Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities

About the Journal

Overview

Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities (JSSH) is the official journal of Universiti Putra Malaysia published by UPM Press. It is an open-access online scientific journal which is free of charge. It publishes the scientific outputs. It neither accepts nor commissions third party content.

Recognized internationally as the leading peer-reviewed interdisciplinary journal devoted to the publication of original papers, it serves as a forum for practical approaches to improving quality in issues pertaining to social and behavioural sciences as well as the humanities.

JSSH is a **quarterly** (*March, June, September* and *December*) periodical that considers for publication original articles as per its scope. The journal publishes in **English** and it is open to authors around the world regardless of the nationality.

The Journal is available world-wide.

Aims and scope

Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities aims to develop as a pioneer journal for the social sciences with a focus on emerging issues pertaining to the social and behavioural sciences as well as the humanities.

Areas relevant to the scope of the journal include Social Sciences—Accounting, anthropology, Archaeology and history, Architecture and habitat, Consumer and family economics, Economics, Education, Finance, Geography, Law, Management studies, Media and communication studies, Political sciences and public policy, Population studies, Psychology, Sociology, Technology management, Tourism; Humanities—Arts and culture, Dance, Historical and civilisation studies, Language and Linguistics, Literature, Music, Philosophy, Religious studies, Sports.

History

Pertanika was founded in 1978. A decision was made in 1992 to streamline Pertanika into three journals as Journal of Tropical Agricultural Science, Journal of Science & Technology, and **Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities** to meet the need for specialised journals in areas of study aligned with the interdisciplinary strengths of the university.

After more than 25 years, as an interdisciplinary Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities, the revamped journal focuses on research in social and behavioural sciences as well as the humanities, particularly in the Asia Pacific region.

Goal of *Pertanika*

Our goal is to bring the highest quality research to the widest possible audience.

Quality

We aim for excellence, sustained by a responsible and professional approach to journal publishing. Submissions are guaranteed to receive a decision within 14 weeks. The elapsed time from submission to publication for the articles averages 5-6 months.

Abstracting and indexing of *Pertanika*

Pertanika is **40 years old**; this accumulated knowledge has resulted in Pertanika JSSH being abstracted and indexed in **SCOPUS** (Elsevier), **Web of Science™ Core Collection**-Emerging Sources Citation Index (ESCI). Web of Knowledge [BIOSIS Previews], **EBSCO** and EBSCOhost, **Google Scholar**, **TIB**, **MyCite**, **ISC**, **NAL, Cabell's Directories** & Journal Guide.

Future vision

We are continuously improving access to our journal archives, content, and research services. We have the drive to realise exciting new horizons that will benefit not only the academic community, but society itself.

Citing journal articles

The abbreviation for *Pertanika* Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities is *Pertanika J. Soc. Sci. Hum.*

Publication policy

Pertanika policy prohibits an author from submitting the same manuscript for concurrent consideration by two or more publications. It prohibits as well publication of any manuscript that has already been published either in whole or substantial part elsewhere. It also does not permit publication of manuscript that has been published in full in Proceedings.

Code of Ethics

The Pertanika Journals and Universiti Putra Malaysia takes seriously the responsibility of all of its journal publications to reflect the highest in publication ethics. Thus all journals and journal editors are expected to abide by the Journal's codes of ethics. Refer to Pertanika's **Code of Ethics** for full details, or visit the Journal's web link at http://www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/code_of_ethics.php

International Standard Serial Number (ISSN)

An ISSN is an 8-digit code used to identify periodicals such as journals of all kinds and on all media–print and electronic. All Pertanika journals have ISSN as well as an e-ISSN.

Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities: ISSN 0128-7702 *(Print)*; ISSN 2231-8534 *(Online)*.

Lag time

A decision on acceptance or rejection of a manuscript is reached in 3 to 4 months (average 14 weeks). The elapsed time from submission to publication for the articles averages 5-6 months.

Authorship

Authors are not permitted to add or remove any names from the authorship provided at the time of initial submission without the consent of the Journal's Chief Executive Editor.

Manuscript preparation

Refer to Pertanika's **INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS** at the back of this journal.

Most scientific papers are prepared according to a format called IMRAD. The term represents the first letters of the words **I**ntroduction, **M**aterials and Methods, **R**esults, **A**nd, **D**iscussion. IMRAD is simply a more 'defined' version of the "IBC" [Introduction, Body, Conclusion] format used for all academic writing. IMRAD indicates a pattern or format rather than a complete list of headings or components of research papers; the missing parts of a paper are: *Title, Authors, Keywords, Abstract, Conclusions*, and *References*. Additionally, some papers include Acknowledgments and Appendices.

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**.

Editorial process

Authors are notified with an acknowledgement containing a *Manuscript ID* on receipt of a manuscript, and upon the editorial decision regarding publication.

Pertanika follows a **double-blind peer-review** process. Manuscripts deemed suitable for publication are usually sent to reviewers. Authors are encouraged to suggest names of at least three potential reviewers at the time of submission of their manuscript to Pertanika, but the editors will make the final choice. The editors are not, however, bound by these suggestions.

Notification of the editorial decision is usually provided within ten to fourteen weeks from the receipt of manuscript. Publication of solicited manuscripts is not guaranteed. In most cases, manuscripts are accepted conditionally, pending an author's revision of the material.

As articles are double-blind reviewed, material that might identify authorship of the paper should be placed only on page 2 as described in the first-4 page format in Pertanika's **Instructions to Authors** given at the back of this journal.

The Journal's peer-review

In the peer-review process, three referees independently evaluate the scientific quality of the submitted manuscripts.

Peer reviewers are experts chosen by journal editors to provide written assessment of the **strengths** and **weaknesses** of written research, with the aim of improving the reporting of research and identifying the most appropriate and highest quality material for the journal.

Operating and review process

What happens to a manuscript once it is submitted to *Pertanika*? Typically, there are seven steps to the editorial review process:

1. The Journal's Chief Executive Editor and the Editorial Board Members examine the paper to determine whether it is appropriate for the journal and should be reviewed. If not appropriate, the manuscript is rejected outright and the author is informed.

2. The Chief Executive Editor sends the article-identifying information having been removed, to three reviewers. Typically, one of these is from the Journal's Editorial Board Members. Others are specialists in the subject matter represented by the article. The Chief Executive Editor requests them to complete the review in three weeks.

   Comments to authors are about the appropriateness and adequacy of the theoretical or conceptual framework, literature review, method, results and discussion, and conclusions. Reviewers often include suggestions for strengthening of the manuscript. Comments to the editor are in the nature of the significance of the work and its potential contribution to the literature.

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 Editor-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 Editor-in-Chief and Editorial Board Members examine their comments and decide whether the paper is ready to be published, needs another round of revisions, or should be rejected.

7. If the decision is to accept, an acceptance letter is sent to all the author(s), the paper is sent to the Press. The article should appear in print in approximately three months.

    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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Short Communication

Foreword

Welcome to the Thematic Edition of the Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities (JSSH) focussing on "Education". These are regularly submitted manuscripts; selected and reviewed by the regular system and accepted for publication. JSSH is an open-access journal for studies in Social Sciences and Humanities published by Universiti Putra Malaysia Press. It is independently owned and managed by the university.

JSSH VOL. 27 (T2) 2019 contains 14 articles; 13 are Regular Articles and a Short Communication. The authors of these articles come from different countries namely Malaysia, Philippines, Indonesia, Pakistan and Thailand.

The first highlight is an article entitled "The Predicting Roles of Self-Efficacy and Emotional Intelligence and the Mediating Role of Resilience on Subjective Well-Being: A PLS-SEM Approach" by Geok Kim Ngui and Yoon Fah Lay from Malaysia. Inevitably, the element of stress has always been present within the teaching profession. Consequently, this matter has often raised the question of teachers' subjective well-being. In this study, the predicting roles of self-efficacy and emotional intelligence on subjective well-being, as well as the mediating role of resilience on these relationships were examined. A stratified random sampling was employed to select student teachers from four teacher education institutes in Sabah, Malaysia. Data was obtained from self-administered questionnaires comprising of four adapted scales: The Teacher's Sense of Self-Efficacy (TSES), the Emotional Intelligence Trait Questionnaire (TEIQUE), the Resiliency Scale and the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) and analyzed using PLS-SEM. In this study, results showed that self-efficacy is a significant predictor of subjective well-being and resilience significantly mediates this relationship. On the contrary, emotional intelligence is not a significant predictor of subjective well-being. The combined effect of self-efficacy, subjective well-being and resilience explained almost half of the variance in subjective well-being. Additionally, the effect size, f^2 of self-efficacy on resilience and subjective well-being were both large but emotional intelligence showed a small effect size. Hence, this study showed that subjective well-being can be predicted by self-efficacy and resilience mediates this relationship. Details of the article is available on page 1.

The second highlight of this thematic edition is an article entitled "Gender Issues in Education: Why Boys Do Poorly" by Teerachai Nethanomsak, Tang Keow Ngang and Sarintip Raksasataya from Thailand. This study aimed to determine the gender differences in terms of their learning and educational opportunities particularly on male students in Thailand. Researchers searched for the fundamental aspects of gender bias in educational opportunities from different points of view. Researchers gathered 54 related past studies to investigate the three major gender aspects namely factors that contributing to classroom learning, internal factors within the learners, and

other surrounding factors. Content analysis and meta-analysis techniques were employed as systematic researching strategies. According to the results derived from past studies and in-depth interview with experts as well as focus group interviews with male students indicated that there are at least 12 variables that related to the male students' poor learning achievement. These 12 identified variables are ethical behavior, learning skills, attitude towards learning, learning behavior, aggressive behavior, learning hindrance, self-perception, nature or sex drive, social environment, attitude towards sexual relationships, learning ability, and expectation for furthering education. The findings demonstrated the constructive results to the public, educators, and policy makers with an understanding of the gender equality phenomenon in educational opportunities and could facilitate us to perceive the background of the phenomenon so that the solutions for solving traditional practices can be challenged. Details of the article is available on page 119.

We anticipate that you will find the evidences presented in this issue to be intriguing, thought-provoking and useful in reaching new milestones in your own research. Please recommend the journal to your colleagues and students to make this endeavour meaningful.

All the papers published in this edition underwent Pertanika's stringent peer-review process involving a minimum of two reviewers comprising internal as well as external referees. This was to ensure that the quality of the papers justified the high ranking of the journal, which is renowned as a heavily-cited journal not only by authors and researchers in Malaysia but by those in other countries around the world as well.

We thank the authors for agreeing to publish their papers in this Thematic Edition, and the editors and reviewers involved in the publishing process of these papers.

JSSH is currently accepting manuscripts for upcoming issues based on original qualitative or quantitative research that opens new areas of inquiry and investigation.

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The Predicting Roles of Self-efficacy and Emotional Intelligence and the Mediating Role of Resilience on Subjective Well-being: A PLS-SEM Approach

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ABSTRACT

Inevitably, the element of stress has always been present within the teaching profession. Consequently, this matter has often raised the question of teachers' subjective well-being. In this study, the predicting roles of self-efficacy and emotional intelligence on subjective well-being, as well as the mediating role of resilience on these relationships were examined. A stratified random sampling was employed to select student teachers from four teacher education institutes in Sabah, Malaysia. Data obtained using self-administered questionnaires comprising of four adapted scales: The Teacher's Sense of Self-Efficacy (TSES), the Emotional Intelligence Trait Questionnaire (TEIQUE), the Resiliency Scale and the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) were analyzed using PLS-SEM. In this study, results showed that self-efficacy was a significant predictor of subjective well-being and resilience significantly mediated this relationship. On the contrary, emotional intelligence was not a significant predictor of subjective well-being. The combined effect of self-efficacy, subjective well-being and resilience explained almost half of the variance in subjective well-being. Additionally, the effect size, f² of self-efficacy on resilience and subjective well-being were both large but emotional intelligence showed a small effect size. Hence, this study showed that subjective well-being could be predicted by self-efficacy and resilience mediated this relationship. Future research that considers a longitudinal study and broadening the samples to include other groups with

practicum training is recommended as more in-depth understanding of these coping abilities and subjective well-being can benefit teachers positively.

INTRODUCTION
Background of the Study

As a developing country, Malaysia aims to develop the national economies based on k-economy approach with human capital development as one the success determining factor. The goal of "first class mentality" was ingrained in the national mission since the Ninth Malaysia Plan (2006-2010) (Prime Minister Department, 2006) and continued to be pursued in the recent National Transformation 2050 (Jabatan Penerangan Malaysia, 2017). The development of the national human capital is supported by a high quality education system. The teachers are the backbone and the curriculum implementer in schools that their competency to deliver teaching and learning in the classroom is demanded. Therefore, the teaching education program and particularly, the teaching practicum is the best platform for the student teachers to gain competency in delivering effective teaching and learning before they joined the teaching profession (Goh & Matthews, 2011; Kabilan & Izzaham, 2008). Hamaidi et al. (2014) explained that student teachers were able to explore their abilities and creativity that could mold the quality of their teaching. As stated by Immanuel Kant,

"theory without practice is empty; practice without theory is blind", indicated the critical role of practicum in student teachers' education (Morrison & Werf, 2012).

Practicum stress is often experienced by student teachers (Klassen & Durksen, 2014; Malik & Ajmal, 2010). Teaching is in fact, one of the consistently identified stressful occupations that the question of teachers' well-being is often inherently raised (Soykan, 2015). Specifically, well-being is unrelated to the absence of stress and negative emotions in life events or being satisfied with one's job but it encompasses positive cognitions, motivations and good health (Van Horn et al., 2004). Additionally, it also includes regular positive and infrequent negative affect (Diener et al., 2009) as well-being indicates one's positive evaluation of a situation based on affective and cognitive perspectives (Diener & Suh, 1994). Student teachers who undergo teaching practicum may be subjected to stressful working environment of teaching in the classroom and dealing with school management and administration. In fact, these demanding roles may have an impact on their well-being. With respect to this possibility, they need to have high subjective well-being as it relates to a positive perspective about life and helps to cope with stressful situation (Cenkseven-Onder & Sari, 2009). Stress and work load can result in novice teachers retracting from the teaching profession (Chaplain, 2008; Karsenti & Collin, 2013). Therefore, maintaining a high subjective well-being among the teachers during practicum training would provide them the

resilience against stress and the ability to cope with stressful situation so that when they do become teachers, they would continue in the service for a longer time.

