the willingness to try out ideas that are helpful to others. Social entrepreneurs are also action researchers who learn primarily through experimentation, not relying solely on theory. This paper aims to revisit social innovation values that exist among youths who are keen to create social change. This paper is the product of an extensive review of literature and content analysis from social entrepreneurship empirical studies. In order to test the social innovation model, survey questions were developed and distributed to 203 young entrepreneurs living in marginalised communities in Malaysia. Findings show that educating young people to think and behave this way is different from helping them to acquire knowledge. It was also found that more young people are keen to improvise their careers by responding to the shifting needs and opportunities when they are engaged in social innovation. As social innovation addresses social issues, it creates social change and raises concerns about non-economic values. This paper recommends that in order to facilitate the multiplier effect, the Malaysian government should support more young entrepreneurs from marginalised communities in order to tackle social problems, improve communities and change people's life.

Keywords: Malaysia, social entrepreneurship, social inclusion, social innovation, youth entrepreneurship

INTRODUCTION

This paper aimed to capture social change based on the needs and activities of social innovation that youths living in marginalised communities in Malaysia had experienced.

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According to Martin and Osberg (2007) and Nicholls (2010), social innovation can be grouped into three categories: social innovation through new products or service development; social innovation in the use of existing goods and services in new ways; and social innovation in reframing normative terms of reference to redefine social problems and suggest new solutions.

This paper also aimed to develop the social innovation model which emphasises on the non-economical function it brings into social entrepreneurship. The objectives are framed in the context of the work of past empirical evidence combined with the analyses of interviews conducted among young entrepreneurs engaged in social innovation activities. Items for the study were developed based on the literature on the model before they were distributed to the youths, who responded according to their experience as they engaged themselves in social innovation moves.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Several important features of social entrepreneurship and social innovation emerge when one tries to associate them with economic perspectives. Social entrepreneurship may take place either in an economic setting or it may be part of non-economic activities. Swedberg (2011) differentiates social entrepreneurship from the economic and non-economic perspectives, similar to the study done by Neck, Bush and Allen (2009). An entrepreneur who emphasises on social impact and change through the use of social innovation in his business is regarded as pursuing non-economic social entrepreneurship. In contrast, an entrepreneur who focusses on initiating innovation in economic activities in pursuing his or her business is regarded as pursuing economic social entrepreneurship.

A review of the literature suggested that there exist some differences between social and commercial entrepreneurship. The literature points to a grey area in defining social entrepreneurship, and the many debates in the literature regarding this definition noted that the main difference between non-economic and economic social entrepreneurship has always rested on what the enterprise was trying to achieve. The debate also centred on the fact that social entrepreneurs focussed on maximising social impact, and their model usually addressed a gap that the existing institutions or governments failed to handle. Commercial entrepreneurship, on the other hand, focusses on profit-maximisation, addressing mainly shareholder wealth, building a value to customers and providing meaningful work for employees.

Social Innovation and Its Associated Impact

The works of Dees (1998, 2001, 2010) appear to share some similarities with that of Bornstein (2004), which had contributed significantly to positioning wealth and social impact. Their findings make it clear that seeking to maximise social impact is not the only criterion for social entrepreneurship;

hence, it is important to understand how social impact works. In the Malaysian setting, there are a number of clean-technology (cleantech) organisations that offer solar energy and other products to established markets although they may not see themselves as a social enterprise as their sole objectives are to maximise their market potential rather than contribute to finding solutions.

The small social enterprise, Suncrox Solar Malaysia, is a good example. When interviewed about the contribution his enterprise is making, the founder agreed that the most powerful and useful innovations come from individuals who are themselves involved with problems at the grassroots and who live under constraints (personal interview with Noor Shahiwan, 2015). Suncrox Solar Malaysia offers out-of-the-box thinking based on scientific and technical solutions for several remote areas in Malaysia. The exploitation of renewable resources from solar energy prompted him to invest in cheaper solar technology to resolve the problem of the high cost of electricity in developing countries. His model was expanded to solve problems faced by the street business industry by offering an innovative cleantech product to replace generators.

One of the leading examples of social entrepreneurship that uses social innovation elements in Malaysia is Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia (AIM), the nation's first women and community development that offers micro-credit facilities. AIM offers micro-credit financing schemes for the poor to allow them to participate in any economic activities based on the skills acquired in an effort to increase their family income (AIM, 2015). AIM was established on 17 September, 1987 by a Deed of Agreement and registered under the Trustees (Incorporation) Act 1952 (amended 1981) (Act 258). Similar to the approach of Grameen Bank in Bangladesh, this project appears to offer solutions. The researchers have recommended to them a guided version of financial assistance for groups of entrepreneurs of poor and low-income families (AIM, 2015).

The two examples above indicate that social innovation can be used as an engaging mechanism that offers solutions that are dynamic and able to spark social values that reflect both social and economic considerations. Social innovation assists social entrepreneurs to assess the social value and impact produced by their activities or operations either in a for-profit or non-profit organisation. For years, literature shared similar success stories in which social enterprises focussed greatly on creating social value, addressing social challenges/inclusions and establishing social impact. Although Malaysia has yet to support the implementation of specific policies and laws to date, academic literature provides evidence in the form of theories derived from Western perspectives and existing local social enterprises that proves otherwise. In this sense, it is useful to highlight these engagements from the point of the experiences of social enterprises. In order to achieve the objectives of this paper, a series of interviews was conducted to highlight several key characteristics of social innovation and social enterprises.

According to Bassi (2013), the social value produced by organisations forms the basis for social impact. Emerson, Wachowicz and Chun (2000) suggested that the term 'social impact' appears to overlap with the term 'social value creation'. Clarkin, Deardurff and Gallagher (2012) claimed that 'social return' has many definitions which may be associated with 'social accounting'. Volkmann, Tokarski and Ernst (2012) integrated the definition of Clarkin et al. (2012), which sees social impact as the value created as a consequence of someone's activity; the value experienced by beneficiaries and all others affected includes both positive and negative effects.

It is necessary to learn the elements of social innovation and its phases as it appears to contribute to the success of the social impact of social enterprises. As it may be evident from several engagements and experiences of social enterprises in the Malaysian perspective, they are truly a new type of business. In most of the empirical exploration conducted using the interview method in Malaysia, it was evident that social innovation was created mostly by young individuals who were portrayed as engaging in a bold social entrepreneurial approach. They even claimed that they were pursuing activities that were aligned with an explicit social mission.

This is in line with empirical evidence from the work of Western scholars (Nicholls, 2006, 2009, 2010; European Commission, 2013), along with recent findings from the Malaysian perspective such as Choi and Satyajit (2013), Isidore, Norsiah and Margaret (2015) and Hardy and Shahimi (2015). Empirical studies have shown some trends on the development of social entrepreneurship that use social innovation in their phases of social enterprise development (Hardy, Shahimi, & Azahari, 2015). It was further found that many young individuals participated and were keen to offer their services voluntarily and to make an impact. These activities are becoming central to the development of an effective tool to measure the success of social impact. Raja Suzana (2016), Saiful, Mokhtar and David (2014), Rahim and Mokhtar (2014) and Najib (2015) share perspectives on social entrepreneurs in Malaysia that are similar to those held by others in other parts of the world.

The new paradigm shift in social entrepreneurship that embeds social innovation helps to deal with the unresolved and most pressing issues. It is believed that these activities leave a significant effect on economic, social and environment agenda. The empirical work of Dees (1998, 2001, 2010) and Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum and Shulman (2009) adds value to the defining criteria set for social enterprise. Bornstein (2004) devoted an extensive work connecting readers and researchers on social entrepreneurship as an emerging business model. In order to accelerate the success of measuring social impact, it was found that social innovation offered a solution that was dynamic, and was proven to spark social value that reflects success in socio-economic, environmental and community development. According to the Guide to Social Innovation developed by the European Commission Social Innovation principles (2013), social innovation can be defined as the development and implementation of new ideas (products, services and models) to meet social needs and create new social relationships or collaborations. It represents new responses to pressing social demands that affect the process of social interactions. It is aimed at improving humans' well-being. Social innovations are innovations that are social in both their ends and their means. They are innovations that are not only good for society but also enhance individuals' capacity to act.

In Malaysia, micro, small and medium enterprises receive support from the Government to embark on social enterprise values. Social innovation was thought to be a successful business model, thus, it was given much attention through Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia, the Innovation Agency of Malaysia and MAGIC Social Enterprise. These agencies assist in capacity building in social innovation and open their doors to young people in Malaysia to learn more about social innovation.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The literature review in the previous section showed the differences between the various types of social innovation and social entrepreneurship and the people involved (social entrepreneurs) along with the roles they play. This paper regards social innovation as activities associated closely with social entrepreneurship engagements and their associated phases of social innovation and elements. In developing items for social innovation, the paper focusses on two elements that are addressed critically in the context of this paper.

The conceptual framework as illustrated in Figure 1 was developed by integrating the social innovation principles from the European Commission Social Innovation (2013), the Social Return on Investments Model of New Economic Foundations (2004) and the Social Innovation Model in Malaysia (Raja Suzana, 2016).

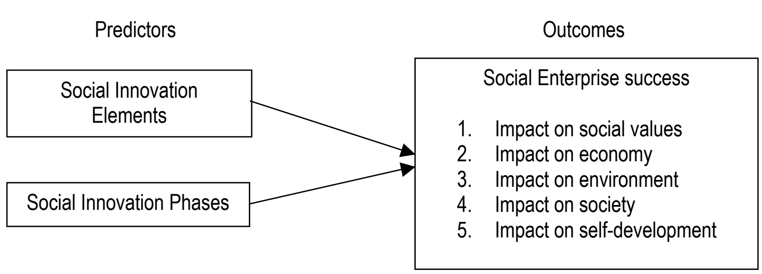

Figure 1. Conceptual framework of success of social innovation and social enterprise
Sources: Variables of elements of social innovation were adapted from Guide to Social Innovation, European Commission (2013) and the Social Innovation Model in Malaysia (Raja Suzana, 2016), while the variables of social enterprise success were adapted from the New Economic Foundation (2004) and interviews involving local social entrepreneurs in Malaysia

It conceptualises the process of social innovation, its core activities and the extent to which it brings about the success of social enterprise.

Integrating the work of Dees (1998, 2001, 2010), Zahra et al. (2009), Bornstein (2004) and Raja Suzana (2016), social entrepreneurship is defined as the process of developing innovative and sustainable solutions to the neglected problems of society. It translates into social innovation whenever it leads to more effective responses for societal problems (relative to alternatives in place). Hence, social innovation criteria must be developed from each phase that begins with the ideas, prototyping and piloting, scaling and implementing. This is framed in Table 1 and Figure 2 (European Commission Social Innovation principles, 2013). The following section describes how each of the following items was developed in order to explore the process of establishing social innovation items and measuring social enterprise success.