Problem Statement

Self-efficacy and emotional intelligence are cognitive and affective abilities which can raise one's resilience towards stress and maintain teachers' well-being. Indeed, the exposure to stressful work situations is unavoidable and may adversely affect one's subjective well-being. In response to this matter, self-efficacy can function as a supportive resource to deal with stressful events. In other words, self-efficacy can enhance resilience against stress and maintain one's well-being. For instance, past theoretical and empirical studies showed that people tend to have high subjective well-being when they are more efficacious (Chou, 2015). On the other hand, emotional intelligence involves the abilities and skills related to understanding of self and others, and adapting to the perpetual change in environmental needs (Razia, 2016). Studies have also shown that emotional intelligence is a prominent predictor of subjective well-being (Landa et al., 2006; Soave, 2014). In connection with this statement, student teachers who become novice teachers after completing their training are at risk to leave the teaching career because of their dissatisfaction towards teaching assignments, issues of politics related to their profession, lack in resources and various other reasons (Ee & Chang, 2010; Karsenti & Collin, 2013). Inevitably, the

process of achieving resilience against stress through emotional competence will produce teachers who are competent, committed, and confident to teach over the years.

In this study, the central focus is on the predicting roles of self-efficacy and emotional intelligence on subjective well-being and the possibility of mediation by resilience on these relationships in the context of the teaching education institutions in Malaysia. Most studies on similar variables focused on other groups, particularly university students (Austin et al., 2010; Santos et al., 2014), young adults (Cakar, 2012) and in-service teachers (Moe et al., 2010; Wei, 2013) but only a handful research had focused on student teachers. Nevertheless, it is necessary to maintain happy and satisfied student teachers throughout their teacher education course so that they could complete the course and join the teaching profession as competent teachers who can deal with stressful situations and last longer in the service.

Although there are many studies that examine the relationships of these variables, but there are no study yet that examines the inter-relationships of these variables particularly among student teachers in the teaching education institutes in Malaysia. With respect to this focus, the Partial Least Squares-Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) paradigm was employed to determine the extent to which self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and resilience affect subjective well-being, as well as the mediation role of resilience in the

structural model. The PLS-SEM approach was considered for this study due to its strength in explaining linear relationship among the research variables better than using a multiple regression analysis (Wong, 2013). Further to that, PLS-SEM is more appropriate in determining the covariance among the variables when sampling is non-parametric due to the selection of a specific group of sample (Hair et al., 2016) as in the case of this study. As a second generation multi-variate data analysis, PLS-SEM can test linear and causal model that is partially supported by theories but have substantive empirical evidence (Statsoft, 2013). In other words, PLS-SEM is the best choice when there is richness in data but fuzzy supporting theory (Wong, 2013). PLS was selected rather than covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) as the objectives of this study is prediction-oriented which can be attained with PLS-SEM and not parameter-oriented which is inclined towards CB-SEM (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010).

Research Objectives

The research objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To determine whether self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and resilience can predict subjective well-being;
2. To determine whether resilience mediates the relationship between self-efficacy and subjective well-being; and
3. To determine whether resilience

mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and subjective well-being.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Teachers are the change agent in the school setting. Their competency is needed to ensure effective teaching and learning takes place in the classroom. These competencies are developed while they are still in the teacher education institution as student teachers. Alemu et al. (2014) stated that teaching was a highly stressful job with 33 to 37% of teachers facing excessive stress due to the intrinsic nature of the job. Hence, personal resources are needed to deal with these stressful situations and ensure that the teachers maintain or increase their well-being (Baloglu, 2008). These personal resources include self-efficacy and emotional intelligence. These strengthen one's resilience against stress and leading to higher subjective well-being (Soave, 2014).

Subjective Well-being

First and foremost, Soykan (2015) explained that subjective well-being could be defined according to the combination of theories of self-actualization (Maslow, 1968), the maturity concept (Allport, 1961) and the perspective of the fully functioning person (Roger, 1961). On the other hand, in psychological literature, well-being is a concept relating to mental health (Diener et al., 2012). From the comparison of these two perspectives, well-being and happiness are acknowledged as contributing factors

of a good life. Specifically, the notion of subjective well-being encompasses emotional and cognitive dimensions and reflects how one would assess his life or the extent to which one considers life as an existence that is fulfilled (Diener & Seligman, 2004; Stanculescu, 2014). In fact, subjective well-being comprises of two aspects, namely affective and cognitive. The affective aspect consists of positive and negative emotions whereas cognitive aspect revolves around one's satisfaction with life.

According to Diener et al. (2005), subjective well-being consists of positively perceived emotional experiences, low level of negative moods and high satisfaction with life. Besides, Gulacti (2010) further explained that life satisfaction is the propensity of reporting a satisfied feeling for numerous aspects of life. In this study, the emphasis was on affective dimension which is about achieving a state of equilibrium between positive and negative emotions or relating to one's subjective happiness (Eryilmaz, 2010). Normally, people who are happy and satisfied with the conditions in their life experience more positive emotions rather than negative ones (Divya & Chanchal, 2014). Additionally, Diener et al. (2012) reiterated by stating that happiness was the highest and ultimate motivation of human efforts. Clearly, this shows that subjective well-being is considered as one of the important aspect of having a meaningful life.

Self-Efficacy and its Relationship with Subjective Well-being

Furthermore, Stanculescu (2014) explained subjective well-being as a psychological functioning could be stimulated by self-esteem which was regarded as the dimension of self-concept that was evaluative. As a matter of fact, high self-esteem contributes towards self-efficacy as well as self-confidence and performance. In this respect, this outcome eventually enhances satisfaction and happiness in life. Therefore, it can be agreed that self-efficacy is closely related to subjective well-being. For example, Bandura (2005) highlighted the importance of self-efficacy which enable a person to attain his or her desired outcome and determines psychological health. Moreover, a person who continues to feel competent is efficacious and this can boost well-being (Hanjani et al., 2016). Thus, self-efficacy can be seen in a person who has the conviction or confidence in his abilities to motivate self, uses cognitive resources and act accordingly to perform a particular task successfully within a specific context (Soykan, 2015). Similarly, Bandura (2001) also defined self-efficacy as the essence of individuals believing in their own capacity to acts in response to a particular event in order to gain control over it. To sum up, self-efficacy refers to one's expectations and judgment on performing beyond their capabilities in a particular manner to attain goals or to cope with stressful events in an effective manner (Bandura, 1997; Santos et al., 2014).

On top of that, the self-efficacy concept is supported by Bandura's theory of social cognitive (Lunenberg, 2011) which emphasizes on social experience and observational learning in the process of developing the personality of an individual. According to this theory, the selected behavior of an individual in a particular situation is dependent on personal observation. In this context, the observed behavior is firstly stored in the memory and implemented later to comprehend the cognitive processes and social behaviors in future events. Additionally, Bandura (2012) stated that humans do not respond mechanically to a stimulus but would resort to finding alternatives to change their environment. Therefore, this behavior is dependent on the undivided interaction of cognitive, environment and behavior to develop one's efficacy (Qureshi, 2015).

In connection with this study, Moe et al. (2010) discovered that when teachers perceived themselves as highly capable and possessing more positive affect, they showed greater satisfaction in their work. To add on, Wei (2013) studied the efficacy of teachers and subjective well-being using 1200 preschool teachers and found that their high level of efficacy was positively related to subjective well-being. Besides, with respect to this study, Santos et al. (2014) stated that high self-efficacy means that a person believed in his own ability more, and this contributes to higher level of subjective well-being. Thus, self-efficacy and subjective well-being have been proven in past studies to having good association with one another. Primarily, efficacy is fundamental because a

teacher confident of his or her competence will show greater commitment to their work, sensitive and susceptible to trending innovation, maximize effort to teach and experience a lower level of burnout as well as having a higher job satisfaction (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010).

A study by Cakar (2012) on 405 young adults in Turkey, showed that self-efficacy was associated with subjective well-being. Findings in this study showed that self-efficacy was able to predict the life satisfaction among the sample. In another study, Santos et al. (2014) involved 969 college students in the Philippines and found a positive correlation between self-efficacy and subjective well-being. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed in this study:

H1: Self-efficacy is a positive and significant predictor of subjective well-being

Emotional Intelligence and its Relationship with Subjective Well-being

Emotional intelligence is perceived as a form of social intelligence as it relates to the ability of a person to monitor his own and other's emotion, to differentiate among them, and utilizing it in guiding one's thoughts and actions (Divya & Chanchal, 2014; Mayer & Salovey, 1993). In addition, Salovey and Mayer (1994) stated that emotional intelligence was indicated in a person who is able to identify the meaning behind an emotion, comprehends and solves problems based on these emotions (Muhammad et al., 2010). Likewise, Weisenger (2000) reiterated that emotional intelligence is the ingenuity of the person to use emotion intentionally to

develop a specific behavior and channels his or her thoughts towards the attainment of a desired goal.

Generally, the concept of emotional intelligence is derived from Gardner's interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences which involves five domains, namely (a) 'self-awareness': self-observation and recognition of feelings as it happens; (b) 'managing emotions': handling feelings to make it appropriate and to realize the meaning behind the feelings, as well as finding means to deal with emotions such as anger, sadness, fear and anxiety; (c) 'motivating oneself'; utilizing emotions to attain goals, promoting self-control, deferring gratification and inhibiting impulses; (d) 'empathy': feeling sensitive about how others feel and being concern, as well as considering their perspectives, and appreciating the fact that people develop different feeling for the same thing; and (e) 'handling relationships': managing the emotions of other people, being socially competent and having social skills (Divya & Chanchal, 2014).

Furthermore, emotional intelligence has been theoretically linked to subjective well-being (Bar-On, 2005; Gallagher et al., 2008). Naturally, people who are more intelligent emotionally possess appropriate emotional skills that ensure their effective coping of challenges encountered, thus promoting their well-being. In this respect, past studies (Austin et al., 2005; Bar-On, 2005; Gallagher et al., 2008; Gannon & Ranzijn, 2005; Gignac, 2006) showed that emotional intelligence predicts subjective well-being

in a positive and significant manner. Hence, there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and subjective well-being.

Razia (2016) conducted a study on 120 student teachers in Aligarh, India and found that there was a significant and positive relationship between emotional intelligence and their subjective well-being. Other studies such as Koydemir and Schlutz (2012) and Soave (2014) also showed similar results. Austin et al. (2010) who studied on emotional intelligence, stress, personality, coping and subjective well-being in Canada also indicated the evidence of inter-relationships among these variables. Hence, the following research hypothesis is proposed:

H2: Emotional intelligence is a positive and significant predictor of subjective well-being

Resilience and its Relationship with Subjective Well-being

Resilience is a critical personal characteristic that can benefit student teachers as they cope with the stressful situation during practicum and the tenure of their teaching education course so that they may enjoy a positive and healthy life (Bonanno, 2012). Resilient teachers have greater coping ability (Castro et al., 2010). Kirmani et al. (2015) stated that resilience is associated with the concept of positive adaptation regardless of adversity. Their study among 98 college going adolescent girls in India showed that resilience and subjective well-being was positively related.

Resilience has been associated with the ability to cope with stressful situation among youths in studies like Chou et al. (2011), Ng and Hurry (2011), and Steinhardt and Dolbier (2008). Windle et al. (2010) explained that being happy was an armour against stress as the individual was able to adapt to the changes that was happening in his life. Therefore, the following research hypothesis is presented:

H3: Resilience is a positive and significant predictor of subjective well-being

Self-efficacy, Emotional Intelligence, Resilience, and Relationships with Subjective Well-being

In relation to this study, there are very few studies which investigated self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, resilience, and subjective well-being in a single study. However, there are some studies that examined the inter-relationships among these constructs. For instance, Soave (2014) examined the relationships between self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, resilience, subjective well-being and physical activities of pre-service teachers before and during their practicum and found significant relationships among these variables. Additionally, Sosa and Gomez (2012) noted that there was a positive relationship between the teachers' self-efficacy and students' academic resiliency. In this context, Hong (2012) showed that teachers who retained their position in the teaching career had greater self-efficacy and resiliency. According to Bonanno

(2012), resilience is defined as the ability to withstand life adversities while continuing to live positively and healthily (Bonanno, 2012). On the other hand, Easterbrooks et al. (2013) suggested that resilience is the result of interactions between the persons with the environment as part of a dynamic developmental system. As a matter of fact, resilience may be a crucial factor that can explain why some individuals are better at coping with traumatic incidents than others (White et al., 2010). Soave (2014) also stated that if a person was able to buffer the effects of stress due to high resiliency, then he or she would have a more positive perception of life. With respect to this statement, studies conducted by Utsey et al. (2008), and Windle et al. (2010) discovered that resiliency and life satisfaction were positively correlated.

Moreover, teacher self-efficacy is also related to emotional intelligence (Chan, 2008; Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2008; Vesely et al., 2013). Interestingly, findings from studies in the field of psychology, education and work management showed that higher emotional intelligence level leads to better stress management and helps to facilitate effective teaching (Chan, 2008; Perry & Ball, 2005; Saklofske et al., 2013). According to Brackett et al. (2012), the ability to regulate emotion will result in a lower level of emotional tiredness, enhance teacher's ability to develop personal relationship with his students, and instill positive emotions such as a sense of achievement and satisfaction in his work as a teacher. Also, Sutton and

Harper (2009) reiterated that a teacher with greater emotional regulation could enhance their positive emotions and reduce negative emotions to increase productivity and exert effectiveness in the classroom. In fact, Foumany and Salehi (2015) in their study among 250 university students showed that emotional intelligence, satisfaction with life and resiliency were inter-related. Likewise, Koydemir and Schlutz (2012) carried out a study among university students with 201 students aged between 20 and 31 years old from Germany and 182 students aged between 18 and 29 years old from Turkey. Austin et al. (2010) examined the relationships of emotional intelligence, coping, personality and exam-related stress among 475 Canadian undergraduate students. These two studies confirmed the significant and positive correlation between emotional intelligence and subjective well-being among university students. Besides, Windle et al. (2010) stated that coping ability was necessary to maintain one's subjective well-being throughout his or her life as this portrays the ability of the individual to adapt to life that was constantly changing. To sum up, self-efficacy and emotional intelligence are considered as coping abilities which can develop one's resilience towards challenges in life and prolong happiness.