Table 1
The four phases of social innovation

Phases		Definition
1.	Ideas	Social entrepreneur begins social mission in the form of an idea
2.	Prototyping and piloting	Social entrepreneur may then pilot or prototype the ideation
3.	Implementation	Social entrepreneur establishes new form of venture such as a social enterprise or a new policy within an existing institution
4.	Scaling	Social entrepreneur finally scales up products/services so as to develop new approach and new impact and becomes part of the norm

Source: Social Innovation Guide, European Commission Social Innovation principles (2013)

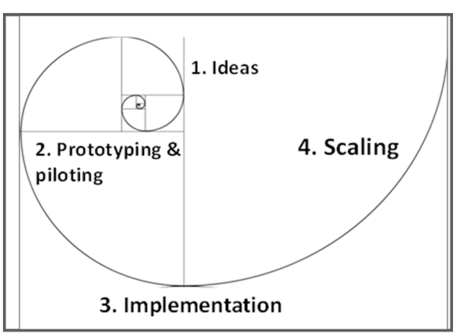

Figure 2. The spiral model of social innovation
Sources: Social Innovation Guide, the European Commission Social Innovation principles (2013)

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study examined the extent of initiatives and change created as outcomes of social innovation activities among young entrepreneurs living in marginalised communities in Malaysia. The samples targetted were those between the age of 20 and 25 years old and with at least two years of experience in a business. The empirical process included the capturing of both tacit and explicit entrepreneurial values in building social innovation moves. There is an urgent need for an innovative social innovation model that examines the current trend among young entrepreneurs. This research adopted the descriptive correlational design involving a total of 203 young entrepreneurs. Samples were stratified to determine if they had engaged in a business activity in the past two years. The representatives from these strata sampling appear to reflect the population of young entrepreneurs in the selected areas of the study.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

After making sure that the data gathered fully met the normality assumptions, multiple regression analyses were carried out to explore the interactional effect of social innovation and its phases on the success of social enterprise. The examination of the analysis was tested using the higher-order interaction effects of the multiple regressions to confirm the presence of the effects of the variables as well as to differentiate the strength of the levels of utilisation of social innovation and non-social innovation.

Modelling Social Innovation and Social Enterprise Success

Table 4 shows that for Model 1, R=0.318, R2=0.101 and [F (1, 202)=144.308, p =0.000]. R2 means that 10% of the increase in variance in the social enterprise success is explained by social innovation.

Table 4
Model summary (c) – social enterprise success

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Std Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	0.318a	0.101	0.100	0.613	0.101	144.308	1	202	0.000
2	0.359b	0.129	0.128	0.604	0.028	41.026	1	201	0.000

a Predictors: (Constant), social innovation
b Predictors: (Constant), social innovation and phases of social innovation
c Dependent Variable: Social Enterprise Success

Model 2 displays the results. As shown in Table 4, the addition of the product term resulted in an R^2 change of 0.129, [F (1, 201)=41.026, $p < 0.001$]. The results supported the influence of social innovation and its phases on the success of social enterprise. In other words, the effects of interaction between the four phases of social innovation explained a 12% increase in the variance in the social enterprise success measures, which is beyond the variance explained by the social innovation element scores.

Specifically, the coefficients table, Table 5, shows that the resulting regression equation for Model 1 and Model 2 is as following:

Table 5
Coefficients(a) – social enterprise success

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.836	0.088		32.224	0.000		
	Social Innovation	0.266	0.022	0.318	12.013	0.000	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	2.384	0.112		21.336	0.000		
	Social Innovation	0.186	0.025	0.222	7.388	0.000	0.752	1.330
	Phases of Social Innovation	0.196	0.031	0.193	6.405	0.000	0.752	1.330

a Predictors: (Constant), social innovation
b Predictors: (Constant), social innovation and phases of social innovation
c Dependent Variable: Social Enterprise Success

The coefficients for the social innovation and its phases in Model 1 were statistically significant at $p<0.001$. Equation 1 shows that for a 1-point increase in social innovation, the social enterprise success measures were predicted to have a difference of 0.186, given that the phases of social innovation were constant. The regression coefficient associated with the phases of social innovation means that the difference in social enterprise success was 0.196, given that the social innovation score was held constant.

Equation 1:

Social Enterprise Success = 2.384 + 0.186 Social Innovation + 0.196 Phases of Social Innovation

Social Innovation Explains the Success of Social Enterprise

This study found that young entrepreneurs claimed that social innovation and its phases contribute to the measures of success of social enterprise. The finding also means that the sample used for the perceived social innovation and its phases had a significant and positive relationship with the success of social enterprise. The identification of new ideas that met social needs and development of new solutions appeared to be a successful measure of social innovation and is applicability in the context of the success of social enterprise.

Furthermore, the development of a dynamic social innovation phase will offer more insight into the basis of 'static' innovation typologies developed to date. The empirical work of Dees (1998, 2001, 2010) and Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum and Shulman (2009) adds value to the defining criteria set in measuring the success of a social enterprise. The findings confirmed Bornstein's (2004) views on the emerging business model in which social innovation can offer explanation of the success model of social enterprise. This paper also supports the European Commission Social Innovation principles (2013) and guides where the social innovation definition fits the development and implementation of new ideas (products, services and models) to meet social needs and create new social relationships or collaborations. It concludes with the understanding that social innovation represents new responses to pressing social demands, which affect the process of social interactions. It is aimed at improving human well-being.

This paper also shed some light on 'static' generic innovation as viewed in the work of Zahra et al. (2009). Social innovation expands the relevant phases to incorporate more than economic wealth such as social purpose aimed at by social enterprises. In this paper, the researchers contributed to and extended the work of Dees (1998, 2001, 2010), Zahra et al. (2009) and Bornstein (2004), whose arguments on entrepreneurial entities may appear to occupy a broad spectrum between the production of social and economic wealth, but should express both variables in some gradation to be considered social entrepreneurs.

The phases of social innovations, for example as studied in this paper can assist social entrepreneurs, researchers and policy-makers to identify ideas that are most promising to be used for the pilot study, and to identify the best pilot test to improve the existing models of practice as guided in the European Commission Social Innovation principles (2013). Next, the pilot test should be used to implement projects that are considered sustainable ventures and should be scaled up to achieve systemic changes (Social Return on Investments Model of New Economics Foundations, 2004; Raja Suzana, 2016).

Theoretical and Practical Implications

Consistent with the findings of Dees (1998, 2001, 2010), Zahra et al. (2009), Bornstein (2004) and Raja Suzana (2016), social innovation and its offering of phases as discussed in this paper was based on various related streams. Those streams involved the resource-based view (RBV), strategic management and entrepreneurship, innovation and information and communication and technology (social innovation). The perceived values that social innovation brings appear to have a sound theoretical base, which has not necessarily been the case for other generic strategies of traditional business school and commercial entrepreneurship.

Social innovation was further perceived as one of the contributing factors in explaining the success of social enterprise. This paper has shown the levels of excitement that social entrepreneurs have in sharing their ideas and expertise for the benefit of others, be it for their own enterprise development or for that of the community or the state, both at the national and international levels.

This paper also adds value in terms of specific policies orientated towards capacity building development. A number of social entrepreneurs portrayed their interest in contributing towards positive human development activities, and they do so on a voluntary basis. This in turn could be taken as a practical contribution, where policy-makers should address these factors as evidence that social entrepreneurs have the intention to create job opportunities for others and enjoy offering social products with a network of assistance to those who need it. This is important for addressing the unemployment issue faced by the nation and for encouraging social entrepreneurs to be involved in development activities for young people living in marginalised communities in Malaysia.

CONCLUSION

The key finding of this paper suggests that the greater use of social innovation and its relevant phases contribute to the success value of social enterprise as perceived by young entrepreneurs from the marginalised population in Malaysia. It was found that educating young people to think and behave this way is different from helping them to acquire knowledge. It was also found that more young people are keen to improvise their career as they respond to shifting needs and opportunities when they engage in social innovation. Social innovation addresses social issues, which in turn produces social change and raises concerns about non-economic values. This paper recommends that in order to facilitate the multiplier effect, the Malaysian government should support more young entrepreneurs from marginalised communities in order to tackle social problems, improve communities and change people's lives.

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Proclivity of Political Participation among Wakaidesu (若いです) Japanese

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ABSTRACT

Wakaidesu (若いです) or Young Japanese have been seen as being indifferent to politics and do not seem to regard political parties as representing their concerns. This is a blow to the Japanese democracy as the great majority of youth are politically apathetic and they are distancing themselves from active participation in politics. This paper describes the growing political apathy among young Japanese citizens aged between 20 and 35 that needs to be changed. Policies of the state should advocate for issues of interest to younger voters. The engagement of Japanese youth is reflected in three major issues: the feminist movement, community service and environmental protection, all of which will be discussed in this paper. The country urgently needs more young Japanese to be engaged in issues concerning the relationship between the economic and political state of the nation. The paper argued that the political involvement of young Japanese is not being attended to seriously. Instead, political parties are busy securing votes from the largest group of voters, ignoring the young. This has led to the increase of political apathy among young voters, bringing the Japanese democracy into decline. Finally, the paper will also discuss a cultural ethnographic study on the use of the media among Malaysian youth as a comparative analysis to show how self-identity and social identity can be built.

Keywords: Political apathy, political participation, young Japanese, voter

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INTRODUCTION

Political participation reflects the way people with various attitudes utilise their opportunities. Civic involvement is indeed

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necessary to reach the 'expectation' of democratic ideals. Among political activities which society is involved in are the conventional, which is limited to vote casting and political campaigning, and the unconventional such as protests and women's participation, and the recent civil activities such as volunteering and social engagement. These forms of participation are consistent with actual civic engagement practices.

According to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2013, pp. 17–18) opportunities for youth to engage in governance and participate in political and decision-making processes depend largely on the political, socioeconomic and cultural contexts where social norms in many parts of the world result in multiple forms of discrimination against young women. Since the Arab awakening, many youth in the region have remained politically active through "political movements" instead of engaging with political parties. Young men and women are traditionally active politically in universities (when allowed) but very often disillusioned with political leadership and political institutions and excluded from policy development. This has resulted in political activism of youth not being organised according to formal groupings.

Furthermore, both formal and informal engagement can be understood as political participation, and both are beneficial for a vivid and resilient democracy and should be supported. There is strong evidence that the participation of young people in formal, institutional political processes is relatively low when compared to older citizens across the globe. People under the age of 35 are rarely found in formal political leadership positions. This has led to discussion of political leadership in democratic Japan. Eligibility for service in Parliament starts at 25 years of age or older and it is common practice to refer to politicians as 'young' if they are below 35 to 40 years of age (UNDP, 2013, p. 13). Youth are not represented adequately in formal political institutions and processes such as Parliament, political parties, elections and public administration.

According to Takahashi and Hatano (1999, p.225–230), Japanese youth engagement has focused on three major issues: feminist movement, community service and environmental protection. The movements are indirectly political matters. The first began in the 1890s and involved protests against pollution from various sources, including mining. The second, antinuclear protests, began in 1954 and became one of the more active political movements in which youth participated. Takahashi and Hatano added that those involved in environmental protection generally are not directly political because they focus primarily on consumer concerns such as food additives, natural food and organic farming methods. They note that at least some young people regard environmental protection to be an economic and political issue. Takahashi and Hatano (1999, p.232) concluded that "a great majority of youth are indifferent to politics" and did not regard political parties as representatives of their concerns. Their argument has been supported by Hayes (1995, p.144), who stated that "the great majority of students are politically apathetic and do not participate actively in politics."

According to White (1994, p.11), youth are defined by marital and employment status rather than by age, and such institutional definitions have more weight than social and psychological identities. The regulatory and protective functions of institutions such as family and school still dominate the lives of Japanese youth into their 20s.

However, in Malaysia, media channels such as *Facebook* and the medium of television are popular among Malay youths, who make use of these outlets particularly for news content, entertainment and religious texts. Satellite television in particular plays a very important role in assisting the development of ideology, including social, political and cultural thought among youth. At the same time, the government frequently makes television its primary medium in highlighting political agenda and social and cultural rights on an ongoing basis. However, the popularity of new media has led the government to believe the idea that Malaysian youth today are not established or nurtured through any political statement in any traditional media like television and newspapers. They believe that Malaysian youth today tend to see and believe what is disseminated through new media such as *Facebook, Blog, YouTube, Twitter* and so on. At the same time, new media technology is considered popular and has become an important alternative source of information for audiences.