The mediation effect of resilience on the relationship between self-efficacy with subjective well-being and emotional intelligence with subjective well-being have not been studied before. In this study, the mediating role of resilience was examined as it was evident from empirical studies that both self-efficacy and emotional intelligence contributed to resilience which in return contributed to subjective well-being. However, in the development of a structural model, resilience is placed in between self-efficacy and subjective well-being as well as between emotional intelligence and subjective well-being. A mediator represents a variable that mediates the influence of an independent variable over a dependent variable (Mackinnon, et al., 2012). In this context, a mediator is considered as an endogenous latent variable that links the predictor to the outcome. Mediation explains the how and why of the relationship between the predictor and the dependent variable. As a matter of fact, it is expected that resilience will play a mediating role in the relationship between self-efficacy and subjective well-being as well as the relationship between emotional intelligence and subjective well-being. Nevertheless, the number of studies which investigated the mediation by resilience on the relationships between self-efficacy and emotional intelligence with subjective well-being using the perspectives of student teachers who have just completed their teaching practicum remains scarce. Therefore, in this study, the mediation effect of resilience on the relationships between self-efficacy and emotional intelligence with subjective well-being are explored based on the following research hypotheses:

H4: Resilience plays a significant mediation role in the relationship of self-efficacy with subjective well-being

H5: Resilience plays a significant mediation role in the relationship of

emotional intelligence with subjective well-being.

The Research Framework

The research framework indicated in Figure 1 shows the inter-relationships of the latent variables in this study. In particular, there are two exogenous latent variables namely self-efficacy (SE) and emotional intelligence (EI) which act as predictors to the endogenous latent variables of resilience (RES) and subjective well-being (SWB). Additionally, RES mediates the relationship between the two exogenous latent variables: SE and EI with SWB.

MATERIALS AND METHODS
Research Design

Based on a positivist philosophy, this study adopted an empirical research approach to obtain information regarding the student teachers' subjective well-being via a survey method as a means of gaining knowledge through direct and indirect observation or experience. A causal research or explanatory research design was used to determine the extent of the cause-and-effect relationship among self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, resilience and subjective well-being. This provides an explanation to the patterns of relationship between these variables (Zikmund et al., 2012). This study utilized the survey method by distributing and collecting questionnaires to gather information.

Population and Sampling

For the purpose of this study, student teachers who had completed their practicum in the fifth semester were identified as the study population. In fact, these student teachers were still undergoing their teacher education course at the time this study was conducted in four teacher education institutes in Sabah, Malaysia. Student teachers were selected as participants in this study as they experienced stressful situation particularly when they did their teaching practicum.
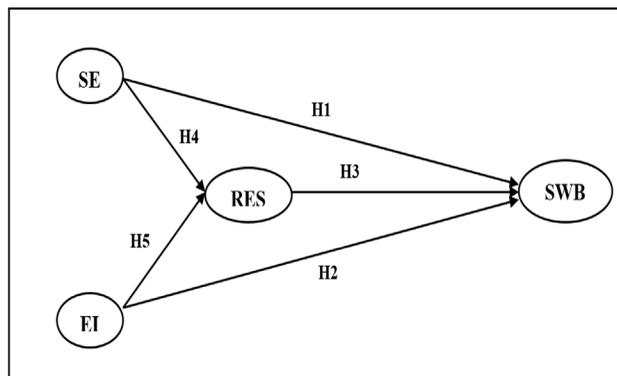
Figure 1. The research framework

The sample size is 200 whereby the respondents were selected based on stratified random sampling. In this stratified random sampling, members of the population were first divided into strata (the four teacher education institutes) and then, randomly selected to be part of the sample. Next, a list of teachers who have completed their first teaching practicum in the Fifth Semester was prepared from each of the teacher education institute. With respect to this list, samples were randomly drawn to obtain a sample size of 200. Specifically, the sample size was determined based on the sampling for PLS-SEM. According to Wong (2013), the determination of sample size has to take into consideration the model background, the data distribution characteristics and the variables' psychometric characteristics as well as the magnitude of the relationships among these latent variables. Besides, it was recommended that the significant level is set at 5%, the statistical power is maintained at 80% and the R square should be at least 0.25 (Hair et al., 2013). Based on Cohen's Principle, the number of arrow pointing to a latent variable is represented by at least 10 samples (Ringle et al., 2012). Hence, in connection to the principle stated, the minimum sample size was 50. However, Akter et al. (2011) stated that a small sample size in a big complex model might not be able to determine a low structural path coefficient, and therefore, adopting a larger sample size is advisable.

Research Instrument

In this study, data was obtained from self-administered questionnaire which included four scales: Teacher's Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) adapted from Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001) to measure the student teachers' self-efficacy; Emotional Intelligence Trait Questionnaire adapted from Petrides and Faunham (2006) to measure emotional intelligence; Resiliency Scale adapted from Wagnild and Young (1993) to measure resilience; and Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) adapted from Diener et al. (1985) to measure subjective well-being.

The TSES consists of 12 items with responses based on a 9-point Likert scale starting from "1" which represents "never" and "9" as "always". For instance, in a previous study, the scale had a 0.90 alpha coefficient indicating good reliability (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). On the other hand, the Emotional Intelligence Trait Questionnaire comprises of 30 items with responses based on a 7-point Likert scale. With respect to a past study, results showed that the Cronbach Alpha for male was 0.88 and female was 0.87, both indicating good reliability (Biggart et al., 2010). On top of that, the Resiliency Scale has 25 items with a 7-point Likert scale while the SWLS has 5-items based on a 7-point Likert scale which was previously used in Soave (2014). Additionally, another past study indicated a high test-retest reliability of 0.82 thus signifying good criteria validity (Diener et al., 2012).

Furthermore, these scales were translated from English to Malay using the back-translation method (Brislin, 1970).

Specifically, this method suggests the use of a bilingual expert to translate the scales from English to Malay. Similarly, another bilingual expert was also employed to translate the scales in Malay back to English. As a matter of fact, this method is usually applied in a cross-cultural study (Jones et al., 2001). Primarily, the back translation was carried out without referring to the original instrument by the second translator to ensure that there is similarity between the English and Malay version of the scales. Then, both documents were examined to determine their accuracy. In this study, items which indicated inconsistency in meaning were required to be identified and translated back by a second bilingual expert without scrutinizing the original item. Essentially, this process needs to be repeated several times until the translated scales are similar to its original version (Lee et al., 2009). McDermott and Palchanes (1994) also stated that there should be at least two independent bilingual translators in the translation process of the research instrument. Hence, in this study, experts from the teacher training institute translated the questionnaire from English to Malay while another group of experts translated the Malay version to English.

The Malay version of the scales was assessed for its reliability and validity in a pilot study using 50 samples of student teachers from one institute using a confirmatory factor analysis. The translated self-efficacy scale showed a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy value of 0.960 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity with a significant value of 0.000. All factor loadings were more than 0.70, implying that the 12 items in the scale was acceptable.

The translated emotional intelligence scale has a KMO value of 0.940 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity with a significant value of 0.000. Although some of the items have factor loadings less than 0.70 but none has less than 0.40. Therefore, all items were accepted to use in the final study. The translated resilience scale showed a KMO value of 0.968 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity with a significant value of 0.000. Some items yielded factor loadings less than 0.70 but no item has loading less than 0.40. The 25-item scale was retained to use in the final study.

The translated subjective well-being scale has a KMO value of 0.725 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity with a significant value of 0.000. Some items showed factor loading less than 0.70 but all were above 0.40. Therefore, all items in this scale was also retained. Field (2005) stated that a KMO value must be more than 0.50 to ensure sampling adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity with a significant value less than 0.05 to ensure that the original correlation matrix is not an identity matrix. The cut-off at 0.40 is the lowest acceptable value to retain item in a scale (Matsunaga, 2010).

Data Collection and Analysis

In this study, data was collected using the questionnaire which was distributed to the targeted samples in the four

Teacher Education Institutes. Firstly, the obtained data was keyed into the IBM SPSS 23.0 template and converted into a comma delimited (.csv) format to be used in SmartPls3.0 software. Next, the PLS-SEM approach was employed in the development of a structural model. With respect to the study, this approach allows researchers to assess the predicting accuracy and relevancy of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence of SWB and the significance of mediation by resilience to the relationships between the exogenous latent variables (self-efficacy and emotional intelligence) with the endogenous latent variable, SWB.

Additionally, PLS-SEM is a component-based causal modeling approach intending to maximize the explained variance of the dependent latent variable, SWB by the two independent latent variables, self-efficacy and emotional intelligence (Hair et al., 2011). Moreover, it has non-parametric distributional assumptions and possesses the ability to estimate relationships between formative and reflective indicators. In fact, there are many software programs developed for PLS-SEM and one of them is SmartPLS (Nimako et al., 2014; Temme et al., 2010).

Stage 1	**Structural Model Specification** (The Research Framework is formulated)
Stage 2	**Measurement Models Specification** (Scales Selection, Translation, Assessment and Adaptation)
Stage 3	**Data Collection via Survey** (Survey Implementation in Four Teacher Education Institute)
Stage 4	**PLS Path Model Estimation** (SmartPLS3.0 Use in Data Analysis)
Stage 5	**PLS-SEM Measurement Models Assessment** (Reliability and Validity Determination of the Scales)
Stage 6	**PLS-SEM Structural Model Assessment** (Research Hypotheses Testing and Determination of the Predictive Accuracy and Relevancy of the Structural Model)
Stage 7	**Interpretation of Result and Conclusion** (Presentation of Result to Fulfil Research Objectives)

Adapted from Hair et al. (2016)

Figure 2. The Stages in PLS-SEM application

In this study, the SmartPLS3.0 software was used to run the PLS-SEM that assessed the predicting and mediating role of the variables. Figure 2 presents the steps taken in running the analysis with SmartPLS3.0.

In this study, all the measurement models are reflective and the determination of its reliability and validity is based on the following guidelines in Table 1.

The assessment of the mediation effect of resilience in the structural model is determined based on the Preacher and Hayes (2008) procedures that include the use of a 2-step procedure of bootstrapping in SmartPLS3.0 software. The first step must establish that there is a significant effect of direct effect which is determined by using bootstrapping in the absence of the mediator in the model. The next step determines the significance of the indirect effect which is done by running bootstrapping in the presence of the mediator. If the indirect effect is not significant, then mediation does not occur (Wong, 2016). Figure 3 and

Table 1

Guidelines of the Reflective Measurement Models' Assessment

Measurement	Indices	Acceptance Level
Internal consistency	Cronbach's Alpha Composite reliability	A value >0.7 indicates adequate internal consistency and composite reliability
Indicator Reliability	Outer loadings	A value >0.7 is acceptable. Consideration to retain or delete items with values between 0.4-0.7 depending on its effect on AVE. Items with value <0.4 is recommended for deletion
Convergent Validity	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	Value should be 0.5 or higher to ensure convergent validity
Discriminant Validity	Fornell-Larcker Criterion	Square root of AVE (value in the top-most, most-right in the reporting table) is greater that the correlations of the latent variables
	Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)	A value of HTMT <0.85 implies there is discriminant validity.

Source: Adapted from Hair et al. (2016)
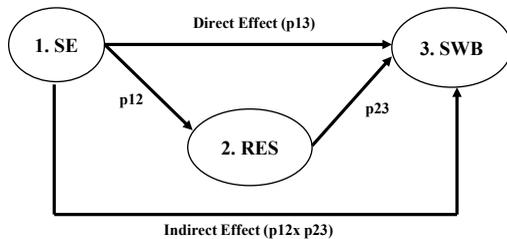
Figure 3. The mediation analysis of resilience on the relationship between self-efficacy and subjective well-being
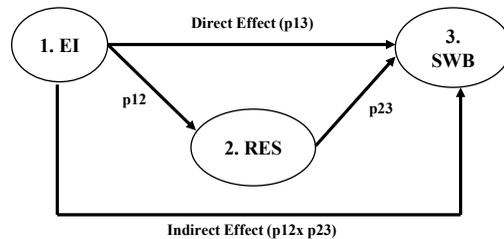
Figure 4. The mediation analysis of resilience on the relationship between emotional intelligence and subjective well-being

Figure 4 presents the mediation analysis for the mediator, resilience on the relationship between self-efficacy and subjective well-being and between emotional intelligence and subjective well-being respectively.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The result of this study was based on the 200 questionnaires obtained from student teachers in four teacher education institutes in Sabah, Malaysia. In particular, the student teachers comprised of 59 (29.5%) males and 141 (70.5%) females aged below 25 years who underwent their teaching practicum in the fifth Semester.

The Measurement Models' Assessment

With respect to this study, the reliability and validity of four measurement models: self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, resilience and subjective well-being were determined using SmartPLS 3.0. Table 2 presents the indicator reliability based on outer loading (OL), construct reliability based on the composite reliability (CR) and convergent validity based on the Average Variance Extracted (AVE). Clearly, it showed that all outer loadings were more than 0.600 in each construct. Besides, all indicators in self-efficacy were retained. However, 12 indicators in emotional intelligence, two indicators in resilience and two indicators in subjective well-being were deleted. This was done to ensure that the construct reliability indicated by AVE yields more than 0.500 for each construct. As a matter of fact, the CR values obtained were more than 0.708, indicating good construct reliability.

Furthermore, Table 3 presents the Fornell-Larcker criterion for each of the latent constructs. Precisely, the values

Table 2

Results of the Measurement Models' Assessment

Construct	AVE		OL (Retained and Deleted)	CR
	Before deletion of Indicators	**After Deletion of Indicators**		
Self-Efficacy	0.713	0.713	All 12 indicators were retained	0.968
Emotional Intelligence	0.456	0.504	12 indicators (B1, B2, B4, B8, B10, B11, B12, B13, B14, B17, B22, and B23) were deleted. The remaining 18 indicators were retained	0.948
Resilience	0.581	0.613	2 indicators (C4, C25) were deleted. The remaining 23 indicators were retained	0.973
Subjective Well-Being	0.596	0.771	2 indicators (D3, D4) were deleted. The remaining 3 indicators were retained.	0.910

Table 3

Discriminant validity with Fornell-Larcker

	Self-Efficacy	Emotional Intelligence	Resilience	Subjective Well-Being
Self-Efficacy	0.845			
Emotional Intelligence	0.341	0.71		
Resilience	0.661	0.401	0.783	
Subjective Well-Being	0.673	0.265	0.563	0.878

Table 4

Discriminant validity with HTMT ratio

	Self-Efficacy	Emotional Intelligence	Resilience
Emotional Intelligence	0.323		
Resilience	0.678	0.392	
Subjective Well-Being	0.735	0.283	0.606

shown in the uppermost column and to the most right are greater than those below and to the left respectively, indicated in bold in the table. In other words, this shows that the measurement models of each construct have good discriminant validity.