However, this paper also argues that despite the fact that new media such as *Facebook* have a certain effect on the formation of identity and the ideology of Malaysian youth, this technology is not a determinant of the total. Traditional media, especially television, are still considered relevant and have an effect of its own. For example, the importance of television was realised by opposition political parties, who use the Internet now as a platform for disseminating their political and ideological agenda to avoid constraints placed on them by the police and the government. One example of is TV Selangor, an opposition news channel available online.

The main discussion of this paper focuses on the propensity or tendency of young Japanese to avoid involvement in political parties and how they react to political involvement, and includes a short analysis of the role of Malaysian youth as a comparative study on political participation of youth in both countries.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Historical Experience

The historical period of Japanese development brought tremendous change to the political system. Utter (2011, p.108–109) found that Japan faced economic reversal in the 1990s as well as scandals involving government officials, bankers and industrialists. This brought a new paradigm to the Japanese economic sector, which experienced tremendous change. He added that after Japan lost 3 million lives in World War II and suffered the atomic bombing of the cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, it became a parliamentary democracy with a largely symbolic hereditary monarch, the Emperor.

After the death of Emperor Hirohito in 1989, the monarchy passed to his son, Akihito, who succeeded the throne. Immediately after the war, the Allied powers governed Japan through the US military commander, General Douglas MacArthur. A new constitution went into effect in May 1947, which established the structure of Japan's government, guaranteed certain rights, such as universal adult suffrage, and prohibited the development of a large military. The nation has a parliamentary form of government, with a two-house legislature, the Diet, consisting of a House of Representatives, whose representatives must be at least 25 years old, and a House of the Councillors (参議院, Sangiin), whose representatives must have reached the age of 30. Every four years, an election is held to fill all seats in the House of Representatives. The electorate choose half the members of the House of the Councillors every three years. In addition to parliamentary elections, there are also elections every four years for the 47 regional prefectures and for municipal governments. The minimum voting age is set at 20.

While Rosenbluth and Thies (2010, p.101) concluded that the 1994 electoral reform has led to a more consolidated, bipartisan political system, greater emphasis has been placed on party platforms and party leaders, nationwide campaigns and more (but not completely) homogeneous parties and weakened factions. Factions, especially in the Liberal Democratic Party (LDP), which represents special interests, previously played a dominant role in Japanese politics. They added that the campaigns are more issue-orientated, with parties seeking to attract "the mythical median voter" rather than depending on the support of particular segments of the population, such as farmers. Although the LDP and the Democratic Party of Japan (DPJ) have become the two dominant political parties, the proportional representation aspect of elections allows third parties to gain representation in the Diet. The emergence of the DPJ as a rival to the LDP, which dominated the electoral scene for more than three decades, may provide young citizens greater incentives to participate in the electoral process. However, Hayes (1995, p.145) emphasised that campaign activities that are taken for granted in the United States are extensively restricted in Japan, which may tend to discourage citizens from engaging in the electoral process.

Political involvement of young people in Malaysia has long been discussed by local and international academics. Young leaders like Tun Dr. Ismail, who was appointed deputy president of his political party at the age of 36 years, are well known and respected for their leadership credibility. Even foreign leaders have acknowledged their caliber; for instance, the late Lee Kuan Yew, the first Prime Minister of Singapore, praised Tun Dr. Ismail for his firm stance and courage in his book, Singapore Story (1998). Indeed, Malaysia has a long list of interesting young leaders like Tun Dr. Mahathir, Tun Musa Hitam, Datuk Seri Anwar Ibrahim, Tan Sri Muhammad Muhd. Taib and Tan Sri Rahim Chik.

However, there is a significant difference in the involvement of young people in politics today. Khairy Jamaludin, Mukhriz Mahathir, Razali Ibrahim, Reezal Merican Naina Merican, Rosnah Abdul Rashid, Wee Ka Siong, Mah Hang Soon, T. Mohan, Lim Guan Eng, Tony Pua Kiam Wee, Anthony Loke Siew Fook, Nurul Izzah, Teresa Kok, Mohamed Azmin Ali, Gobind Singh Deo, Gwo-Burne Loh Yeow Tseow Suan, Nik Nazmi Nik Ahmad, Mohd Yusmadi Mohd. Yusoff and Nasrudin Hassan were among politicians who started to join politics at young age. These high-spirited young leaders are working tirelessly for change and justice in Malaysian politics despite ideological differences among them. The younger generation as listed earlier has never stopped fighting for the political issues. Young Malaysians are interested in politics and are eager to lead. More and more young leaders are now in the forefront of Malaysian politics.

Cultural Politics/Political Participation

Post-war Japanese urban culture has featured a succession of highly visible but transient youth subcultures, often led by young women as mentioned by Ito (2005, p.131–138). Skov and Moeran (1995, p.1–10) describe how young Japanese women's central posting in media imagery and cultures of consumption are an invasion of their weak position in the labour market. The research focuses on the consumption and style, particularly of youth street cultures, in which young Japanese women have taken the lead. Even though the research looks at the political culture of young women, it revealed that women's participation has brought an advantage to Japanese politics because of its marginal status.

Arai (2011) stated that in Japan and other countries that have adopted a parliamentary democracy, voters select representatives through election. The elected representatives then form a parliament and make political decisions. He focused on the marked political apathy among young voters. Data showed that the voter turnout for national elections after WWII decreased significantly in the 1990s for both the Lower House and Upper House of Parliament. In the 2000s, voter turnout increased and remained constant between approximately 60% and 80%. He agreed that voters in their 20s were fewer than those from any other group after examining voter turnout by age group in the 2010 national election. He stated that a low voter turnout among young people means that it is increasingly difficult to reflect the opinion of the youth in parliament. It is obvious that this situation requires reform.

This problem of lack of participation of young people in politics is not only apparent in Japan but also in South Korea. South Korea is now encouraging its young people to get involved in politics especially as voters. The political alienation of youth has led to a new dilemma that requires re-examination of the popular political. The South Korean government has introduced many strategies, working through universities, high schools and youth organisations in the country to promote youth involvement. However, due to the country's education system, young South Koreans are more attached to study and tend not to be involved in politics.

Figure 1 shows the pattern of low voter turnout in Japan since 1967. As reported by Colin Jones in The Japan Times, December 10, 2014, "*Antei wa, kibō desu*" ("Stability … is Hope") ("Electoral dysfunction leaves Japan's voters feeling impotent"). That is the vaguely Orwellian slogan of the conservative Komeito, Abe's sometime-political ally. This simple message holds a certain appeal for those whose actuarial hope horizons do not extend beyond the next decade, and who may want nothing new from the 21st century other than perhaps a robotic exoskeleton for the caregiver to help lift them or their even older parent out of bed (www.japantimes.co.jp). He emphasised that to young people, dreaming of disruptive innovation or meaningful social change, however, this may sound like an exhortation to just give up.

Indeed, there does not seem to be much in Japan's election for the young or even middle-aged. Abe brought up the question of economy and financial issues regarding taxes and the GDP-to-national-debt ratio. If Abe wins a suitable mandate from the status-quo crowd, he can presumably get on with the important task of making it easier for companies to hire people like the young Japanese as well as fire them. He stated that for people who like job security, there would probably be plenty of opportunities to earn pocket money.

Voter turnout data for Japan

The table below shows the statistics from recent elections in Japan. The data has been verified where possible. You can click on any cell to see when the data was last reviewed. You can also help us make the database better by suggesting updates or corrections.

Select country: Japan

Parliamentary

Year	Voter Turn-out	Total vote	Regi-stration	VAP Turn-out	Voting age popu-lation	Population	Invalid votes	Compulsory voting
2014	52.66%	53,334,447	101,280,758	51.97%	102,617,759	127,103,388		No
2012	59.32%	61,669,473	103,959,866	59.67%	103,345,755	127,368,088		No
2009	69.27%	72,003,538	103,949,442	69.34%	103,833,813	127,078,679		No
2005	67.46%	69,532,186	103,067,966	66.62%	104,373,789	127,417,244	1.70%	No
2003	59.80%	61,183,286	102,306,684	59.07%	103,577,642	127,214,499	3.40%	No
2000	60.62%	60,882,471	100,433,798	59.02%	103,155,387	126,996,466	3%	No
1996	59.65%	58,262,930	97,680,719	60.27%	96,672,730	125,549,000		No
1993	67.02%	63,574,819	94,866,020	66.25%	95,955,900	124,670,000	1.20%	No
1990	73.31%	66,215,906	90,322,908	74.95%	88,348,250	124,434,155	0.60%	No
1986	63.99%	61,703,794	96,426,845	71.53%	86,259,320	121,492,000	2%	No
1983	67.94%	57,240,830	84,252,608	67.60%	84,673,890	119,259,000	0.80%	No
1980	74.56%	60,338,439	80,925,034	74.70%	80,771,400	117,060,000	2.20%	No
1979	68.00%	54,518,515	80,169,924	68.18%	79,964,100	115,890,000	0.90%	No
1976	73.44%	57,231,993	77,926,588	73.55%	77,814,750	112,775,000	1.10%	No
1972	71.75%	52,929,059	73,769,636	73.86%	71,663,200	106,960,000	0.90%	No
1969	68.50%	47,442,401	69,260,424	68.63%	69,123,900	103,170,000	1%	No
1967	73.98%	46,599,456	62,992,796	73.36%	63,522,900	100,830,000	1.30%	No
1963	71.14%	41,458,946	58,281,678	68.62%	60,416,370	95,899,000	1.10%	No
1960	73.50%	39,920,119	54,312,993	71.38%	55,926,000	93,210,000	1%	No

Figure 1. Voter turnout for Japan 1960–2004
Source: http://www.idea.int/vt/countryview.cfm?id=114

For example, the 2008 Candlelight Protests of Korea was very significant in portraying the political environment among South Korean youth. Many challenges and advanced technologies have driven the youth community to be engaged in politics. Due to historical perspective with the people of North Korea, young South Koreans have embraced a different view of ethnic nationalism. The increase in usage of new media show that youth are using them as a platform to gain political information and this has brought a higher degree of sociopolitical interest among them (Ahmad & Eun, 2012, pp.208).

Research done by *Deutsches Institut für Japanstudien*, "Happiness in Japan:

Continuities and Discontinuities" (Figure 2) clearly identified one of the indicators of happiness in Japan as being political participation and happiness. In this research, the concept of political participation aimed at influencing decision-making in the political process and at controlling political elites. It can be understood as the participant's contribution to take an active part in improving society or the individual's own life. Political participation could, therefore, contribute substantially to subjective feelings of well-being and happiness. The concept of procedural utility (Frey, Benz, & Stutzer, 2004, p.387) supports this idea as it states that the results of decision-making and how decisions are reached matter for the well-being of the people concerned.

Figure 2. Happiness in Japan continuities and discontinuities

In Malaysia, the younger generation has not stepped into the political arena in real, to lead a political party, be elected as representatives of the people or stand for election. However, from an early age, they are exposed to political talk at home. In this case, the family institution plays a very important role; the father as head of the family must show good leadership over all members of the family. Schools are also important; teachers are the best model for educating and shaping the younger generation into being useful individuals. Likewise, in universities, lecturers are responsible for helping to prepare students for leadership in society to avoid social imbalance and lack of knowledge and drive among citizens.

With the explosion of information technology, cyber politics is becoming increasingly popular among the younger generation in Malaysia, who are resorting to alternative media to seek answers to their questions about national politics. This has led to a drop in popularity for the ruling political party, *Barisan Nasional*. The opposition are making use of cyberspace to provide information and to interact with Internet users, especially the youth. This has allowed the opposition to overcome the political constraints laid on them by the government. The use of cyberspace for political activation has led to the formation of a group of people who are more open-minded and liberal as they are free and face no restrictions when reading information from a blog or website.

Most online users are youth of aged 21 to 40 years, and they come to alternative media for answers to political issues. Even though many mainstream media take the initiative to provide online newspapers, they have not been able to attract the younger generation. With one click, Internet users are exposed to a variety of sources such as *Malaysiakini*, Malaysia Today and *Harakah Daily*.

The initiatives taken by the younger generation to follow the political development of the country is a paradigm shift that is positive but it needs to be monitored over time. With advances in technology, they are exposed to a variety of information that is often misinterpreted. Here, political education is very important; it is mandatory for them to learn the chronology of political education before venturing into the political arena. National history should not be ignored and needs to be explored for implicit and explicit narration. They should appreciate the struggle of other countries around the world that have been able to build respect for themselves.

Japanese Nationalism

Ishihara (2007, pp.110–117) offered a place to begin with his paradigmatic example of Japanese nationalism. It begins as a kind of historical revisionism related to World War II. Ishihara blamed the Allied Occupation Forces for distorting Japan's educational system and argued that now, 60 years later, is the time to revise the educational system to incorporate policies aimed at producing "patriotism" or *aikokushin* in Japan's youth.

Reviews done by Honda (2007, pp. 281–286) focused on contemporary Japan's youth nationalism; he pointed out that since the turn of the century, the shift of Japan's youth towards the political right and the upsurge of nationalism, in particular, has become the subject of much debate. The fanatical support for the national team in World Cup Soccer tournaments, the singing of the national anthem '*Kimi ga yo*' in unison, the 'Japanese language boom', the increase in young people worshipping at Yasukuni Shrine and the popularity of the comic book *Ken-Kanryu* (Hating the Korean Wave) are but some of the examples cited as evidence of this trend.

The research focused on the results of opinion surveys with high-school students as the object of the study. It substantiated the points made in Kayama Rika's "*Puchi Nashorizumu Shokogun: Wakamono-tachi no Nipponshugi*" (Petit Nationalism Syndrome: Young People's Japan Doctrine), where Kayama correlated the categories of nationalism and social status. Kayama referred to Ono Michio's (2003, pp.45–49) idea of 'soft' nationalism involving a 'disposition of mutuality' (*sogosei shiko*) where one enjoys both Japan and foreign countries. This, according to him, can be observed among high-school students in Japan's elite stratum.

In addition to critically arguing petit nationalism, Asaba Michiaki (2004, p. 275) referred to Kayama's point about young people's shift to the right as being "further evidence of nationalism's attrition," which is like giving "the impression of crying wolf when startled by the withering pampas grass." Kayama Rika and Kitada Akihiro's comments convey the principal arguments concerning youth nationalism in contemporary Japan.

The spirit of Malaysian nationalism or patriotism among the younger generation must be nurtured and cultivated starting from the family institution. The institution is capable of instilling love for family and love for country. These steps look easy to implement but without support, encouragement and awareness, the mission will fail.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND METHODOLOGY

The conceptual framework was developed based on previous research and discussion of historical experiences, cultural politics, political participation and Japanese nationalism. The issues that Takahashi and Hatano (1991, p.240) discussed regarding political participation among young Japanese led to the use of the term 'political ignorance' in describing social inaction in politics.

For socially engaged young Japanese and Malaysians, the decision to engage in politics may relate to the desire for personal or national expression. They may be constrained because of concerns about the nature or structure of the political system in Japan and Malaysia. However, to our knowledge, there are many empirical investigative studies of socially inactive or politically engaged youth. Thus, this paper sought to answer the following questions through interviews with the subjects:

Q1: Do youth decline to be engaged politically and prefer to be socially engaged?

Q2: What considerations influence political involvement among young Japanese and Malaysians?

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this research was to investigate the propensity of political participation among young Japanese and Malaysians and the factors that contribute to their political engagement. This paper applies the standardised open-ended interview format. Most of the time, a formally structured set of interview questions were used, where the exact wording and sequence of questions were predetermined. This interview structure was useful because the researchers had a limited amount of time as the subjects were available only at certain times or for limited periods.

Since this project aimed to explore ideas about political participation that may not fit the current trend of freedom of political participation among youth in the global context, the interview was a logical, flexible choice to capture such ideas. Allowing participants to actively shape the interview conversation also demonstrated respect and value for their thoughts and gave them a chance to tell their stories in meaningful ways.

The research expanded the communication log to include activities of the young Japanese and their participation in political organisations. Participants were asked to identify their interest in political issues spontaneously to capture their awareness about Japan's political situation, especially that involving the young people. The study involved three high-school students (aged 16-18), two college students (aged 18-21) and 11 university students (aged 21-35). The gender split was equal, with eight males and eight females. The majority of the participants were from Tokyo and Osaka. Seven were recruited from Osaka, central Japan to provide some geographic variation for the research study.

In addition to ethnographic work, the study based the analysis on Japanese popular political discourse and research literature on voter turnout and issues in elections that were of major concern among young Japanese voters.

Interview Questions

The interview questions are given below.

(1) Do you think young Japanese are given the freedom to express their ideas, voice and opinions of the political system?

(2) Do you participate in any political movements?

(3) What topics or issues seem political to you?

(4) What actions seem political to you?

(5) What purposes or reasons for doing things seem political to you?

These questions were asked and applied to get an overall picture of the young Japanese people in the political environment rather than their daily lifestyle of school, college, work, family and others. The questions were developed for an in-depth interview based on the ease and moderate questions were asked. They were approached in public areas such as shopping malls, university fields, parks and tourist attractions in both Tokyo and Osaka. The study also observed their activities at weekends.

Research Design

Participant Selection. In order to explore the experiences of young Japanese in political participation, in-depth qualitative interviews were conducted with a purposive convenience sample of 10 individuals. Interviewees were selected randomly from 30 among participants from various backgrounds. All 10 interviewees were between the ages of 18 and 35, as young people from this age group may participate in traditional political activities like voting, and they also best fit the description of individuals who lacked a political voice and were most likely to engage in non-traditional forms of political participation (Bennett, 1998, p.741).

The interviewees were selected based on a number of criteria. Both male and female participants were selected as the literature suggested that gender affects how people choose to participate (e.g. Coffe & Bolzendahl, 2010, p.318). In addition, participants who held a variety of political perspectives were included, as individuals with different ideologies may use technology for different political purposes (e.g. Benkler & Shaw, 2010, p. 377; Best & Krueger, 2005, p.183).

Research Analysis. According to Taylor (2001, p.5–10) language does not simply carry meaning; it creates and changes meaning as it is used. Schiffin and Hamilton

(2001, p.1–10) mentioned that generally, discourse analysis referred to the study of language as it is used to give meaning to concepts and ideas. Rather than focussing on grammar or the individual parts of a sentence, discourse analysis explores broader patterns of language use in order to analyse the data that are gathered. As such we used a form of discourse analysis.

Although the term can encompass a variety of different analysis techniques, approaches to discourse analysis generally assume that ideas and concepts are socially constructed rather than naturally occurring, meaning that the way individuals talk about a topic shapes their understandings and beliefs about that topic.

FINDINGS

Patterns and Pathways

Participant A, a 20-year-old female, described herself as being politically inactive and she preferred to be associated with feminist movements, especially activities organised by the students' society. She had never participated in voting during Election Day. During the interviews, she demonstrated that she was quite actively involved in addressing political issues informally. She defined "political" in broader terms by looking at the role of the government and political parties in providing more opportunities for youth.

Interviewee B was a 30-year-old female who actively updated herself with information on the political environment. She had been taking part in the election voting system since the age of 20 and planned to not to miss any voting. She emphasised the importance of participating politically in the voting system as the voting rate for young people was incredibly low.

Participant C was a 19-year-old male participant who considered himself to be slightly liberal, but did not identify with any political party and has never voted. He was very interested in national elections, but not very interested in local elections.

D was 35 years old, very conservative and interested in national elections, somewhat interested in local elections and always voted. He discussed political issues with his friends to share ideas and he felt very satisfied with the political expression among his colleagues.

Participant E was slightly reluctant to express her views on political issues and preferred to discuss how the Japanese education system had shaped the way of thinking among students at all levels. E was 26 years old and currently pursuing her Masters in a local university. She had participated in voting once and not after that because of lack of interest in politics.

Participant F, a 23-year-old female, was keen to participate in voting because she was used to speaking with her professor and with her American friends, who all have strong opinions about politics.

Interviewee G, 32 years old, mentioned that he had been actively engaged in politics since he was 21 years old. He said that participating in the voting process was very important for express his opinions instead of just thinking.

H was a 28-year-old waitress who felt that she had no time to participate in any political discussion due to her work schedule. She was a conservative person who chose to vote and keep busy with her daily life to earn a better income for her living expenses.

I was a 26-year-old female who identified as being slightly liberal and independent. She was very interested in national elections, but not very interested in local eelctions.

The final male interviewee, J, was 24 years old, moderate and considered himself to be an open-minded person because he said that if he waived his right to vote then he had no right to complain about politics or society. Therefore, he would be participating in voting responsibly.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Young Japanese between 18 and 35 years of age who participated in the interviews had not fully invested in politics but had a sense of impending crisis and were looking forward to participating in the political system.

Young people between 20 and 24 years of age account for 6% of the voting public as mentioned in Link Asia News. This shows that young people are considered a minority. There was a huge gap between the young Japanese voters and politicians due to the political campaigning and policies that targeted other groups.

There have been some effort to motivate Japanese youth to participate in politics. One is *YouthCreate*, a Japanese non-profit company that was established because of the lack of interest in politics from Japanese youth. In addition, the owner of the company, Kensuke Harada, also founded the student group, ivote. Harada also established the Voters Bar, which is a bar where politicians and youth can come together to discuss anything related to politics. Figure 3 shows the Voter's Bar website set up to encourage interactive participation among youth in Japan. The youth are able to discuss interactively online with other visitors and Harada actively responds to questions and posts updates on programmes.

Many gatherings have been held since the campaign was started. Four local participants and 28 participants ranging from high school students to young adults participated in the 18th gathering. They held gathering at the same place when they had once worked on reinvigorating of community in their college days. Harada, who witnessed the positive effects of interaction between the youth and politicians, sent a message to the younger generation. He stated, "What we need to show politicians is, more than voter numbers, how much more engaged and influential these young voters can be."

Harada added, "It is a mistake to believe that voting changes nothing. If you vote, something will change. You may have believed that the relatively smaller population of younger voters cannot influence politics, but if the voting rate among young people increases, or if politicians notice the increasing number of young supporters, then things may change." Harada regretted not having started this initiative a long time ago as voting is important.

Harada also used *Facebook* as a medium of communication to encourage and promote participation in the programmes and activities. Voter's Bar is not limited to discussing the role of youth in politics but Harada provides support, guidance, networking, volunteerism and many more opportunities to young Japanese. Figure 4 is an example of interactive communication on *Facebook* between participants and members.

Figure 3. Voter's Bar website

Figure 4. Voter's Bar *Facebook*

In Japan, the young people are expected to focus on education rather than on social matters and are expected to not criticise their elders. According to Hiroki (2014), there is very strong emphasis on supporting young people who are reclusive but promotion of political participation of youth is weak.