On top of that, Table 4 further validates the discriminant validity of the measurement models with Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio. Indeed, the result showed that all values were less than 0.80, indicating acceptable discriminant validity.

Based on the results gathered, it can be concluded that the measurement models of the constructs have good reliability and validity (Hair et al., 2012). In summary, the measurement model comprises 12 indicators for self-efficacy, 18 indicators for emotional intelligence, 23 indicators for resilience and three indicators for subjective well-being.

The Structural Model Assessment

The structural model assessment presented the result of testing of the research hypotheses and the predictive accuracy and relevance of the structural model. The significance and relevance of relationships among the constructs are indicated in Table 5. The relationships among the research variables were assessed to determine its significance and relevance. The beta value presented a comparison of relevance of the exogenous latent variables in relation to the endogenous latent variable. The comparison of the two exogenous variables indicated that self-efficacy is the most relevant to explain subjective well-being, followed by resilience and lastly, emotional intelligence. The T statistics and the p values conclude whether the relationship is significant or not. The testing of the research hypotheses is a one-tailed test, therefore, the cut-off value

Table 5

Significance and relevance of the pathways

Pathways	β Beta Coefficient	*T* Statistics	p Values	Conclusion
H1: SE→ SWB	0.535	6.399	0.000	Supported
H2: EI→ SWB	-0.002	0.033	0.974	Not Supported
H3: RES→ SWB	0.210	2.749	0.006	Supported

for supporting or rejecting a hypothesis is 1.64 for T statistics. In this case, two pathways (SE → SWB and RES → SWB) were significant and positive while one pathway (EI → SWB) was insignificant.

Testing of the Research Hypothesis, H1

From the result shown in Table 5, it can be seen that the relationship between self-efficacy and SWB was positive and significant (β = 0.54, T = 6.40, p = 0.00). With respect to the result obtained, the first research hypothesis, H1 is supported. This finding agrees with results from past studies (Chou, 2015; Hanjani et al., 2016; Soave, 2014; Wei, 2013). Highly efficacious student teachers in this study also exhibited higher level of life satisfaction.

Testing of the Research Hypothesis, H2

In contrast, emotional intelligence was negatively and insignificantly related to subjective well-being (β = -0.002, T = 0.03, p = 0.97). Thus, based on this result, the second research hypothesis is not supported. Hence, findings in this study contradicts past findings (Austin et al., 2005; Bar-On, 2005; Gallagher et al., 2008; Gannon & Ranzijn, 2005; Gignac, 2006; Landa, et al., 2006;

Razia, 2016; Soave, 2014). One reason for the current finding may be due to the fact that the emotional intelligence scale has 30 items with a mixed of 16 positive and 14 negative statements. Podsakoff et al. (2003) stated that the use of negatively worded items could lead to the issue of common method variance leading to measurement error.

Testing of the Research Hypothesis, H3

Resilience was discovered to have a positive and significant relationship with SWB (β = 0.21, T = 2.75, p = 0.006) and therefore supports the third research hypothesis. This agrees with findings from Kirmani et al. (2015), Utsey et al. (2008) and Windle et al. (2010). Student teachers who are resilient are happier and more satisfied with their current life.

Testing of the Research Hypothesis, H4

In this study, the mediation by resilience on the relationship between self-efficacy and subjective well-being was established by assessing the direct and indirect relationships between self-efficacy and subjective well-being. The result in Figure 5 shows that the direct pathway between

self-efficacy and SWB is significant (β = 0.648, p = 0.000). The pathways between self-efficacy and resilience (β = 0.593, p = 0.000) and between resilience and subjective well-being (β = 0.210, p = 0.004) were both significant and the indirect pathway was also significant (β = 0.125, p = 0.000). Therefore, resilience plays a mediating role in the relationship between self-efficacy and subjective well-being.

Testing of the Research Hypothesis, H5

As shown in Figure 6, the direct pathway between emotional intelligence and subjective well-being (β = 0.07, p = 0.147) is not significant. The pathway between emotional intelligence and resilience is significant (β = 0.199, p = 0.002) but the pathway between resilience and subjective well-being is not significant (β = -0.002, p = 0.973). The indirect pathway of emotional

intelligence to subjective well-being is insignificant (β = 0.0004, p = 0.436). Therefore, mediation did not take place and the research hypothesis, H5 is rejected.

The Predictive Accuracy and Relevance of the Structural Model

The predictive accuracy and relevancy of the structural model to explain subjective well-being with self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and the mediator, resilience are indicated in Table 6. Specifically, the predictive accuracy is given by the value of R^2 while the predictive relevancy is provided by the value of Q^2. In this study, the results showed that self-efficacy and emotional intelligence produced 47.2% of variability in resilience whereas the combined effect of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and resilience explained 47.8% of variance in
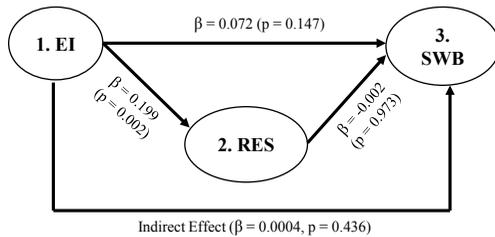
Figure 6. The β and p values of the direct and indirect pathways between emotional intelligence and subjective well-being

Table 6

The predicting accuracy and relevancy of the structural model

Constructs	R^2	Q^2
Resilience	0.472	0.281
Subjective Well-Being	0.478	0.356

Table 7

The effect size of the predicting accuracy and relevancy of the structural model

Constructs	Resilience		Subjective Well-being	
	f^2	q^2	f^2	q^2
Self-Efficacy	0.589	0.259	0.305	0.189
Emotional Intelligence	0.066	0.029	0.000	0.000

SWB. With respect to the results in Table 5, the corresponding exogenous latent variables were able to provide 28.1% predictive relevancy in resilience and 35.6% in subjective well-being.

As shown in Table 7, the effect sizes of the predictive accuracy (f^2) and the predictive relevancy (q2) are tabulated. In this respect, self-efficacy was discovered to have a large effect size in terms of predictive accuracy and relevancy on resilience ($f^2 = 0.59$, $q^2 = 0.26$) as well as on subjective well-being ($f^2 = 0.31$, $q^2 = 0.19$). In contrast, the effect size of emotional intelligence on resilience ($f^2 = 0.07$, $q^2 = 0.03$) and subjective well-being ($f^2 = 0.00$, $q^2 = 0.00$) was small or negligible.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, this study implies that self-efficacy and resilience of student teachers can help to ensure their subjective well-being. Most importantly, the process of developing the competence and confidence of student teachers' teaching ability will eventually contribute to their subjective well-being. In other words, having a high level of self-efficacy will function as a catalyst to promote happiness and enhance satisfaction amongst student teachers. In addition, the notion of being resilient will further elevate the effect of self-efficacy on subjective well-being. Indeed, teachers who are happy and satisfied with their life would naturally acquire the willingness to continue their teaching career and ensure that the education system in Malaysia has sufficient human resources. In connection

with the insights gathered from this study, strategic planning of the teacher education curriculum can be designed to incorporate activities that can enhance their self-efficacy to improve their well-being. Thus, such initiatives will equip teachers with the competence and confidence in their ability to perform well in their teaching profession.

However, there are some limitations in this study. Firstly, this study only focuses on student teachers who have just completed their first practicum in the fifth semester. Normally, the student teachers are exposed to three teaching practicum (Institut Pendidikan Guru Malaysia [IPGM], 2013) in the fifth, sixth and eighth semester. With advancing time and experience, the student teachers may have develop greater self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, resilience and subjective well-being as these are subjected to change due to personal and environmental factors (Zyga et al., 2016) . The mediation of resilience on the relationship between emotional intelligence and subjective well-being might be present in the later stage of the teacher education program. Therefore, a longitudinal research might provide insights to the change in the mediation capability of resilience in such relationship. With strong support from theoretical and empirical perspectives on the role of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and resilience to boost subjective well-being as well as the need for individuals to be happy and satisfied to cope with stressful situations, replicating this research with other samples that are subjected to practicum experience such as student nurses, medical students and other

undergraduate program students might shed more understanding of these phenomena. A broader scope of such research might support a national educational policy that supports the development of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, resilience and subjective well-being in the curriculum.

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Preservice Teachers' Perception of Program Coherence and its Relationship to their Teaching Efficacy

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ABSTRACT

More often than not, campus based courses have been criticized as a set of disconnected individual courses and that these courses lack the coherence with the realities of teaching and learning. To this end, one teacher education university has made efforts to make its teacher education program more coherent. Thus, this study reports on this university's preservice teachers' perception of program coherence and associating it with their teaching efficacy. The analysis from 454 preservice teachers, collected through a 30-item perception of program coherence questionnaire and a 12-item Malaysian Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale, indicated significant relationships between the two. Overall, the preservice teachers perceived their teacher education programs as fairly coherent. However, more importantly, when these preservice teachers perceived that what they learnt in campus (their theoretical studies) and their practical experiences (during their practicum) were coherent or aligned, this connection helped them to handle issues relating to how they engage students in learning, planning lessons, using appropriate teaching strategies, and classroom management. A coherent teacher education program is able to contribute to preservice teachers' feelings of efficacy and in turn, to a positive stance towards their own functioning as teachers. This finding underscores the importance for foundational theory learnt in the campus to be coherently connected to courses in teaching methodologies and finally to actual classroom teaching. The purpose of any

re-design of a teacher education program conceptualized around coherence is about making better connections between theory and practice and to ultimately strengthen teaching.

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Borko and Putnam (1996) expressed that all too often teacher education programs presented teaching as a vocation, not dissimilar to, for example the education of a technician, prescribing a static curriculum and giving little attention to the nature of teaching. They maintained that preservice teachers needed an understanding of the pedagogical and educational imperatives that drove the practice of teaching because "the knowledge, beliefs, and skills that enable them to teach … are fundamentally different from how they were taught" (Borko & Mayfield, 1995). Preservice teachers cannot continue to be prepared in a program that reinforces a transmission model of education. They need opportunities to examine and reconcile theory with practice (Zeichner, 1992). Ten years later, Darling-Hammond (2006) lamented that there was still little "explanation about pedagogical approaches tied to direct opportunities for inquiry and application". Teacher education programs continued to contribute towards the dichotomy of theory

and practice. Now, Hammerness and Klette (2015) alluded this as a 'gap' between what teacher education taught and what preservice teachers needed. This gap originates from a perceived inability of teacher education to enable preservice teachers to construe an understanding of teaching as constructed between and connected to both theory and practice (Darling-Hammond, 2014). To obtain this understanding, a coherent teaching program is crucial in itself as well as for graduating effective teachers (Hammerness & Klette, 2015).

Teacher education programs are responsible for preparing preservice teachers with the required knowledge and skills enabling them to function effectively in schools. However, teachers in Malaysia report a disconnect between the skills and knowledge they receive in their teacher preparation and the realities of their classroom environment (Goh & Blake, 2015). Educational stakeholders are concerned that Malaysian teacher education is preparing teachers who know much about theory but struggle to implement it in practice (Goh & Matthews, 2011; Goh & Wong, 2014). Internationally, the growing discontent of voices that teacher education coursework is too theoretical has grown louder (Reid, 2011). Similarly, voices from Malaysian beginning teachers have indicated that they need more opportunities to 'practice' their teaching and to examine their own understanding of themselves as teachers. A phenomenological study of Malaysian beginning teachers finds them grappling with the need to re-examine

and connect theory and practice (Goh & Wong, 2014). Their first experience of teaching, once they enter the classroom, is surviving the workplace challenges. They are inundated with the complexities, ambiguities, and uncertainties of a teacher's work and of learning to teach, and the transition from teacher preparation to the classrooms in schools can be characterised as a 'reality shock' (Fatiha et al., 2013). The reality of the actual teaching situation sometimes differs greatly from what preservice teachers have been taught. As a result, preservice teachers, thinking about their practicum, may have concerns about the classroom experiences they will encounter and may feel less confident in handling these.

Confidence, enthusiasm for, and persistence in teaching are various educational outcomes that are associated with positive teaching efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). Teachers with positive teaching efficacy have the "capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated" (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Teachers' perception of their own efficacy can affect the action s/he is willing to put into teaching. They, furthermore, are more likely to be more confident to accept new ideas and to use productive teaching approaches and practices to optimize student learning compared to teachers with inadequate teaching efficacy. Ashton (1984) opined, as do Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2007), that preservice

teachers could still be directed towards positive teaching efficacy in the early years of their teacher education preparation. Similarly, Hoy and Spero (2005) found that preservice teachers' teaching efficacy could be influenced by the program they were engaged in during teacher preparation. It is possible to mould preservice teachers' efficacy beliefs during their early years of learning to teach. An integrated teacher preparation with authentic experiences is an important factor for building teaching efficacy (Gurvitch & Metzler, 2009; Smith et al., 2013). Stoughton (2007), on a study of primary school teachers, found that there still existed disconnects between the preparation these teachers received and their teaching efficacy. This appears to be true in the Malaysian context as well, as shown in a study by Rahimah et al. (2014). They found that preservice teachers perceived a lack of connection between the information provided in teacher preparation programs and classroom realities consequently influencing their teaching efficacy. As there is little integration of the knowledge obtained by the preservice teachers across their coursework – they do not feel confident to carry out the practical aspects of a teachers' work in the classroom. As such, there appears to be a lack of coherence between these parts of teacher preparation, something which also has been reported to be the case in other teacher education programs (Hammerness & Klette, 2015; Weston & Henderson, 2015).