Figures 5, 6 and 7 shown below are the webpage of *YouthCreate* and Voter's Bar created by Harada, which explain the origins of the initiatives. The objective of the webpage was to give a clear picture of the reason for the establishment of Voter's Bar. Harada pledged to help Japanese

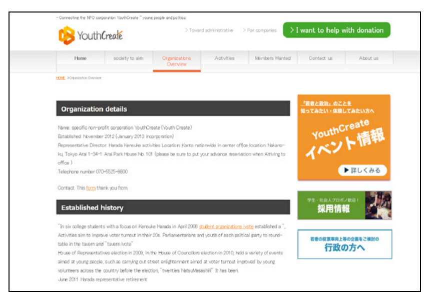

Figure 5. Example of *YouthCreate*

Figure 6. Harada's profile

youth to understand and be educated on the importance of political education and awareness. Although he is a lawyer, he wants to inject awareness of the need for political participation among young Japanese.

Figure 7. The programmes held by Voter's Bar posted in the webpage of *YouthCreate*

The effort of Voter's Bar in promoting political awareness and political participation should be applauded. The recognition of young Japanese voices and ideas on political issues should be heightened and many other platforms should be provided for them to participate in political discussion.

CONCLUSION

This discussion highlighted the introduction and implementation of efforts taken by the Malaysian and Japan governments towards greater participation of youth in politics. The success of a programme is based on the implementation and acceptance of the communities involved and how they want to be approached. There is no doubt that the young generation today need to be continuously nurtured to produce a harmonious such as envisioned in the concept of 1Malaysia.

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Crowdfunding as a Funding Opportunity for Youth Start-Ups in Malaysia

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ABSTRACT

One of the many hurdles that youth start-ups are facing in support of their pre-start-up capitals is access to finance. This paper highlights the expectations of Malaysian youth start-ups on crowdfunding activities as one of the sources of alternative funding in assisting them to pursue pre-start-up capitals. The paper examines the types of crowdfunding models being offered in the Malaysian setting. It further explores which types of crowdfunding models appear to be more suitable for the needs of youth pre-start-ups. In this context, a quantitative survey was conducted to investigate relevant models, its awareness levels and expectations of youth start-ups in selecting crowdfunding. The survey received 202 responses of Malaysian youth start-ups with a business of not less than two years. The overarching impression is that Malaysia, despite being the first ASEAN country with its own legal framework on crowdfunding, has placed focus merely on equity crowdfunding. Within the context of youth start-ups, the results indicate that youth prefer donation-based and reward-based crowdfunding. Results from the multiple regression analysis further show that little support was received from relevant authorities on promoting donation-based and reward-based crowdfunding to assist youth start-ups. The originality and value of this paper lie on the expectation of youth start-ups to pursue their business venture. While equity crowdfunding offers more risks, donation-based and reward-based crowdfunding provide better opportunities to ease youth start-ups to pursue the needs of their venture.

Keywords: Crowdfunding, donation-based crowdfunding, entrepreneurship, equity-based crowdfunding, Malaysia, youth start-ups

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INTRODUCTION

In an effort to democratise finance opportunities, the Government of Malaysia approved the equity crowdfunding (ECF) framework in 2015. This initiative has positioned Malaysia as the first country in the Asia-Pacific region to legislate ECF. With this initiative, the Government also announced six equity crowdfunding operators from whom entrepreneurs and small businesses can seek help in expanding their capital market and business for growth. At the other end, investors may now explore opportunities to invest in substantial business opportunities with relevant local and small medium enterprises (SMEs) and create social impact initiatives.

The Securities Commission of Malaysia (2014) has defined ECR as a new form of fundraising that allows start-ups of small enterprises to obtain capital through small equity investments from a large number of investors by way of using online portals to facilitate such investments. In addition to ECF, this paper also explores other types of crowdfunding models and examines the opportunities each model has to offer.

There are many obstacles that young people are facing in support of their pre-start-up capital needs (Cosh, Cumming, & Hughes, 2009). This paper highlights the expectations of youth start-up on fundraising activities using crowdfunding. It further explores the crowdfunding models which may serve as a new strategy to support youth start-up funding (Bhide, 1992). Hence, a quantitative survey was conducted to investigate relevant models of crowdfunding that exist in Malaysia, awareness levels of crowdfunding initiatives and expectations of youth start-ups to consider crowdfunding as one of the sources of their funding needs.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Crowdfunding as a Source of Funding Access

The literature highlights some of the emerging development that young people are encountering in meeting their needs for a new venture. Information support and seeking for appropriate advice are the two reasons why youth start-ups feel more confident about crowdfunding as a method of raising funds. According to Twingtangibles (2013), information support and advice are the key confidence-building factors, while generic awareness of crowdfunding is growing, information on crowdfunding is still lacking in providing the assurance required for youth start-ups to confidently choose this method as a preferred funding mechanism.

Youth start-ups also demand more information on how crowdfunding works and how to choose the best platform for their specific needs. It appears that youth start-ups may need assistance in their pre-start-up capital so as to bring their ideas to fruition. In reality, many of them face constraints in seeking funding assistance from the traditional financing sources. Hence, issues on capital gap become more urgent among youth start-ups. Seeking more credible and convincing information on what crowdfunding attempts to offer will likely open up potentials to bridge this capital gap and assist youth start-ups to pursue their business ventures.

Equity-Based Crowdfunding and Donation-Based Crowdfunding

Many previous empirical studies have suggested that crowdfunding has its own unique role in assisting the downtrend of the existing economy and the financial crash that has impacted young businesses to grow (Sharma & Lertnuwat, 2016; Apnizan, 2016). Crowdfunding is an activity involving a collection of relatively small contribution of a large number of people in order to support the small and medium enterprises and start-ups (Security Commission of Malaysia, 2014). Donation-based crowdfunding allows the public to donate money or make a financial contribution to a project without any expectation of a financial return (Security Commission of Malaysia, 2014).

Sharma and Lertnuwat (2016) found that equity of debt (such as peer-to-peer lending-based crowdfunding) offers a variety of financial returns on investment. The financial market, according to Sharma and Lertnuwat (2016), showed a significant growth in Asia by 320% to 3.4 billion. This business model further sets a starting point to consider opportunities that other types of crowdfunding are likely to offer. There are also various forms of benefit and drawback both youth start-ups and investors encounter as ECF offers unique opportunities and at the same time, challenges the risk of investment (Moritz, Block, & Lutz, 2015). These start-ups actually give youth the opportunity to learn that ECR is attributed to changes in their selection of crowdfunding as a choice of access to finance.

Hypothesis

This study was conducted based on the following hypotheses.

> Hypothesis 1: Equity-based crowdfunding has a positive relationship with the choice of youth start-ups to select crowdfunding as one of the alternative sources of funding.

In the context of youth start-ups, Apnizan (2016) has failed to address issues connecting community-based crowdfunding to the extent of young people's appetite and attitude that might make crowdfunding a more suitable or desirable option. Apnizan (2016) is of the view that donation-based crowdfunding offers the same value as community-based crowdfunding. This seems to pose some limitations and gaps in the existing studies in addressing youth expectations of the choice of best crowdfunding model alternatives that fit their pre-start-up capital needs. There is also limited evidence in the perspective of donation-based crowdfunding and the extent of levels of consideration in taking up any of these platforms among youth start-up research (Lambert & Schwienbacher, 2015).

Interestingly, donation-based crowdfunding can also be defined as funds being collected for no returns other than the one existing to the donating party. The donation-based crowdfunding structure offers youth start-ups the freedom and wider opportunities to pursue their business by way of no returns for any funds paid to the platform. In other words, it is purely by donation, an act of giving away someone's property (in this context, the paper is keen to explore more extensively the charity cause or activities involving donation from philanthropists) without any obligations on the part of the recipient to give anything in return. Youth start-ups are, therefore, expected to view donation-based crowdfunding as having a strong relationship with their choice to consider crowdfunding as one of the alternative sources of funding.

> Hypothesis 2: Donation-based crowdfunding has a positive relationship with the choice of youth start-ups to select crowdfunding as one of the alternative sources of funding.

According to research among Scottish entrepreneurs (Twingtangibles, 2013), in almost all cases, a crowd funder sets a specific target he or she wishes to raise and runs a campaign seeking relevant funding, which usually takes place over a defined period, the length of which varies considerably. This paper also views that ECF is regarded as a risky form of financing. The notion that ECF requires novel expectations of returns on investments is merely to make entrepreneurs understand that the typically small nature of investments should not expose investors to excessive risk (Twintangibles, 2013). In the next section, therefore, it is necessary to highlight the other types of crowdfunding models such as reward-based and peer-to-peer lending-based models. In response to risk issues, the next section also highlights these forms of crowdfunding models to weigh their rational and associated risk factors.

Reward-Based Crowdfunding

A reward is deemed commission-based by the contributor and provided by the party using crowdfunding to raise funds. There are a number of crowdfunding platforms such as IndieGogo and Kickstart that ride on reward-based crowdfunding. Reward-based crowdfunding works by way of the exchange of donations for some form of reward and/or voting rights in order to support initiatives for specific purposes (Lambert & Schwienbacher, 2015). From this engagement, it is apparent that the funders of reward-based crowdfunding expect something in return for the fund they are investing in the venture.

According to Apnizan (2016), these rewards could be in the form of acknowledgement like a thank-you mail, an artist's autograph or being mentioned by name on the cover of a film DVD or music CD. It is further noted that this nature of reward requires the platform to be legally registered. It is deemed to have been made transparent on the nature of the object to be achieved in raising the funding along with its disclosure requirements. Therefore, in this paper, the researchers consider reward-based funding as one of the options that youth start-ups prefer in order to select an alternative crowdfunding for fundraising.

> Hypothesis 3: Reward-based crowdfunding has a positive relationship with the choice of youth start-ups to select crowdfunding as one of the alternative sources of funding.

Peer-to-Peer Lending-Based Crowdfunding

Countries around the world have started to accommodate this form of financial return of crowdfunding. It is considered a little bit riskier compared to reward-based and donation-based crowdfunding models as it works on the provision of a loan to entrepreneurs (Lynn, 2016). The loan can be interest-bearing or simply a commitment to return the lent sum at some point in the future (Twintangibles, 2013). Similarly, peer-to-peer lending allows the public to give money in return for interest payment and repayment of the capital (Security Commission of Malaysia, 2015).

One of the important notes to consider is that peer-to-peer lending-based crowdfunding may offer the risk of closure or failure. There were cases, according to the Security Commission of Malaysia (2015), of contracts between investors and entrepreneurs that went missing that consequently resulted in investors losing 100% of their investments. Youth start-ups may need to be extremely cautious in considering peer to-peer lending if they do not fully understand the context of the risks and whether this model could offer them a more suitable option for their pre-capital start-up needs. Therefore, if youth start-ups understood the contexts of the risk in peer-to-peer lending-based crowdfunding, they will select crowdfunding as one of the sources of alternative access to finance.

> Hypothesis 4: Peer-to-peer lending-based crowdfunding has a positive relationship with the choice of youth start-ups in selecting crowdfunding as one of the alternative sources of funding.

CROWDFUNDING TRENDS IN MALAYSIA

Donation-based crowdfunding works on the fund being collected for no returns other than the existing one to the donating party (Twingtangibles, 2013). There are a few successful organisations that work on this model such as GoFundMe and DonorsChoose. They normally set a specific target they wish to raise and run a campaign. They seek funding over a defined period, the length of which can vary considerably (Twingtangibles, 2013; Apnizan, 2016). In Malaysia, the most sought-after funding platform is the ECR. ECR activities receive support from the Government of Malaysia to legislate its activities and strategies for both investors and entrepreneurs.