Following disparaging remarks about the shortcomings of new teachers, in 2010,

a teacher education university in Malaysia decided to restructure its curriculum to better align the theoretical studies and practical experiences of their preservice teachers. What followed was a re-examination of the purposes and practices of the curriculum within a framework of contemporary needs in the schools and the philosophy of the Malaysian educational system. What emerged from this process were new courses focused on the combination of theory and practice which aimed at more coherence throughout the program. However, since its inception, as far as we are aware, no studies have been conducted to examine whether the preservice teachers perceived the restructured curriculum as enabling an integration of theory and practice, potentially resulting in more teaching efficacy. Therefore, we set out to explore preservice teachers' perceptions of program coherence in the restructured teacher education program and whether these perceptions are associated with these preservice teachers' teaching efficacy. We used a quantitative methodology to examine the following research questions:

1. How much teaching efficacy do the preservice teachers report?
2. How coherent do the preservice teachers experience their teacher education program to be?
3. To what extent are preservice teachers' perceptions of program coherence and their teaching efficacy related.

PROGRAM COHERENCE

The coherence of the educational program and curriculum, be it at the primary, elementary or higher education, which the students are enrolled in have been found to influence learner outcomes (Clarà, 2015; Goh et al., 2012; Hammerness et al., 2014; Nurulhuda et. al, 2016; Smeby & Heggen, 2014). Students' motivation to be engaged in the learning tasks is enhanced if the students find that their learning experiences are coherent within the classrooms and in their curricular materials. Students are better able to transfer concepts from different subjects and from their learning outcomes to other contexts if they perceive there is subject coherence (Newmann et al., 2001). In Schmidt et al.'s (2005) study, the achievement scores in science and mathematics were related to the coherence of the students' learning curriculum.

Muller (2009) differentiated coherence in curricula by dividing it into 'conceptual coherence' and 'contextual coherence'. Conceptual coherence is referred to as courses which are prerequisites to the next course. Without the earlier courses, preservice teachers will not be able to understand the later courses. On the other hand, contextual coherence is the alignment of courses to practical or clinical experiences. Building on the work by Muller's (2009) description of coherence, Hammerness (2006) conceptualized two distinct forms of program coherence. First, the conceptual coherence refered to the organization of the content of a program towards providing alignment between

theory and practice. Structural coherence, on the other hand, refered to building a program that providesdan integrated learning experience for preservice teachers which aligned university courses with their practicum. Canrinus et al. (2015) succinctly summarized program coherence "as a process, in which all courses within a program, be it theoretical or practical, are aligned based on a clear visions of good teaching". Program coherence is also "established through coherence between university courses … and field experiences … and includes student teachers' opportunities to make connections across ideas and to build their own understanding as features of program coherence".

As early as in the 1990s, Buchmann and Floden (1991) had attempted to describe coherence as something that had "direction, systematic relations, and intelligible meaning, thus conveying a sense of purpose, order and intellectual as well as practical control" and caution against subjecting students to isolated or disconnected ideas and practices. Buchmann and Floden further described coherence as connectedness with "consistency and accord among elements". Nevertheless, although these are important fundamentals in planning a coherent program, they also advise against overdoing coherence to the point that students have little avenue to investigate new connections or to create new conceptualisations from their learning. Tatto (1996) in her study of teacher education added that coherence was not about 'thinking the same', but rather a:

"… shared understanding among faculty and in the manner in which opportunities to learning have been arranged (organisationally, logistically) to achieve a common goal – that of educating professional teachers with the knowledge, skills and dispositions to more effectively teach diverse students".

This is similarly echoed by Fullan and Quinn (2016), Grossman et al. (2008), Hammerness (2006), and Ingvarson et al. (2014) that a shared vision of good teaching underlied the essence of coherence in a teacher education program. In a coherent program, courses have sequence and are built on each other. Hammerness and Klette (2015) described a coherent program as "a set of courses that are conceptually linked; is designed to deliberately build understanding of teaching over time; and has careful alignment between university coursework and field placements". To allow preservice teachers to integrate the theory and practice of learning, they should be able to explore and comprehend the interdependence of the various elements (e.g. learn how to teach and what it means, understand impacts of teaching on students, assess and reflect on one's own teaching) (Hammerness & Klette, 2015; Korthagen et al., 2006) within the teacher education program resulting in the construction of their own professional understanding (Canrinus et al., 2015). A coherent teacher education program will assist preservice teachers' understanding and integration of the new

and complex demands and ideas they may encounter across the settings in which they learn (Honig & Hatch, 2004). On the other hand, when a program lacks connectedness, courses are developed with little attention as to how they can be aligned to provide an effective preparatory program for preservice teachers. In some situations, academic staffs are more interested in developing courses that interest them rather than provide the necessary opportunities for preservice teachers to learn how to teach (Ingvarson et al., 2014).

Program coherence is "increasingly being acknowledged to be an important feature in teacher education programs" (Ingvarson et al., 2014). Tatto et al. (2012) found a strong relationship between program coherence and teachers' perceptions of readiness to teach in the IEA Teacher Education and Development–Mathematics (TEDS-M) study. Research, although few in numbers, shows that well-integrated programs with authentic experiences impact preservice teachers' teaching efficacy (Gurvitch & Metzler, 2009; Smith et al., 2013). Results from the study by Geoghegan et al. (2004) revealed, for example, a link between the accessibility, meaningfulness, and relevance of the instruction at the teacher education program, as perceived by the preservice teachers, and the preservice teachers' teaching efficacy. Until now, to the best of our knowledge, no research has been performed explicitly exploring this relationship, let alone investigating this linkage in a Malaysian context. In the present paper we will explore this

relationship and contribute to the expansion of strengthening the knowledge about the potential impact of program coherence as well as to contribute to the knowledge base on what might influence preservice teachers' teaching efficacy. Although we acknowledge that a coherent program also implies an integration of theory and practice at the preservice teachers' school placement, we focus on campus courses in this study. Studying coherence in schools would imply too much contextual variability which we would not be able to control for.

METHODS

Participants

The 454 participants in this study came from a teacher education university located in the state of Perak, Malaysia. This university lies under the direct administration of the Ministry of Higher Education, Malaysia and is the only teacher education university in Malaysia. Ethical approval to conduct the study was obtained from two review boards which were given detailed information on data collection procedure. The teacher preparation program consisted of a sequence of university courses from the first to the sixth semesters, followed by a 16-week practicum experience in selected government schools in the seventh semester. Preservice teachers were prepared to become secondary school teachers and had declared an academic major and minor. They had recently returned to the university for their eighth and final semester upon completion of their practicum when this study was carried out. The participants were 84 males (18.5%) and 370 females

(81.5%), with a mean age of 24 (SD = 0.96, Min: 22 years; Max: 29 years).

Measures

To assess preservice teachers' perception of program coherence, a perception of program coherence questionnaire developed by Hammerness et al. (2014) was used. The questionnaire consisted of 38 items and was developed by the authors when they initiated the Coherence and Assignment Study in Teacher Education (CATE). The questionnaire had two dimensions. The first dimension assessed the extent to which preservice teachers have the opportunity to enact practice during methods courses (19 items). The second dimension was designed to tap into whether there are opportunities for preservice teachers to connect different elements of the program and asks about the perceived coherence within the program (19 items). Items within the first dimension were rated on a four-point scale: 1 = none, 2 = touched on it briefly, 3 = explored in some depth, 4 = extensive opportunity. Items of the second dimension were rated on:1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, 4 = strongly agree.

As all the courses within the program were in the Malaysian language, and to provide a common linguistic response, the questionnaire was translated into Malay. As part of the translation process, independent certified translators translated the questionnaire into Malay and another translator translated it back to English for verification. During the translation process, two items in the first dimension were omitted as translating them would produce almost similar meaning to some of the other items. As in any translation process, the translators had to use strategies like omission, deletion or classifier, as there were cases where words or concepts in the translated language were almost identical and could be used interchangeably (Jakobson, 2000). Certain words were changed and modifications to some sentences were also made to make the items suitable to the Malaysian preservice teachers. For example, the term 'course' was used to mean individual subject/unit while 'program' referred to the whole teacher education program. Two terms 'K-12' and 'K-12 classroom' were changed to 'classroom'. 'K-12' was not a familiar term used in the Malaysian context to refer to secondary level education. To test the appropriateness of the wording change and minor sentence modification of the final 36 items, a pilot study with a group of 20 preservice teachers, who were not part of the final participants, was carried out. There were no misleading words or sentences and the preservice teachers were able to understand the requirements of each item.

Teaching efficacy was measured using the Malaysian Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (MTSES; Goh, 2009). The MTSES was tested to have 3 dimensions, similar to the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001): personal efficacy in motivating and engaging students' interest (4 items), efficacy in typical teaching situations (asking questions, assessment, and use of teaching strategies) (4 items) and teachers' efficacy in classroom

management and discipline (4 items). Items were measured on a 5-point scale (1 = not at all - 5 = a great deal).

Data Analyses

To ensure that the sample was appropriate for the analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy index was conducted and presented an index of 0.87. The second test, the Bartlett's test of Sphericity, had a significant result of x^2=1392.8, p<0.01. These two indicators revealed that the sample and correlation matrix were within an acceptable range for the analysis. Next, we performed an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to establish the integrity of the dimensions of the program coherence questionnaire as this is the first attempt to validate the questionnaire in a Malaysian context. Additionally, as the only published result about the instrument (Canrinus et al., 2015) also uses an EFA to validate the dimensions, we feel that it is more suitable to use an EFA here. Fabrigar et al. (1999) advised that if the factor structure of a particular instrument was relatively new, there was still a need to build up a strong a priori assumption about the dimensions within the questionnaire. Therefore, it is advisable to use an EFA over a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Kline (2005) furthermore recommended using the same method in various samples instead of directly basing the CFA on a previous EFA. Although it is preferable that a comparison be made between the published result and our observed scales, this was not possible as the analysis by Canrinus et al. (2015)

was only applied to the second part of the instrument.

The internal consistencies of both instruments were assessed using Cronbach's Alpha. Finally, quantitative analysis of the questionnaires was undertaken by calculating the means and standard deviations of the factors in program coherence and teaching efficacy together with a correlation matrix to discover any significant relationships between program coherence and teaching efficacy. All statistical measures were completed using the IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, version 21.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, N.Y., USA)

Procedure

Preservice teachers participated between the second and sixth week during their classes in 2015. They were briefed on the purpose of the study and the instruments. On average, it took about 20 minutes for the participants to complete the questionnaire. Participation was voluntary and confidentiality of all collected information was assured.

RESULTS

Factor Structure and Reliability Indexes

A principal component analysis with varimax rotation was used to facilitate the interpretation of the factor structure of the 36-item program coherence questionnaire. The factor loading criteria for inclusion was set at 0.40. All items loaded on one factor, except six items which had a loading < 0.40. These items were removed and the analysis re-run. The results of this second analysis

are presented in Table 1 and reveal four underlying factors with an eigenvalue value >1 and explaining 51.39% of the variance. These factors were re-specified to Factor 1 (7 items) 'Opportunity to Enact Practice'; Factor 2 (6 items) 'Opportunity to use Theory and learn about Research'; Factor 3 (5 items) 'Vision and Opportunities to Link Theory to Practice'; and Factor 4 (12 items) 'Coherence between Courses and Practical Experience'. Table 1 presents the factor loadings per item per factor, as well as the internal consistency of each factor.

Previous studies observed good internal consistencies for each dimension of the Malaysian Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (e.g. Goh, 2009). In the present study we observed similar internal consistencies, ranging from $\alpha = 0.74$ for efficacy in student engagement to $\alpha = 0.85$ for efficacy in instructional practices. Factor analysis of previous study revealed a single factor which accounted for 54.1% of the variance when used with Malaysian preservice teachers (Goh, 2009). Similarly, in the present study, a single factor was also found

Table 1

Factor structure and reliability indexes

	Factors				Cronbach Alpha
Items	1	2	3	4	
Opportunities to enact practice					
Item 1	0.79				0.79
Item 2	0.76				
Item 3	0.62				
Item 4	0.63				
Item 5	0.47				
Item 6	0.76				
Item 7	0.43				
Item 8		0.82			0.86
Item 9		0.77			
Item 10		0.68			
Item11		0.59			
Item 12		0.57			
Item 13		0.46			

Table 1 *(Continued)*

Factors				Cronbach Alpha
Vision and Coherence				
Item 14			0.51	0.83
Item 15			0.62	
Item 16			0.66	
Item 17			0.72	
Item 18			0.71	
Item 19				0.42	0.85
Item 20				0.48	
Item 21				0.48	
Item 22				0.42	
Item 23				0.42	
Item 24				0.64	
Item 25				0.62	
Item 26				0.59	
Item 27				0.47	
Item 28				0.50	
Item 29				0.72	
Item 30				0.69	
Eigenvalue	10.29	2.19	1.94	1.42
Percentage explained	13.86	13.03	12.31	12.14
Cumulative percentage explained variance	13.86	26.93	39.24	51.39

  Note: Full instrument in Bahasa Melayu can be obtained from the corresponding author

in the current Malaysian Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale which accounted for 66% of the variance.

Means and Standard Deviation

As shown in Table 2, the preservice teachers' capability to manage the classroom had the

highest mean (M = 3.55) and preservice teachers had the least confidence in adequately using instructional strategies (M = 3.47). The ability to engage students in the classroom (M =3.53) was at a level between the other two scales.

Preservice teachers' ratings of the dimension 'Coherence between Courses and Practical Experience' were the highest (M = 3.24) followed by 'Vision and Opportunity to Link Theory to Practice' (M = 3.15) and 'Opportunity to Enact Practice' (M = 3.11). The current data indicates that 'Opportunity to use Theory and Learn about Research' has the lowest mean (M = 3.00).

Correlations

Correlations between all scales are also presented in Table 2. The interrelationships between the four dimensions of program coherence and the three measures of teaching efficacy were all strong and statistically significant. In, general, the perception of program coherence was significantly correlated to teaching efficacy (r = 0.41, p < 0.01) with correlations between the scales ranging from r = 0.21 between efficacy engagement and opportunity to use theory and learn about research to r = 0.51 between efficacy in instructional practices and vision and opportunity to link theory to practice.

Table 2

Correlation between perception of program coherence and teacher efficacy together with their mean scores

Measures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Mean	SD
Perception of Program Coherence									
1. Opportunity to Enact Practice	1							3.11	0.48
1. Opportunity to use Theory and Learn about Research	0.57**	1						3.0	0.5
1. Vision and Opportunity to Link Theory to Practice	0.65**	0.63**	1					3.1	0.5
1. Coherence between Courses and Practical Experience	0.62**	0.52**	0.60**	1				3.2	0.3
Teachers' Sense of Efficacy									
1. Efficacy in Student Engagement	**0.24***	**0.21***	**0.40****	**0.30****	1			3.53	0.55
1. Efficacy in Instructional Practices	**0.34****	**0.25****	**0.51****	**0.36****	0.76**	1		3.4	0.6
1. Efficacy in Classroom Management	**0.28****	**0.23***	**0.43****	**0.32****	0.84**	0.77**	1	3.5	0.6

 * p<0.05   ** p<0.01

DISCUSSION

Although a large body of research exists on teachers' self-efficacy, the present study adds to this knowledge base in relating preservice teachers' perceptions of program coherence within their teacher education program and the preservice teachers' teaching efficacy. We investigated: a) how much teacher self-efficacy preservice teachers report, b) how coherent these preservice teachers perceive their program to be, and c) the extent to which a and b are related.

Overall, the preservice teachers in our study felt fairly confident in their teaching yet with ample room for improvement. They rated the three self-efficacy scales very similar with their efficacy in classroom management and student engagement only slightly higher than their reported efficacy in instructional practices. This difference makes sense as student engagement and classroom management are the first competencies teachers tend to acquire (Van de Grift et al., 2014).

Regarding the perceptions of program coherence, we observed that, overall, the preservice teachers in this study perceive their teacher education programs as fairly coherent. This finding underscores the importance for foundational theory learnt in the campus to be connected to courses in teaching methodologies and vice versa. With strong linkages between these courses, transfer of these concepts to actual practice is improved (Canrinus et al., 2015).

'Coherence between Courses and Practical Experience' had the highest rating compared to the other scales as revealed by the relatively high mean score obtained on this scale. There have been concerns that in preservice teachers' period of 'rite of passage' during their practicum, preservice teachers may have difficulty applying pedagogical theory learnt at university to actual classroom practice (Goh & Matthews, 2011). However, in this case, it can be inferred that most preservice teachers perceived that they were able to apply, integrate, or modify their new knowledge into their field experiences. They were given the opportunity to critically examine the purposes of teaching and to use it in actual practice. This positive experience could be attributed to the perception that their university courses have helped them in their roles and that they are able to connect the knowledge they learned in courses with their teaching experiences. This is a positive finding as Shoval et al. (2011) stressed that linking the education to practice was an important and continuing challenge for teacher educators. Hammerness and Klette (2015) wrote what they called "talk about field placement" and also stressed the importance of teacher educators linking teaching about theory back to what was actually happening in schools. Our finding relates to what Smeby and Heggen (2014) called 'transitional coherence' in which the knowledge and skills acquired during education and those acquired during the first years as a qualified professional were linked. Our preservice teachers, to a certain degree, also combined the learnings from their education with their practical experiences. Muller (2009) referred to 'contextual

coherence' implying that what was taught was contextually relevant and appropriate in a specific context. From our findings it seems that our preservice teachers have perceived the interconnectedness of theory and practice and obtained knowledge relevant for the context they were working in during their practicum, thus experiencing contextual coherence within their education.

Our findings indicated that 'Opportunity to use Theory and Learn about Research' had the lowest rating compared to the other dimensions. Research helps to develop new approaches and understanding that uses deep theoretical knowledge and understanding of teaching and learning. The experiences can also reinforce conceptual understanding that is integrated and coherent (Linn et al., 2015). For preservice teachers to perceive that they had insufficient opportunity to use theory and learn to conduct research regarding issues related to teaching practice does not bode well as it may retard their views of development, especially vis-a-vis student learning. Therefore, program coordinators might want to take heed that preservice teachers perceived to have insufficient opportunities to use theory and to learn about research. Research provides a way for teachers to explore issues of interest or concern in their classes and to integrate the results in future lessons. Teachers' involvement in research is a way to empower teachers in their decision making roles in schools (Coate et al., 2003). We often tell our preservice teachers to apply theory and use "research-based strategies" and yet such strategies may be presented to them in a rather static manner which creates disinterest among them. We, as teacher educators, need to provide the necessary resources for preservice teachers to experiment with research and create an awareness about the significance of doing research. Higher education students who are actively involved in research are more likely to have deep approaches to learning and possess greater depth of understanding in their learning benefit (Linn et al., 2015). Opportunities could be arranged through workshops outside of class time and to create awareness programs about research and its outcomes. The importance of exploring and testing new theories and strategies through research cannot be overstated.

We observed significant associations between preservice teachers' perceptions of program coherence and their teaching efficacy. Overall, the data from the study suggests that the preservice teachers possess the needed levels of confidence to carry out the duties of teaching and learning if they perceive that the various courses within their teacher education program coherently connect. This connection should exist between their theoretical studies and their practical experiences and this connection should help preservice teachers with issues relating to how they engage students in learning, planning lessons, using appropriate teaching strategies, and classroom management.

The positive efficacy scores of the preservice teachers could also have come from their beliefs that their preparation to be teachers helped towards connecting

their theoretical studies to their professional experience (Smith, et al., 2013). We believe that it was likely that the preservice teachers had greater confidence and competency in their roles as teachers when they perceived that their preparation program showed alignment and coherence. The positive teaching efficacy outcome is positive indeed as those preservice teachers who were more assured of themselves as teachers, i.e. experiencing more teaching efficacy, may also develop higher degrees of self-confidence when confronted with the realities of their profession in the future (Hoy & Spero, 2005). Additionally, they will have a positive impact on their students' achievements (Caprara et al., 2006; Geoghegan, et al., 2004). Those preservice teachers with positive teaching efficacy tend to perceive that there are no students who are deemed too difficult to teach. Previous research suggests that the effectiveness of teaching and adaptive problem-solving behaviours of teachers come from a strong teaching efficacy (e.g. Wolters & Daugherty, 2007; Durgunoglu & Hughes, 2010). These preservice teachers feel confident to engage their students in the learning process to increase their students' attention and focus. Importantly, research also confirms that teaching efficacy affects the ability of teachers to achieve the desired results in the classroom, including classroom management capabilities (Poulou, 2007).

The significant relationship between preservice teachers' perception of program coherence and their sense of teaching efficacy in classroom management is also a finding to highlight. Goh and Matthews (2011) reported that "classroom control is a common issue for new teachers […]" and that "classes that are not managed well will generally lead to student discipline problems and this can inhibit effective instructional approaches from occurring". The coherence between the preservice teachers' practicum and courses may have contributed to these preservice teachers' feelings of being able to manage the overall classroom environment (e.g., attending to disruptive student behaviours, noisy students, students who do not follow rules and procedures in the classroom). Therefore, it might be prudent, for the university where this study was carried out, to continue to focus on efforts to connect various parts of the educational program. As classrooms in Malaysia are now more contextually and culturally diverse (Goh & Wong, 2014), it may be equally important to consider what further support is needed from teacher education programs to maximize the likelihood that classroom management practices will be given priority. We can conclude that the teacher education program under study does offer a teacher preparation program that is perceived as coherent. Preservice teachers' perceptions of this coherence is also strongly related to their feelings of being adequately prepared for and feeling confident in engaging students in the classroom, using instructional strategies and in managing the classroom.

CONCLUDING REMARK

The present study suggests that the current

restructured teacher education program is on the right path towards preparing these preservice teachers fully for the daily realities of the classroom. Although we conclude that preservice teachers' feelings of readiness for their experiences in the classroom is related to experiencing a coherent teacher education program, we need to also acknowledge that there are some limitations attached to the findings of this study. Both the program coherence questionnaire and the sense of teaching efficacy questionnaire are self-reported measures. Therefore, there may be some response consistency effects that may have biased the relationships. However, students are generally perceived as reliable sources of information (Maulana et al., 2015) and that self-reported data are accurate when individuals understand the questions and when there is a sense of anonymity (Brener et al., 2003), as is the case in this study. The data collection was confined to one program, therefore any generalizability of the findings to other teacher preparation programs will need to be made with some caution. Nevertheless, both instruments have been used in a variety of contexts (Hammerness & Klette, 2015; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). Finally, while the present study examined the relationships between two important constructs, program coherence and teaching efficacy, there are certain variables such as gender, age, and specialization of the preservice teachers that might also influence the relationships. Despite these limitations but with a reminder for the need to be cautious, the current

findings have added to the understanding of preservice teachers' teaching efficacy in relation to their teacher preparation programs. The significant relationship with coherence indicates that the program coherence studied here, as perceived by the preservice teachers, may have contributed to these teachers' feelings of efficacy and thus contributed to a positive stance towards their own functioning as teachers. Nevertheless, preservice teachers will face challenges, beyond their expressed confidence, their knowledge of content, or their mastery of instructional strategies when they become part of the teaching profession (Geoghegan, et al., 2004).

The aspect of how the perception of program coherence can influence teacher efficacy is relatively new in the field of education. More research regarding the perception of program coherence and teacher efficacy would be beneficial to establish a more generalizable relationship between these two constructs. Additionally, although the questionnaire on program coherence has been used in a variety of programs (Hammerness & Klette, 2015), follow-up research is necessary to further investigate it's reliability and validity and it's potential to be used for a wider group of preservice teachers. The questionnaire offers, for example an opportunity to evaluate innovations in other teacher education programs in Malaysia. The present study is based on quantitative data. This offers us numerous opportunities, yet we do believe that further research should also include a more qualitative component.

Building on our presented findings, further research might ask preservice teachers about their different interpretations of what is theoretical and what is practical in their teacher education programs. Such a study could help uncover how preservice teachers relate their campus experiences to the different contexts, settings, and processes that comprise teaching. It would also be an opportunity to gain a better understanding of which aspects of the dimensions in the perception of program coherence, preservice teachers themselves may feel are influential to their teaching efficacy.

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Assessment for Learning: Espoused and Enacted Practices of Malaysian Teachers

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ABSTRACT

High stakes assessment practices have been the most common summative assessments in schools. To address the shortcomings of the summative assessments, Assessment for Learning (AfL) was introduced to provide learners more active feedback and autonomy in their learning progression. In Malaysia, school-based assessments were introduced to reduce the dependency on summative assessments. This paper examines the espoused and the levels of enacted AfL practices of Malaysian Year 7 teachers. A survey and video research design was employed in this study where data were collected from a sample of teachers who taught Mathematics, Science, English Language, and Malay Language. To elicit teachers' espoused AfL practices, a questionnaire was used while video recordings were utilized as a form of classroom observation to elicit teachers' enacted AfL practices. The results indicated that there seemed to be agreement among teachers' espoused AfL practices with AfL strategies for three dimensions which were Sharing Learning Target, Engineering Good Classroom Discussions, and Peer Assessment. The enacted AfL practices of these teachers were predominantly at the lowest levels for all dimensions of AfL practices. This study was not able to establish any relationship between the espoused and enacted AfL

practices. It is suggested that both, espoused and enacted AfL practices were be brought to light as foundations for continuous improvement. It is hoped that these results would inform and influence policy makers about the future direction and decision making in improving the quality of school-based assessment implementation.

Keywords: Assessment for learning, enacted practices, espoused practices, Malaysia, school-based assessment

INTRODUCTION

Within the Asian region, reforms on assessment practices have been undertaken to address the shortcomings of high-stakes summative assessments. In order to achieve this, countries such as India, Hong Kong, Vietnam, Singapore, and Malaysia have begun to move away from high-stakes summative assessments towards formative assessments (Chan, 2015; Koh & Luke, 2009; Ministry of Education [MOE], 2012; National Council of Educational Research and Training [NCERT], 2005; Thanh-Pham & Renshaw, 2014). One form of formative assessment that is being promoted is Assessment for Learning (AfL) which is conceptualized as a "process of seeking and interpreting evidence [of learning] for use by learners and their teachers to decide where the learners are in their learning, where they need to go, and how best to get there" (Assessment Reform Group [ARG], 2002). AfL aspires to give students autonomy in their learning progression by employing processes such as sharing learning targets and criteria of success with students; providing constructive feedback; and promoting students' active involvement in assessment (Swaffield, 2011; Thomas et al., 2011).

This reform in assessment requires a shift, not only in teachers' knowledge of AfL, but also in their classroom practices. The relationship between teachers' AfL knowledge which can be called their 'espoused AfL practices' and their enacted AfL practices need to be investigated. Reforms in assessment have the potential to destabilize teachers' espoused-enacted practices' alignment; the congruence between them is especially crucial in ensuring the success of these reforms (Dixon & Haigh, 2009; Richardson et al., 1991). It is the incongruences, if any, between the espoused and enacted AfL practices that have to be illuminated and acted on so that sufficient support can be provided to help teachers align their espoused and enacted practices.

Literature Review and Theoretical Foundation

AfL principles are often guided by Sadler's (1989) framework that states teachers need to establish where students are going in their learning, where they are right now and how best to achieve their learning goals, and to involve students in each and every step of the way. The AfL principles have to remain relatively stable with the goal to involve students in the assessment process (Andrade & Brown, 2016; Black & Wiliam, 1998). Research on AfL recommends that teachers

share explicit and understandable description of the learning targets with their students (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Chappius, 2015). Teachers are advised to use exemplars of good and weak work and to explain the differences between them. Teachers should also provide regular descriptive feedback that focuses on the strengths and weaknesses of student work and the kind of learning that needs to be addressed (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). By modelling these practices (i.e., sharing learning targets and providing descriptive feedback), teachers are inviting students into the assessment process and making it transparent to them. This, in turn, gives students the ability to internalize the assessment criteria and the knowhow to use the information to do self- or peer-assessment and then communicate their ideas or feedback to their peers. All this can be done successfully only if teachers create relevant and meaningful tasks for their students (Heritage, 2010). However, research seems to suggest that how these strategies are implemented in the classrooms and how they complement each other is complex (DeLuca et al., 2012; Klenowski, 2009; Wiliam & Thompson, 2007).

Research on teachers' espoused practices, beliefs, and knowledge about AfL have been premised on the assumption that these are predictors of what actually happens in classrooms (Atjonen, 2014; Irving et al., 2011; Jonsson et al., 2015; Remesal, 2007; Sach, 2012). However, due to the lack of concrete interpretation of exactly what is AfL and how it might work in a real-life setting (Dunn & Mulvenon, 2009;

Swaffield, 2011), teachers' espoused AfL practices might not be what they actually enact in their classrooms. Teachers may believe that what they are practicing are indeed the AfL strategies. As such, teachers may espouse that they share learning targets with their students by providing exemplars; however, if they do not explicitly link the exemplars with the assessment criteria, the assessment criteria will still be inaccessible to the students (Booth et al., 2014; Sadler, 2010). Furthermore, enactment of AfL strategies may be inferior as teachers tend to engage superficially when their beliefs are not aligned with the underlying principles of AfL (Dixon et al., 2011; Marshall & Drummond, 2006). Marshall and Drummond (2006) investigated how teachers translated AfL strategies into practice and found that although the teachers were able to espouse AfL principles, not all teachers were able to enact the practices in the 'spirit of AfL'.