This paper further explores the context of how this model works as used by these six appointed ECR operators as illustrated in the following table.

Table 1
Appointed ECR operators in Malaysia

No.	ECR Operators	Type of CF	Investors	Issuers
1	Alix Global is a digital marketing agency and WeChat solution provider in Malaysia. The company is in partnership with FundedByMe, a Swedish crowdfunding platform with a Scandinavian nexus of investors that provide opportunities for Malaysian companies to attract funds from Europe.http://alixglobal.com/	ECF	• Pre-screening of companies • Regulated by Securities Commissions Malaysia and is compliant with the Malaysian Capital Market Securities Act • Diversify the investment portfolio through equity crowdfunding • Become a shareholder of a company • High-growth companies bring high returns • Bring early-stage companies previously accessible only to private equity and VC firms to any investors, giving investors the opportunity to invest in companies so that they can grow fast and big • Strive to minimise risks. Companies listed have to go through a stringent screening process designed to increase good investment opportunities.	• Ability to raise up to RM3 million in funds for a year's expenses • Great for SMEs & start-ups to access alternative finance options to develop the business • Develop contacts through investors and gain more insight into developing further • Worldwide brand exposure • Democratises the capital raising process • Brings savvy investors looking to invest in innovative early-stage Malaysian businesses • Offers to reduce the bureaucracy and get the company listed efficiently and effectively
2	PitchIN is a reward-based platform with tie-ups and partnerships with government agencies and angel investor networks. https://www.equity.pitchin.my/	ECF Reward-based		
3	Ata Plus is a crowdfunding platform, matching Sharia-compliant businesses with investors seeking substantial business opportunities. The firm aims to operate with a focus on local SMEs and social impact initiatives. http://www.ata-plus.com/deals	ECF		
4	Crowdonomic, with offices in Singapore, Malaysia and Indonesia, has the backing of US and Japanese investors and has a presence in Singapore. https://investment.crowdo.com/	ECF		
5	Dubai-based Eureeca is a regulated entity of UK Financial Conduct Authority, providing Malaysian companies an opportunity to raise funds from the Gulf region. http://eureeca.com/D efault.aspx	ECF		
6	Propellar Crowd+ has partners in both North Asian and Oceania markets such as Hong Kong, China, Taiwan and New Zealand. It aims to be the ECF hub for ASEAN, with plans to collaborate with Malaysian government agencies and to tap into various early-stage incubators and investing networking groups in the region. http://www.netrove.com/?p=3082	ECF		

Bradford (2012) provided some fundamental evidence on crowdfunding activities in the literature. Bradford (2012) argued that obtaining financial assistance at the initial stage of a small/micro business venture or other projects is a common problem faced by entrepreneurs despite their excellent business ideas or projects. This is in line with evidence from Cosh, Cumming and Hughes (2009) that revealed issues on obtaining financial assistance. The problem becomes worse when fund-raisers are not able to provide collateral for financial assistance and further, are faced with difficulties in attracting investors due to insufficient cash flow of the business start-up and relevant information asymmetry with investors (Bradford, 2012; Cosh, Cumming, & Hughes, 2009). The authors also argued that when seeking financing from any financial intermediary or equity venture company, credit screening was another hurdle that could impede fund-raisers' ability to obtain it (Apnizan, 2016; Cosh, Cumming, & Hughes, 2009). Traditional sources of capital, such as bank loans, venture and angel capital are relatively difficult to be secured by entrepreneurs (Apnizan, 2016; Lambert & Schwienbacher, 2015). According to Bradford (2012), entrepreneurs end up with bootstrapping techniques to raise their capital and mitigate their financial manacles by boosting their short-term profits (Ebban & Johnson, 2006; Winborg, & Landstrom, 2001).

As an alternative mode of fundraising, donation-based crowdfunding seems to be overlooked (Apnizan, 2016; Lambert & Schwienbacher, 2015). A lot of empirical evidence has provided details of the current status and opportunities offered by equity-based, peer-to-peer-based and reward-based crowdfunding models. The various models of crowdfunding offer prevailing characteristics and typical applicability. However, donation-based crowdfunding as an emerging fundraising model to assist lower income entrepreneurs receives little attention (Bradford, 2012; Cosh, Cumming, & Hughes, 2009). Therefore, the researchers aimed to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: Do the four hypotheses regarding crowdfunding choices influence the choice of crowdfunding selection as an alternative source of fundraising?

RQ2: Which of the four models of crowdfunding choice brings the most value to fund-raisers as an alternative source of fundraising?

CONCEPTUAL MODEL

The primary motivation of this paper was to seek the extent of choices among youth start-ups to select donation-based crowdfunding compared to other models of crowdfunding (ECR, peer-to-peer lending and reward-based), to discover awareness levels of crowdfunding in Malaysia and to explore the factors that influence young people in considering views on this model as a method of raising funds and creating access to their funding needs.

The conceptual framework was developed based on empirical evidence and the work of Twintangibles (2013) and the Securities Commission of Malaysia's (2015) definition of crowdfunding. The variables related to crowdfunding as an alternative model were developed by the researchers from related work by Apnizan (2016), Lambert and Schwienbacher (2015). The framework conceptualises the model of crowdfunding, awareness levels of crowdfunding and the extent to which youth start-ups perceive views in considering crowdfunding to finance their business ventures. Figure 1 explains the conceptual model.

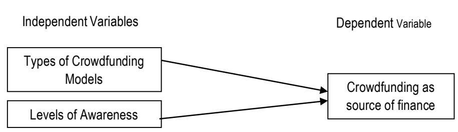

Figure 1. Conceptual model
Sources: The variables related to the types of crowdfunding model and awareness levels were extracted from the work of Twintangibles (2013) and the Securities Commission of Malaysia (2015). The variables related to crowdfunding as an alternative model were developed by the researchers based on related work by Apnizan (2016) and Lambert and Schwienbacher (2015).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The types of crowdfunding model and awareness levels were explored to identify the acceptance level to crowdfunding among youth start-ups in Malaysia. Samples were drawn from a survey conducted by the researchers involving 380 youth start-ups. The sampling frame was extracted from the lists of young entrepreneurs of the 'Bpreneur Muda' programme of Universiti Malaysia Kelantan. These youth start-ups had established micro enterprises and had at least two years of experience in business. Some had prior business ideas or projects and were in the process of registering their start-ups with the Securities Commission of Malaysia (2015). The response from 201 of the youth start-ups was found to be useful and was thus included in the final data analysis. In this paper, the descriptive correlational research design method was employed.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

To check the multicollinearity among research variables after testing the Multiple Regression assumptions of normality, equation (1) was divided into the following sample of crowdfunding choices: ECR, donation-based, reward-based and peer-to-peer-based crowdfunding. Then, four multiple regression models for four crowdfunding choices were regressed to discover the selection among youth start-ups based on choice of which crowdfunding would meet their capital needs. The purpose was to confirm whether or not each choice of crowdfunding model could explain similar outcomes. The models are specified as follows:

$$Y = a + b_1X + b_2Z_1 + b_3Z_2 + b_4Z_3 + b_5Z_4 + e$$

$$CRF = ma + b_1ECR + b_2RBC_1 + b_3PPC1 + b_4DBC_2 + e \qquad (1)$$

Equation (1) represents crowdfunding as an alternative source of fundraising (CRF); the four independent variables include equity-based crowdfunding (ECR), reward-based crowdfunding (RBC), peer-to-peer lending-based crowdfunding (PPC) and donation-based crowdfunding (DBC).

The demographics shown in Table 2 consist of gender, age of the start-up's founder, ethnicity of the founder, the founder's parental income background and the status of the start-up. The gender of the start-up founder plays a significant role on the participation based on interest in crowdfunding opportunities. Male youth founders of start-ups made up the majority (53.5%) in this sample. In terms of age, most of the youth founders of the start-ups were 23 years old (68.3%), followed by those who were 24 years old (31.2%).

Table 2
Demographic information

	Frequency	%
Gender		
• Male	108	53.5
• Female	94	46.5
Age		
• 21 years old	1	0.5
• 23 years old	138	68.3
• 24 years old	63	31.2
Ethnicity		
• Malay	161	79.7
• Chinese	16	7.9
• Indian	25	12.4
Parental Income Background		
• Below RM2,500	13	6.4
• Between RM2,501 and RM3,000	103	51.0
• Between RM3,001 and RM3,500	37	1.3
• Above RM3,501	49	24.3
Status of the Start-ups		
• Currently running micro business	192	95.1
• Planning to grow micro business	10	4.9

Ethnicity of the youth founders of these start-ups was included to capture the diverse background of the Malaysian youth founders, who come from different ethnicities, who took part in the survey. The information may also show some form of trend in ethnicity patterns on new venture creation among Malaysian youth. In this case, the dominant ethnicity was Malay (79.7%) followed by Indian (12.4%) and Chinese (7.9%). The youth founders of start-ups were also analysed from the perspective of parental income background. Parental income background can indicate the extent of support given by parents to the founders' bootstrapping strategies where funding assistance comes from their parents.

Unlike ordinary entrepreneurs, who might seek financial assistance from traditional banks or take loans, these youth founders of start-ups do not appear to be keen on starting their venture with loans or other forms of financing that require collateral or borrowing. The largest group of youth founders of start-ups came from those whose income was between RM 2,501 and RM3,000 (51%), followed by those earning more than RM 3,501. Some 6.4% earned less than RM 2,500, while 1.3% of the youth founders earned between RM 3,001 and RM 3,500.

Youth start-up status referred to the start-ups' current stage of business. The factors measured were if the start-ups had micro businesses running or if they had plans to grow their business. The results showed that the majority of the start-ups (95.1%) were pursuing a micro business. As the start-ups sampled were only at the very beginning of their venture, only 4.9% claimed that they had plans to grow their micro businesses. Knowing the status of these start-ups can assist researchers in determining their choices in selecting which type of crowdfunding opportunity suits their venture best. This status provides fundamental resources that are deemed to be critically important in evaluating their appetite and choice of crowdfunding activity.

Several important factors in measuring the reliability and validity of the data were adhered to in order to ensure the research would reach its objectives. The researchers took possible steps to ensure that reliability and validity could be achieved. The Cronbach alpha test was used to test the reliability of the research instrument. All the reliability coefficients (Cronbach alpha) were above 0.6 and within the acceptable range (Nunally, 1978) as shown in Table 3 below. All the dimensions of the Cronbach alpha exceeded 0.6.

Table 3
Reliability statistics

	Cronbach's alpha
Level of awareness	0.899
Types of crowdfunding model	0.812
Crowdfunding as source of finance	0.623

This paper also explores if the undesirable collinear data are presented by computing the Tolerance (T) and the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values. As a rule of thumb, as long as the values are <10.0, multicollinearity is not a major problem. In other words, high Tolerance and low VIF values indicate low multicollinearity. The table below shows that the Tolerance values obtained for the present study were high whereas the VIF values obtained were low. In this sense, it is suggested that the IVs correlate significantly with the DVs but have relatively low correlation among themselves. These values also imply that multicollinearity does not appear to pose a threat to the validity of the results.

Table 4
Test for collinearity crowdfunding as source of finance

Variables	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs)
Equity-based	0.444	2.251
Peer-to-peer lending-based	0.624	1.603
Reward-based	0.619	1.615
Donation-based	0.491	2.035

From Table 4 and the discussion, it is apparent that the data fit well with the multivariate analysis and it would not be distorted by any unwanted problems. Moreover, since the assumptions of the data being analysed were not violated, data transformation was not required. In other words, multivariate normality assumption was met with these assumptions; therefore, the appropriate analyses that were required to answer the research questions and achieve the objectives of the study were conducted.