The (mis)alignment between teachers' espoused and enacted AfL practices needs to be addressed because in their seminal Theory-of-Action, Argyris and Schon (1974) argued that the effectiveness of human actions resulted from congruence between the espoused theory (what they say) and their theory-in-use (what they do). In the case of teachers, their enacted practices provide an indication of their theory-in-use, i.e., the tacit knowledge that drives their actions (Smith, 2001). By uncovering teachers' enacted practices, the implicit theories will be made explicit (Marland, 1995). This would make teachers to be more aware of the theoretical underpinning

of their actions and provide the foundations for continuous improvement (Dixon et al., 2011; Schön, 1983). As such, studies that examine what teachers say or believe (espouse) about assessment runs the risk of revealing only 'half the story' because it cannot be assumed that what teachers espouse is what they are practicing in their classrooms (Kane et al., 2002; Willis, 1993). As such research that uses self-report questionnaires to elicit teachers' espoused practices or beliefs should be confirmed with classroom observations (Brown et al., 2015; Lucero-Mareydt et al., 2013). It is, therefore, crucial to investigate both teachers' espoused and enacted practices.

School-based Assessment in Malaysia

In recent years, efforts have been made to move away from over-dependence on these summative high-stakes public examinations toward a formative school-based assessment. For example, Malaysia had introduced a school-based assessment initiative known as *Pentaksiran Berasaskan Sekolah* (School-based Assessment, hereafter referred to as SBA) which was implemented in stages, beginning with Year 1 in 2011 and Year 7, the first year of secondary school, from 2012. The SBA is a systematic assessment procedure conducted by subject teachers during the teaching and learning process following guidelines from the Malaysian Examination Syndicate (*Lembaga Peperiksaan Malaysia*, in Malay) in line with the National Education Assessment System (NEAS). The main objectives of the NEAS are to formulate and strategize on how to reduce the focus on public examinations, to improve students' learning, to create holistic assessment, to develop better human capital, and to strengthen school-based assessment (Lembaga Peperiksaan Malaysia, 2011).

This school-based assessment initiative aims to give more autonomy for teachers to design forms of assessment tailored for their particular teaching-learning needs; to use feedback from assessment to diagnose learning problems; to recalibrate teaching strategies; and to report the outcomes of assessment to other stakeholders (Kamal & Rahman, 2006; Md-Ali et al., 2015). The empowerment accorded to teachers in this school-based assessment system poses a number of challenges (Norzila, 2013). In Malaysia, there were strong murmurs among the rank and file teachers about the difficulties of implementing school-based assessment. Many teachers struggled with the administrative requirements imposed by the Ministry of Education, but other issues raised were actually quite commonly experienced by teachers in general. Some major obstacles include class size, curriculum requirements, lack of resources in developing the formative assessment process, as well as the possible tensions between school-based formative assessments and high visibility summative examinations (Brown et al., 2009; OECD, 2005). In the first four years of its implementation little is yet known about what actually takes place in the classrooms with regards to SBA. A key issue in the Malaysian context is whether these assessment practices under SBA are consistent with AfL practices.

Purpose of Research

The purpose of the research was to test the hypotheses that there is a relationship between Malaysian teachers' espoused and enacted AfL practices. This paper examines the espoused AfL practices and the levels of enacted AfL practices of Malaysian Year 7 teachers and intends to answer the following research questions: (1) To what extent are the espoused AfL practices of teachers aligned/consistent with enacted AfL practices? (2) What are the levels of the enacted AfL practices of these teachers? (3) Is there a significant relationship between teachers' espoused AfL practices and the levels of enacted AfL practices in terms of (a) Sharing Learning Targets, (b) Engineering Good Classroom Discussions, (c) Descriptive Feedback and (d) Peer Assessment?

METHODOLOGY

This paper reports part of a larger on-going national-scale research investigation known as 'Inquiry into Malaysian Classroom Educational Practices' or IMCEP. It was undertaken to describe a bird's eye view of classroom educational practices in Malaysia (Tee et al., 2016). A survey and video research design were employed in this study where data was collected from a sample and results of the analysis were generalized to the population. The population of this study was Year 7 teachers of Mathematics, Science, English Language, and Malay Language in Malaysia. These are the core subjects taught in the Malaysian educational system. There were two key reasons why Year 7 was chosen. Firstly, Year 7 was the transition year from primary to secondary school – allowing researchers the insights into students' classroom experience just after completing primary school and at the beginning of secondary school. Year 7 would set the tone for these students as they progress towards following years in secondary school. Secondly, at the point of data collection in 2014, these teachers would have had a minimum of two years of experience in implementing SBA and thus would have assumed some measure of stability in their classroom assessment practices. The sampling of these teachers began with a computer-aided random sampling of approximately 2000 public secondary schools in Malaysia which enrol about 88% of the Malaysian secondary school student population (MOE, 2012). From this list of randomly sampled schools, the researchers requested permission from the necessary local authorities and the voluntary participation teachers in the respective schools. In total, 153 teachers from the 24 schools participated in this study. However, only 121 teachers had the complete set of data comprising the survey and video recordings of three lessons. On the average there were about 30 teachers for each subject. The data from these teachers was analysed and is reported in this paper.

Survey and Video Data

To elicit teachers' espoused AfL practices, Question 28 – with 10 sub items – from the IMCEP questionnaire was used. The researchers refer to Question 28 as *Inquiry into Malaysian Classroom Educational*

Practices-Assessment for Learning or IMCEP-AfL. The questions in IMCEP-AfL were to gain an insight into teachers' espoused AfL practices. Teachers responded to each sub item using a four-point Likert scale from 1= "strongly disagree" to 4= "strongly agree".

For construct validity, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the 10 items from IMCEP-AfL. In this analysis, principal component extraction was used to obtain the factor structure of the items. Using the principal component analysis and variamax rotation produced four factors with eigen values greater than one. Items with loadings greater than 0.5 were retained in the four factors. The four factors contributed 51% of the variance in the respondents'

score. The factor pattern showed that (a) Factor 1 was measured by items 28a and 28c and was labelled Sharing Learning Targets; (b) Factor 2 was measured by items 28e, 28j and 28k and was called Engineering Good Classroom Discussions; (c) Factor 3 was represented by items 28h and 28p and was named Descriptive Feedback; and (d) Factor 4 was represented by items 28f, 28g and 28n and was labelled Peer Assessment.

The reliabilities of these items were calculated using the Cronbach's alpha value. Table 1 displays the constructs, number of items and the Cronbach alpha coefficients. The internal reliability values were in the range of 0.52 to 0.63 showing sufficient internal consistency for IMCEP-AfL.

Table 1

Dimensions of constructs of IMCEP-AfL with sample items

Construct	Item number	Cronbach alpha reliabilities	Sample items
Sharing Learning Targets	2	0.53	28a. I let my students know what they will be learning (assessed) for the day.
Engineering Good Classroom Discussions	3	0.63	28e. I ask questions to my students to gain information about their understanding.
Descriptive Feedback	2	0.52	28h. I usually do not tell my students the right answers.
Peer Assessment	3	0.52	28g. I provide opportunities in my class for my students to know what their peers are thinking or their understanding of a topic.

Video data was collected to gain an insight into teachers' enacted AfL practices. For each teacher, three lessons were video recorded over the span of a week. Each lesson

lasted one to three periods (approximately 40-120 min). Two video cameras (one stationary, placed in front of the classroom, and the other primarily followed the teacher)

and one audio recorder (attached to the teacher) were utilized to record each lesson. There were usually two research assistants present during the recordings.

Data Analysis Procedure

The teachers' espoused AfL practices were measured from the responses to the items in ICMEP-AfL. Using descriptive quantitative analysis, percentages of teachers' responses to the statements were computed. The teachers' enacted AfL practices were measured from the video recordings which were then analysed using *a priori* coding framework called Malaysian Teachers' Assessment Practices Instrument (or MTAPI) which was developed for the IMCEP study. The analysis of the video data using MTAPI was focused on how the observed practice most resembled established good practices, as defined by

AfL literature (Black & Wiliam, 2006, 2009; Wiliam, 2006, 2010; Wiliam & Thompson, 2007). The dimensions in MTAPI included (i) Sharing learning target (ii) Engineering good classroom discussions, (iii) Descriptive feedback, and (iv) Peer assessment. The levels of each teacher's practice were coded as 'Unsatisfactory', 'Basic', 'Proficient', and 'Distinguished'. For example, a teacher who did not write or say the learning outcomes for the lesson will be coded as 'Unsatisfactory' for Sharing Learning Targets dimension, which has the descriptor: *The teacher does not convey or makes no effort to convey the learning targets to students.* Table 2 shows the Sharing Learning Targets dimension, the descriptors and examples of teachers' practices. The assessment practices were coded by two coders by mutual consent. For details of how this process was developed, please refer to Tee et al. (2016).

Table 2

Example of MTAPI for the dimension Sharing Learning Targets

	Dimension	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
A.	**Sharing Learning Targets**	The teacher **does not convey** or **makes no effort** to convey the **learning targets** to students.	The teacher **conveys** the **learning targets** in: ▪ Monologue fashion or purely procedural manner ▪ Limited participation by students	The teacher **conveys and explains** the **learning targets** in: ▪ Student-friendly language ▪ With participation of students ▪ Encouraging ways	The teacher **conveys and explains** the **learning targets** in: ▪ Students-friendly language ▪ This is shared with all students. ▪ Encouraging ways ▪ Students and teachers establish individualized learning goals

Table 2 *(Continued)*

Examples			
(a) Teacher does not write/say/explain the learning objectives/ outcomes to the class	(a) Teacher writes/says the learning objectives/ outcomes to the class but does not explain the learning objective/ outcomes to the class.	(a) Teacher writes/says and explains the learning objectives and outcomes to the class in a friendly manner	(a) Teacher discuss and set the learning goals/outcomes with all students in a friendly manner (comes with examples)
(a) Teacher does not explain what are the elements (b) that will be assessed	(a) Teacher does not explain what are the elements that will be assessed	(a) Teacher encourages students and plan strategies to help students to achieve learning objectives/outcomes	(a) Teacher encourages students and plan strategies to help students to achieve learning objectives/outcomes
		(a) Teacher sets the learning objectives/ outcomes that matches all students' learning abilities	(a) Teacher asks students to define/set their own learning targets
		(a) Teacher discusses with students in determining the elements to be assessed based on the learning targets globally	(a) Teacher asks students to determine the elements to be assessed.

Validity and reliability procedures for video data coding were carried out at multiple levels. Firstly, training was carried out so that coders could "get on the same page" in the way MTAPI was utilized. Secondly, a paired-coding system was installed. Two coders would watch the same video, and then coded the video by consent. Thirdly, a quantitative post hoc approach was used to measure reliability score. The coding by experts and the coders were found to be significantly correlated at p <0.0001, based on the Single Measures Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (0.631).

FINDINGS

This section presents the findings, based on the analysis, in order to answer the three research questions. For the first research question, the results of the descriptive analysis of the espoused AfL practices of teachers are shown in Table 3.

The findings tabulated in Table 3 show that more than 80% of the sample at least agreed to the statements for the dimensions of Sharing Learning Targets, Engineering Good Classroom Discussions, and Peer Assessment. For example, for the dimension of Sharing Learning Target 23.1% and 66.1% strongly agreed and agreed, respectively, that they would let their students know what they (the students) would be learning for that lesson. Another example would be for the dimension of Engineering Good Classroom Discussions, where 22.3% and 71.1% of the teachers strongly agreed and agreed, respectively, that they held discussions to elicit useful information on their student learning. Whereas, less than 10% at least agreed to the statements for the dimension

Table 3
Descriptive analysis of the espoused AfL practices of teachers

Criteria	Item (IMCEP-AfL)	Espoused											
		Strongly Agree			Agree			Disagree			Strongly Disagree		
		F	(%)	95% CI	F	(%)	95% CI	F	(%)	95% CI	F	(%)	95% CI
Sharing Learning Targets	28a. I let my students know what they will be learning (assessed) for the day.	28	23.1	[15.6,30.6]	80	66.1	[57.7, 74.5]	10	8.3	[3.4, 13.2]	3	2.5	[0.0, 5.3]
	28c. I show examples and explain to my students what standard they should be aiming for in order to reach their learning goals.	28	23.1	[15.6,30.6]	89	73.6	[65.8, 81.5]	4	3.3	[0.1, 6.5]	0	0.0	[0.0, 0.0]
Engineering Good Classroom Discussions	28e. I ask questions to my students to gain information about their understanding.	43	35.5	[27.0, 44.0]	74	61.2	[52.5 ,69.9]	3	2.5	[0.0, 5.3]	1	0.8	[0.0, 2.4]
	28j. I hold discussions in my lessons because it is an important source of evidence of student learning.	27	22.3	[14.9, 29.7]	86	71.1	[63.0 ,79.2]	8	6.6	[2.2,11.0]	0	0.0	[0.0, 0.0]
	28k. Even if my students have given me the right answer, I will still ask them to explain their answers.	22	18.2	[11.3,25.1]	91	75.2	[67.5, 82.9]	8	6.6	[2.2,11.0]	0	0.0	[0.0, 0.0]
Descriptive Feedback	28h. I usually do not tell my students the right answers.	2	1.7	[0.0,4.0]	7	5.8	[1.6, 10.0]	72	59.5	[50.8, 68.3]	40	33.1	[24.7, 41.5]
	28p. I don't feel at ease when I have to constantly provide grades for my students' learning.	0	0.0	[0.0, 0.0]	9	7.4	[2.7, 12.1]	89	73.6	[65.8, 81.5]	23	19.0	[12.0, 26.0]
Peer Assessment	28f. I think my students are capable of assessing their friends.	10	8.3	[3.4, 13.2]	74	61.2	[52.5 ,69.9]	36	29.8	[21.7,38.0]	1	0.8	[0.0,2.4]
	28g. I provide opportunities in my class for my students to know what their peers are thinking or their understanding of a topic.	17	14.0	[7.8, 20.2]	77	63.6	[55.0, 72.2]	25	20.7	[13.5, 27.9]	2	1.7	[0.0, 4.0]
	28n. I think it is right for students to comment about the quality of their peers' work.	12	9.9	[4.6, 15.2]	55	45.5	[36.6, 54.4]	48	39.7	[31.0, 48.4]	6	5.0	[1.1, 8.9]

of Descriptive Feedback. For instance, only 1.7% and 5.8% of the teachers strongly agreed and agreed, respectively, that they should not tell their students the right answers and it can be interpreted that a majority of these teachers felt that they should let their students know the right answers. Therefore, the results show that the teachers' espoused practices are aligned with three out of four dimensions of AfL practices.