Table 5 indicates that in the overall model, all hypotheses were significant at 0.01 level. Therefore, H1 to H4 were supported. Youth start-ups as claimed in this paper positively viewed that choice of each crowdfunding model positively affected their selection of crowdfunding as a source of finance.

Table 5
Correlation

		Crowdfunding as source of finance	Reward-based	Equity-based	Peer-to-peer lending-based	Donation-based
Pearson Correlation	Crowdfunding as source of finance	1.000	0.368**	0.332**	0.321**	0.300**
	Reward-based	0.368**	1.000	0.696	0.418	0.482
	Equity-based	0.332**	0.696	1.000	0.522	0.498
	Peer-to-peer lending-based	0.321**	0.418	0.522	1.000	0.539
	Donation-based	.300**	0.482	0.498	0.539	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Crowdfunding as source of finance	.	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Reward-based	0.000	.	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Equity-based	0.000	0.000	.	0.000	0.000
	Peer-to-peer lending-based	0.000	0.000	0.000	.	0.000
	Donation-based	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	.

Notes: Correlation is significant at **0.01 level

The results of regressions in the four choices of crowdfunding (ECR, donation-based, reward-based and peer-to-peer lending-based crowdfunding) are presented in Table 6.

Table 6
Model Summary: Crowdfunding as Source of Finance

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R-Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	0.368a	0.135	0.131	0.724	0.135	31.279	1	200	0.000
2	0.383b	0.147	0.138	0.722	0.011	2.629	1	199	0.107
3	0.418d	0.175	0.158	0.713	0.004	0.978	1	197	0.324
4	0.413c	0.171	0.158	0.713	0.024	5.824	1	198	0.017

a. Predictors: (Constant), reward-based
b. Predictors: (Constant), reward-based, equity-based
c. Predictors: (Constant), reward-based, equity-based, peer-to-peer lending-based
d. Predictors: (Constant), reward-based, equity-based, peer-to-peer lending-based, donation-based
e. Dependent Variable: Crowdfunding as source of finance

Table 7
The coefficients

		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig
1	(Constant)	2.627	0.238		11.054	0.000
	Reward-based	0.382	0.068	0.368	5.593	0.000
2	(Constant)	2.504	0.249		10.068	0.000
	Reward-based	0.275	0.095	0.265	2.906	0.004
	Equity-based	0.149	0.092	0.148	1.621	0.107
3	(Constant)	2.207	0.275		8.034	0.000
	Reward-based	0.255	0.094	0.245	2.711	0.007
	Equity-based	0.066	0.097	0.066	0.682	0.496
	Peer-to-peer lending-based	0.200	0.083	0.184	2.413	0.017
4	(Constant)	2.181	0.276		7.900	0.000
	Reward-based	0.236	0.096	0.227	2.459	0.015
	Equity-based	0.054	0.098	0.053	0.550	0.583
	Peer-to-peer lending-based	0.069	0.070	0.081	0.989	0.324
	Donation-based	0.0167	0.089	0.154	1.679	0.047

a. Dependent variable: Crowdfunding as source of finance

In Table 6 and Table 7 the coefficient shows that for model 1, $R=0.368$, $R^2=0.135$ and [$F(1, 200)=31,279$, $p=0.001$]. This R^2 means that 13.5% of the variance in the crowdfunding measures as source of financial increase is explained by types of crowdfunding model.

In the last model, the result obtained was after the three other crowdfunding choices (reward + peer-to-peer + donation-based) had been entered into the equation. The addition of these variables resulted in an R^2 change of 0.024, [$F(1, 198)=5.824$, $p<0.001$]. The results supported the idea that donation-based and reward-based crowdfunding were sources of finance to youth start-ups. In other words, the effect of donation-based crowdfunding explained 2.40% of the variance in the choice of crowdfunding, while reward-based crowdfunding explained 13.5%. Equity-based and peer-to-peer lending-based crowdfunding did not explain the choice of youth start-ups in selecting crowdfunding for their fundraising needs.

In answering Research Question 2 i.e. which of the four crowdfunding choice provided the most value and choice for selection of crowdfunding as an alternative source of fundraising, the following equation was formulated:

$$Y = a + b_1X + b_2Z1 + b_3Z_2 + b4Z_3 + b5Z4 + e$$

$$CRF = a + b_1ECR + b_2RBC1 + b3PPC1 + b^4DBC_2 + e \quad (1)$$

$$CRF = 2.181 + .236ECR + .054RBC_1 + .069PPC^1 + .167DBC_2 \quad (2)$$

The findings revealed that the model supported the robustness of the Twintangibles's (2013) measures on the types of crowdfunding model and awareness levels, the work of Apnizan (2016) and Lambert and Schwienbacher (2015) and the variables of access to finance, which were developed by the researchers.

The hypothesis was based on the premise that the youth start-ups emphasised and were more concerned with donation-based and reward-based crowdfunding and were also fully aware of their needs. Youth start-ups even positioned their interests to select donation-based and reward-based crowdfunding as models that fit their needs. They further agreed that money placed in the fund was pledged for no specific tangible returns (Twintangibles, 2013). Thus, the variable on access to finance was higher in most of the donation-based crowdfunding models, followed by reward-based, which eventually is likely to show a higher perceived access to funding opportunities.

On the other hand, equity-based and peer-to-peer lending-based crowdfunding models are expected to have lower perceived access to funding opportunities. As conjectured, the risk associated with both equity-based and peer-to-peer lending-based crowdfunding has implications on the choice of youth start-ups to consider choosing these models as they prefer less-risky funding assistance. The work of Apnizan (2016) and Lambert and Schwienbacher (2015), however, only focusses on the literature review of the existing trend of crowdfunding opportunities and fails to address youth start-up selection of which crowdfunding model meets their pre-start-up capital needs. Hence, these findings contribute to a new, sound and robust view of youth start-ups in Malaysia as there are limited empirical findings that focus on the similar context of dealing with crowdfunding as a new source of fundraising among youth start-ups,

CONCLUSION

This paper focussed on an overview of the proposed implementation of crowdfunding activities as a platform to provide new funding access for youth start-ups in Malaysia. There appears to be many hurdles that young people are facing in support of their pre-start-up capitals. The paper highlighted the crowdfunding process and initiative that are in practice in the Malaysian setting. It further explored the types of crowdfunding model that help to provide a new strategy in support of youth start-up funding. In this context, a quantitative survey was conducted to investigate relevant models, awareness levels and factors that lead young people to consider crowdfunding as a method of raising funds. The survey received 202 responses from Malaysian youth start-ups with a business of not less than two years in operation. The overarching impression is that Malaysia, despite being the first ASEAN country to have its own legal framework on crowdfunding, focusses merely on equity-based crowdfunding. Within the context of youth start-ups, the results indicate that youth prefer donation-based and reward-based crowdfunding models. The results further reveal that little is known about the success of donation-based crowdfunding and the support from philanthropists in assisting youth start-ups. This paper reveals why young people demand more support and feel more confident about considering crowdfunding as a method of raising funds. While equity-based crowdfunding offers more key risks, donation-based and reward-based crowdfunding models provide better opportunities for youth start-ups to more easily pursue their ventures.

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Neighbourhood Social Capital and Neighbourhood Safety in Predicting the Subjective Well-being of Young Malaysians

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ABSTRACT

A safe neighbourhood provides a trusting platform for people to interact with one another, and in turn, promotes higher levels of social capital among neighbours. Young people who grow up in a safe neighbourhood may learn to form trusting relationships with their neighbours. This experience might enhance their subjective well-being by reconciliation and regeneration of their own worldviews with that of others. On the other hand, these trusting relationships with neighbours could increase the perceived safety of the neighbourhood because the sense of security is based on the amount of help they could get, especially in emergency circumstances. Thus, in this paper, we aim to explore the role of Perceived Neighbourhood Safety as a mediator to Neighbourhood Social Capital (NSC) and Subjective Well-Being. We surveyed 5,237 youths ranging in age from 15 to 25 years. Respondents were recruited using stratified and clustering sampling. Results from the Pearson correlation show a significant relationship between NSC and the Subjective Well-Being of youth; youth who trust and reciprocate towards their neighbourhoods perceive life as happier. This study also found that Perceived Neighbourhood Safety is a partial mediator for NSC and Subjective Well-Being in youth. These findings show that the importance of the neighbourhood bond goes beyond crime prevention to include well-being of youth in a community. Therefore, there is a need to promote activities that could strengthen the elements of trust and reciprocity among neighbours. Future research could look into how different activities could enhance the subjective well-being of neighbours from different age groups.

Keywords: Neighbourhood safety, social capital, subjective well-being, young people

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INTRODUCTION

Neighbourhood Social Capital (NSC) refers to the norms of trust and reciprocity held among people who reside near each other. There is an expectation that trusted neighbours would act in the best interest of the person who trusts them (young person) and that both person who trusts them and trusted exchange favours asynchronously. Neighbourhoods with high social capital achieve better social outcomes such as higher education levels, lower poverty and lower unemployment than neighbourhoods with low social capital (Putnam, 1995). However, how this group interaction effect could be reflected in the psychological state of an individual remains unknown. In this research, we studied the neighbourhood social capital among young Malaysians aged 15 to 25 years old to determine if this quality of neighbourhood networks is associated with their subjective well-being.

We hypothesised that the experiences of growing up with supportive neighbours would promote a higher level of subjective well-being among young people. How young people perceived their current happiness might be reflected in their relationships with their neighbours. Good neighbours offer young people a stable living environment, which allows them to explore life with the confidence of having a safe place to return to. On the other hand, bad relationships with neighbours cause anxiety among young people, who are then wary of their neighbours. These negative perceptions and the fact that having a bad relationship with the neighbours lowers one's social support will lower the subjective well-being of young people. Therefore, this study aimed to explore the relationship between neighbourhood social capital and subjective well-being of young people.

It is established that high neighbourhood social capital can promote safe neighbourhoods by enhancing interaction among neighbours (Chong, 2007; Kanan & Pruitt, 2002; Morrow, 2000; Onyx, Woods, Bullen, & Osburn, 2005; Ross & Yang, 2000; Ziersch, Baum, MacDougall, & Putland, 2005). This ensures that people living in these neighbourhoods have greater subjective well-being than do those who do not enjoy safety of their neighbourhoods. Interaction with neighbours can foster a sense of belonging to the neighbourhood and allow trust and reciprocity to bloom within the neighbourhood. For example, those who live in a neighbourhood with high social capital spend more time with their neighbours, visit each other at their homes, attend parties and play games together. By engaging in neighbourhood activities, young people learn to play the role of responsible citizens. This sense of ownership has been shown to foster vigilant and safer neighbourhoods (Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2004; Warin, Baum, Kalucy, Murray, & Veale, 2000). A sense of security in one's neighbourhood encourages young people to interact freely and openly beyond their own walls. This happens because young people share the responsibility of protecting and preventing criminal activities from occurring in the neighbourhood. One of the main reasons young people do not participate in community activities is because they do not feel safe in their neighbourhoods (Onyx et al., 2005). Therefore, the positive relationships formed between people who live in a close-knit neighbourhood could establish a safe platform for increasing neighbourhood social capital, especially among young people.

Previous studies show that young people who live in safe neighbourhoods enjoy higher subjective well-being (Brown, Bowling, & Flynn, 2004). As discussed above, residing in a perceived safe neighbourhood means that one trusts the people who live in that neighbourhood. This kind of trust can lead to a feeling of satisfaction about life and happiness. This is especially true among young people. Young people may feel that a sense of security in the neighbourhood allows them to focus on the positive part of life i.e. the meaningful bond with their neighbours. On the other hand, young people who live in a neighbourhood characterised as low in social capital might perceive their neighbourhood as being unsafe because the neighbours do not know each other. Moreover, in some cases, the neighbourhood council might even rely on a private security service to protect and guard the neighbourhood. The formal relationship between security officers and neighbours might not be as trustworthy as the direct involvement of young people in guarding the neighbourhood. Thus, neighborhood safety might lead to a lower level of subjective well-being.

In this paper, we aimed to test the mediation effect of perceived neighbourhood safety between neighbourhood social capital and subjective well-being. Figure 1 demonstrates the theoretical framework we adopted in this paper. First, we establish the relationship between social capital and subjective well-being. Then, we discuss how perceived neighbourhood safety is related to social capital and levels of subjective well-being.

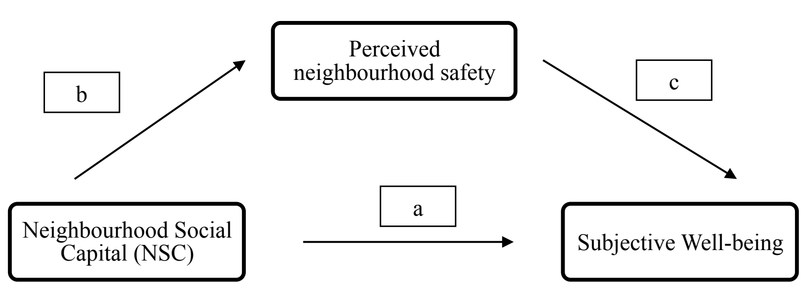

Figure 1. Theoretical research framework

Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant relationship between Neighbourhood Social Capital (NSC) and Subjective Well-Being.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant relationship between Neighbourhood Social Capital (NSC) and Perceived Neighbourhood Safety.

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant relationship between Perceived Neighbourhood Safety and Subjective Well-Being.

Hypothesis 4: There is a mediating effect of Perceived Neighbourhood Safety between Neighbourhood Social Capital (NSC) and Subjective Well-Being after controlling for the possible effect of Perceived Neighbourhood Safety.

METHODOLOGY

This was a nationwide cross-sectional study. We surveyed 5,237 young people aged 15 to 25 years (*M*=19.51, *SD*=3.14) from both East and West Malaysia. The sample was selected through a stratified two-stage sampling method. First, Malaysia was stratified according to geographical location by six zones (i.e. North Peninsula, East Peninsula, Central Peninsula, Southern Peninsula, Sabah and Sarawak). Stage two stratification was by age, ethnicity and gender. This sampling method ensured that the sample composition reflected the true make-up of the Malaysian population. Confidentiality was emphasised in this study and respondents were assured that their identity would not be traced at any point.

The main constructs in this study were Neighbourhood Social Capital, Perceived Neighbourhood Safety and Subjective Well-Being. Neighbourhood Social Capital was measured using three questions, with a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (extremely disagree) to 5 (extremely agree) as a response. Subjective Well-Being was measured using a four-item questionnaire developed by the Office for National Statistics (Tinkler & Hicks, 2011). The four-item questionnaire intends to capture what people think about their life. The items include questions on their satisfaction with life, happiness, feeling of restlessness and if they think their life is worthwhile. Responses for each item are in a 5-point Likert scale, with the lowest score of 1 (never) to 5 (always).

RESULTS

The sample in this study was reflective of the population. Table 1 shows a comparison of demographic factors between the sample and the population. Other demographic details are also included. For academic background, most respondents obtained a secondary level of education (63.0%), followed by tertiary (28.5%) and primary (8.6%).

Table 1
Demographic profile of respondents

	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Female	2,391	45.7
Male	2,846	54.3
Age Group		
15-19 years old	2,703	51.6
20-25 years old	2,534	48.4
Education level		
Primary school	450	8.6
Secondary school	3,297	63.0
Tertiary	1,490	28.5

Neighbourhood Social Capital Based on Gender

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare neighbourhood social capital scores for males and females. As shown in Table 2, the result demonstrates significant differences in scores for males and females for Neighbourhood Social Capital (NSC). Female respondents displayed higher mean scores (M=3.71) than did male respondents (M=3.67). In other words, female respondents had more trust and reciprocated more towards neighbours than did male respondents. This indicates that female respondents are probably close to people in their neighbourhood. This closeness allows them to become friendly and trust others more.

Table 2
T-Test for neighbourhood social capital based on gender

Neighbourhood Social Capital	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Male (Mean=3.67, SD=0.686) Female (Mean=3.71, SD=0.648)	-2.142	5,235	0.032

Neighbourhood Social Capital Based on Age Group

To test the differences in Neighbourhood Social Capital scores in terms of age group, we conducted an independent samples t-test. Table 3 demonstrates that there were significant differences for Neighbourhood Social Capital (NSC) based on age group. Specifically, NSC for those who were older (age 20-25 years old) showed that they were more trusting compared to those who were younger (15-19 years old).

Table 3
T-Test result for neighbourhood social capital in terms of age group

Neighbourhood Social Capital	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
15-19 years old (Mean=3.66, SD=0.69) 20-25 years old (Mean=3.71, SD=0.64)	-2.87	5,234.55	0.004

Neighbourhood Social Capital Based on Level of Education

One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the impact of Neighbourhood Social Capital (NSC) on levels of education. Respondents were divided into three groups. Group 1 had primary level of education; Group 2 had secondary level of education and Group 3 had tertiary level of education. The ANOVA results in Table 4 demonstrates that there was no significant difference in terms of level of education for Neighbourhood Social Capital (NSC). This result shows that people who are still in the school system or people who left school might not report a difference in terms of trust and reciprocity with neighbours.

Table 4
ANOVA result for NSC based on level of education

Types of Social Capital	df	F	Post-Hoc test (LSD)		
			Level of education	Mean	Standard deviation
Neighbourhood Social Capital	2 5,234	1.06	Primary	3.64	0.71
			Secondary	3.69	0.66
			Tertiary	3.68	0.67

Relationship between Neighbourhood Social Capital (NSC) and Perceived Neighbourhood Safety with Subjective Well-being

Hypothesis 1. For this study, we were interested in the relationship between Neighbourhood Social Capital (NSC) and Subjective Well-Being. We found that respondents who practised reciprocity and trusted their neighbours tended to have good Subjective Well-Being. In other words, residents in a trusting community are probably happier (r=0.267, p<0.05). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was supported; young people who had positive NSC had high Subjective Well-Being.

Hypothesis 2. Our second hypothesis was that young people who build social capital with neighbours have significantly higher perceived neighbourhood safety. The results of the Pearson correlation revealed a significant correlation between NSC and Perceived Neighbourhood Safety (r=0.47, p<0.001). This result revealed that NSC had a significant effect on Perceived Neighbourhood Safety. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was supported; people who had high social capital were more likely to report that their neighbourhood was safe.

Hypothesis 3. Our third hypothesis explored the relationship between Perceived Neighbourhood Safety and Subjective Well-Being. The results of the Pearson correlation revealed a significant correlation between Perceived Neighbourhood Safety and Subjective Well-Being (r=0.22, p=<0.001). This result revealed that Perceived Neighbourhood Safety had a significant impact on Subjective Well-Being. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported; people who perceive their neighbourhoods as safe are more likely to report high subjective well-being.

Hypothesis 4. The fourth hypothesis explored the relationship between Neighbourhood Social Capital (NSC) and Subjective Well-Being after controlling for the possible effect of Perceived Neighbourhood Safety. We used regression analysis, and the result showed that the relationship between NSC and Subjective Well-Being was still significant after controlling for Perceived Neighbourhood Safety (Table 1). This result suggested that Perceived Neighbourhood Safety acts as partial mediator. In other words, happiness and satisfaction with life could be determined either by having good neighbours or feeling safe living in a particular neighbourhood. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was not supported; individual Subjective Well-Being is determined by having good NSC as well as perceiving safety in a neighbourhood.

Table 5
Result for regression

	β	F	P	R^2
1st model				
DV: Subjective Well-Being				
Perceived neighbourhood safety	0.16	256.36	<0.001	0.05
2nd model				
DV: Subjective Well-Being				
Perceived neighbourhood safety	0.09	231.05	<0.001	0.08
Neighbourhood Social Capital (NSC)	0.19			

DISCUSSION

This paper found that two neighbourhood factors, Neighbourhood Social Capital and Perceived Neighbourhood Safety, were associated with Subjective Well-Being. By improving neighbourhood social capital and perceived neighbourhood safety, young people's well-being will also improve. Higher Subjective Well-Being is important for young people; it reduces the likelihood of their becoming involved in risky behaviour.

Hypothesis 1 was supported; young people who practised trust and reciprocity with their neighbours enjoyed better Subjective Well-Being. This suggests that having close neighbours could strengthen social and daily support. This result was expected because young people who enjoy good relationships with their neighbours and trust them are more likely to gain help and be joyful around the neighbourhood, which results in good Subjective Well-Being. Likewise, young people who are positive and remain satisfied with life in general are more likely to reach out to their neighbours and form meaningful and trustworthy relationships with them.

Hypothesis 2 was supported; young people who had good social capital with their neighbours were more likely to feel safe in their neighbourhoods. This suggests that young people who have high NSC are more likely to perceive that their neighbourhood is safe; they can walk in the area (day or night) without the fear of getting robbed. This further suggests that trusting neighbours is important for building a sense of safety in the neighbourhood. Even in the event of emergency, young people who have trustworthy neighbours might feel calmer because they know they can get help from their neighbours.

Hypothesis 3 was supported; young people who perceived their neighbourhoods as safe are more likely to report good Subjective Well-Being. Young people feel more satisfied with life when they live in a safe neighbourhood. Safe neighbourhoods provide a favourable environment for young people to focus on their wellness rather than on how to prevent crime. In other words, feeling safe in the neighbourhood helps young people feel satisfied about life in general.

Hypothesis 4 was not supported; Perceived Neighbourhood Safety served as a partial mediator between Neighbourhood Social Capital and the Subjective Well-Being of young people. It seems that neighbourhood safety was not the sole factor in increasing young people's well-being. Neighbourhood Social Capital also had a direct effect on young people's well-being after controlling for the safety factor. In other words, young people who are happy with life do not just practise good relationships with their neighbours, they also feel safe living in a particular area. In addition, young people who have social capital with their neighbours probably also feel safer in the environment and thus develop a sense of positive well-being.

CONCLUSION

This study supports the idea that with the presence of neighbourhood safety, a neighbourhood has an effect on young people's well-being to a certain degree. Nonetheless, the direct effect of neighbourhood social capital on young people's well-being suggests that social interaction among neighbours is still the key to promoting happiness among young people. This implies that neighbours could come together and work on safety issues in the neighbourhood. Also, young people's source of well-being is from social connectedness with the neighbourhood. Future research could focus on the meaning of social capital in young people's daily lives and how young people translate its meaning into the wider perspective of life in terms of happiness.

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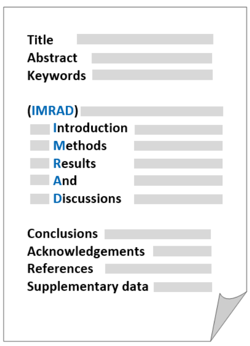

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