For the second research question, the results of the descriptive analysis of the enacted AfL practices of teachers are shown in Table 4.

Referring to Table 4, the results suggest that more than 90% of the participating teachers' AfL practices for all the four AfL dimensions were not at the 'Distinguished' or 'Proficient' level. For example, for the dimension of Sharing Learning Targets, 81.8 % and 18.2% of the teachers were categorized as 'Unsatisfactory' and 'Basic', respectively. For the dimension of Engineering Good Classroom Discussions, 75.2% and 24.0 % of the teachers were at the 'Unsatisfactory' and 'Basic' level, respectively. For the dimension of Descriptive Feedback, 55.4% and 41.3% of the teachers were labelled as 'Unsatisfactory' and 'Basic' level. Similarly, for the dimension of Peer Assessment 92.6% and 7.4% of the teachers were found to be at the 'Unsatisfactory' and 'Basic' level. Therefore, the results show that the teachers' enacted AfL practices were predominantly at the lowest level for three dimensions, namely Sharing Learning Targets, Engineering Good Classroom Discussions, and Peer Assessment.

Table 4

Descriptive analysis of the enacted AfL practices of teachers

Criteria	Enacted											
	Distinguished			Proficient			Basic			Unsatisfactory		
	F	(%)	95% CI	F	(%)	95% CI	F	(%)	95% CI	F	(%)	95% CI
Sharing Learning Targets	0	0.0	[0.0,0.0]	0	0.0	[0.0, 0.0]	22	18.2	[11.3, 25.1]	99	81.8	[74.9, 88.7]
Engineering Good Classroom Discussions	0	0.0	[0.0,0.0]	1	0.8	[0.0,2.4]	29	24.0	[16.4, 31.6]	91	75.2	[67.5, 82.9]
Descriptive Feedback	0	0.0	[0.0,0.0]	4	3.3	[0.1, 6.5]	50	41.3	[32.5, 50.1]	67	55.4	[46.5, 64.3]
Peer Assessment	0	0.0	[0.0,0.0]	0	0.0	[0.0, 0.0]	9	7.4	[2.7, 12.1]	112	92.6	[87.9, 97.3]

To answer the third research question, the results are presented in Table 5.

Referring to Table 5, at 5% significant level, the result of the Spearman Correlation Coefficient test showed that there is statistically significant correlation between the espoused and the enacted AfL practices by teachers, r (121) = 0.188, p = 0.039 for the dimension of Engineering Good Classroom Discussions. This correlation has a small positive effect size (Cohen, 1988). Thus, it can be concluded that there is a relationship between espoused practices by the teachers and their enacted practices in terms of Engineering Good

Classroom Discussions. However, for the other dimensions of AfL, there are no statistically significant correlations between teachers espoused and enacted AfL practices in terms of Sharing Learning Targets, r (121) = -0.003, p = 0.976, Descriptive Feedback , r (121) = 0.106, p = 0.248 and Peer Assessment, r (121) = 0.172, p = 0 .059. Therefore, there is not enough evidence from the data to conclude that there is a relationship between teachers' espoused and enacted AfL practices in terms of Sharing Learning Targets, Descriptive Feedback, and Peer Assessment.

Table 5

Relationship between espoused and enacted AfL practices

	Espoused Sharing Learning Targets	Espoused Engineering Good Classroom Discussions	Espoused Descriptive Feedback	Espoused Peer Assessment
Enacted Sharing Learning Targets	-0.003	-	-	-
Enacted Engineering Good Classroom Discussions	-	0.188*	-	-
Enacted Descriptive Feedback	-	-	0.106	-
Enacted Peer Assessment	-	-	-	0.172

Note. N=121; Spearman Rho correlations are significant at *$p \leq 0.05$

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The research began by hypothesizing that there is a relationship between Malaysian teachers' espoused and enacted AfL practices. The findings of the study, however, showed that the hypothesis is not true for Malaysian teachers for three out of the four AfL dimensions, namely, Sharing Learning Targets, Descriptive Feedback, and Peer Assessment. Although the espoused-enacted relationship in the Engineering Good Classroom Discussions dimension was statistically significant, the effect size was small. In essence, teachers' espoused AfL practices are not related to their enacted practices in all four dimensions. Alignment and coherence between teachers' espoused and enacted are significant because it can have a positive influence on the quality of student learning outcomes (Sandvoll, 2014).

There could be various explanations for the misalignment of the espoused-enacted practices. Firstly, any reform in assessment has the potential to destabilize teachers' espoused-enacted practices (Dixon & Haigh, 2009; Richardson, et al., 1991). Since it was still early in the reform process (in the third year of implementation), the findings of this study seem to suggest that teachers were able to espouse practices that were consistent with AfL strategies, but these were not aligned to their enacted practices. For instance, for the dimension Sharing Learning Targets, teachers espoused that they would let their students know what they will be learning (assessed) for the day. These teachers also espoused that they would show examples and explain to their students what standards they (the students) should be aiming for in order to reach their learning goals. However, video data showed that teachers often proceeded with the lesson without discussing the learning outcomes with the students. In other words, the teachers were able to espouse practices that are aligned with AfL principles but were unable to enact them (DeLuca et al., 2012; Marshall & Drummond, 2006). As teachers are familiarizing themselves with SBA, it may be easier for the teachers to espouse their practices but may require more time to be fully comfortable with their actual AfL practices or develop sufficient skills to put the new knowledge into practice. This is consistent with other studies that have also found that although teachers appear to be committed to AfL concepts and strategies, they still struggle to enact the practices as they try to put their AfL knowledge into practice (Dixon et al., 2011; Irving et al., 2011; Klenowski, 2009; Marshall & Drummond, 2006; Willis, 2011).

Secondly, while teachers may espouse what they believe, they may not however have the knowledge and competency to enact these practices. In this study, teachers' enacted practices for the Dimension Peer Assessment was the highest in the 'Unsatisfactory' level with a value of 92.6%. The video data showed teachers do not encourage students to share and discuss their work or even evaluate their peers' work. The implementation of peer assessment in the classroom is a complex challenge because teachers are reluctant to relinquish complete control over the feedback and assessment process (Kember, 2009;

Nicol et al., 2014). It is also possible that teachers may enact traditional assessment practices, despite their beliefs that AfL is a good assessment system, as they perceive these are easier to implement as suggested by Giddens's structuration theory (Giddens, 1984). To them, the assessment practices prior to the implementation of the SBA demand less disruptions and friction with real-life factors such as resources, curricula, student readiness and/or time.

As the findings indicate that there is lack of alignment between teachers' espoused and enacted practices, the challenge lies in how we can change teachers' enactments: How can we change teachers' practices so that they are reflective of AfL principles? Literature suggests that one cannot assume espoused practices are indicative of teachers' beliefs. Teachers' beliefs are often more difficult to change. Thus, in introducing any reforms due care must be taken to ensure teachers' belief systems are addressed. Hunzicker (2004) suggested that "the change process involves a slow progression through stages that lead to eventual readiness for change". While educational innovations in Malaysia are generally top-down driven as it is a highly centralized system, venues must be explored to involve teachers more directly in the change process. As far as AfL is concerned, the teachers need to be inducted into the process of Sharing Learning Targets, Engineering Good Classroom Discussions, Descriptive Feedback, and Peer Assessment. As Argyris and Schon (1974) argued, the effectiveness of teachers' practices resulted from congruency between their espoused and enacted practices i.e. between what they said and what they did. The way forward may thus involve bringing both - the espoused and the enacted-practices to light, in order to help teachers to become more aware of the theoretical underpinnings of their practices and provide the foundations for continuous improvement.

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SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES

Undergraduate Law Students' Perceptions of Oral Presentations as a Form of Assessment

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ABSTRACT

Oral presentations are considered to be effective teaching tools because they add variety to the process of teaching and learning in the classroom. Through these presentations, students are given the opportunity to learn from one another instead of always learning from the lecturer. There is no doubt that communication skills are core skills needed by those in the legal profession. Despite this, the use of oral presentations as a form of assessment is yet to become an integral part of courses in legal studies. This study examines students' perceptions of oral presentations as a form of assessment in their undergraduate law program with the sole purpose of identifying the benefits obtained, the challenges faced and the relationship between these as well as gender and year of study with students' attitude towards oral presentations as a form of assessment. The data for the study was collected by conducting a survey using Likert scale among students pursuing an undergraduate law program. The findings add to the literature on the teaching and learning of legal studies and advances further use of oral presentations as a form of assessment. This is because the researchers are of the opinion that a combination of a summative written exam and assessed oral presentations will create an authentic learning context where the skills developed will enhance students' development of a professional identity in the legal arena.

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INTRODUCTION

The hallmark of the law profession is the ability and disposition to engage problems,

make arguments, evaluate options, and render opinions using skillful reasoning. According to Cantley-Smith (2006), communication skills are the most important tools of a competent, professional lawyer and well developed oral communication skills are required in the adversarial environment of litigation lawyers and in almost all other aspects of legal professional practice. He went on to add that the ability to converse on complex legal and related issues with fluency, accuracy and effectiveness is not only desirable, but virtually mandatory to a successful professional life as a lawyer. In line with this, Greig (2000) argued that we should not only focus on 'what lawyers need to know' but also incorporated a wider range of objectives including the need to promote and develop students' social and interpersonal skills. This parallels with the views of Christensen and Kift (2000) who identified communication as an important graduate attribute to ensure graduates were able to communicate both orally and in writing using the appropriate language in a clear, appropriate manner in a variety of contexts. The authors went on to advocate that the law curriculum should integrate generic and specific skills training with the existing drive towards traditional knowledge acquisition. Despite this, there are counter arguments from some scholars comprising of teachers and legal professional members who claim that these skills need not be taught as these skills are acquired in contexts outside the university. Christensen and Kift (2000) countered these arguments by asserting they were at odds with the attitude

of the wider university community and employer groups which had called for the necessity to integrate oral presentations into the teaching and learning of law studies. For the purpose of this paper, oral presentations are limited to academic presentations where students are required to conduct research on topics that are selected by the students and approved/assigned by the teacher/lecturer. The objectives of the oral presentations are to either inform or persuade the class on specific issues which will then be followed with a Q & A session and end with the teacher/lecturer's feedback.

Despite the importance of oral communication skills to the legal profession, many undergraduate law students around the world complete their entire tertiary education without being provided opportunities to orally discuss or present their knowledge and understanding of the law. Further, they are also not tested on these skills through formal oral assessment tasks. Cantley-Smith (2006) considered this outcome as shocking because a successful career in professional legal practice depended solely on the ability of the lawyers to defend their clients' claims/ positions effectively in the court room. This is also in line with the Vignaendra Report (Vignaendra & Centre for Legal Education [CLE], 1998) which listed communication skills amongst the most frequently used skills of law graduates in any type of law related employment. This report was initiated by the Center for Legal Education to survey the career destinations of two cohorts of Australian law graduates who had finished an undergraduate law degree.

Further, according to DeJarnatt (2001), collaborative and collective work is crucial in defining issues, creating documents, negotiating and resolving legal disputes where lawyers are required to discuss their writing with their target audience as well as with their colleagues. He concluded by stating that many thoughtful people in several fields have explored the relationship between speech and writing - what it is and how it affects learning and teaching - but there has been surprisingly little discussion of these issues in the context of law school teaching.

Since there is a lot of concern in reference to the use of oral presentations as a form of assessment, this paper aims to study the effectiveness of oral presentations as an assessment tool in an undergraduate law program from the students' perspectives. It further elicits information on the benefits obtained and challenges faced by students when oral presentations are used as part of the overall assessment of their academic performance. It also focuses on the factors that affect the students' attitude towards this form of assessment.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Joughin (2010), 'oral assessment' includes any assessment of student learning that is conducted, wholly or in part, by word of mouth. He went on to add that it dominated assessment up until at least the 18th century at Oxford and Cambridge and continues to be a principal mode of assessment in many European countries while in the UK and Australia, it

is ubiquitous. Oral communication skills are indisputably a key component of effective lawyering. Yet, in most doctrinal courses, law students are seldom assessed on their ability to integrate issue spotting and legal analysis into an oral communication format. Shultz and Zedeck (2011) identified twenty-six factors important to effective lawyering which included factors such as "analysis and reasoning; creativity and innovation; problem solving; practical judgment; researching the law; fact finding, questioning and interviewing; influencing and advocating; writing; speaking; listening; negotiation skills; the ability to see the world through the eyes of others; diligence; and self-development". In regards to these skills, it has been advocated that the role of teaching essential skills such as oral communication skills in higher education is to prepare students to be more effective employees and responsible citizens. As stated, the findings of the Vignaendra Report, (Vignaendra & CLE, 1998) listed communication skills amongst the most frequently used skills of law graduates in any type of law related employment. This is supported by Morley (2001) who claimed that oral presentation skills were essential for employability. The necessity to include communication skills in tertiary education has been repeated in numerous other reports. Tuan and Neomy (2007), for example had also confirmed that it was a requirement in higher education for students to be equipped with advance written and oral skills. Further, according to Fallows and Steven (2000), today's challenging economic situation

requires new graduates to not only have knowledge of an academic subject but also gain skills which will enhance their prospects of employment. They went on to say employability skills include the following abilities: 'the retrieval and handling of information; communication and presentation; planning and problem solving; and social development and interaction, creative thinking, problem solving, critical thinking, active and reflective application of knowledge.

It must be noted at this point that there is a fine line dividing oral communication and oral presentations. Oral communication refers to all forms of communications, inclusive one to one as well as to a larger audience. It can occur in formal and informal situations. However, oral presentations take place in a formal situation which is planned and has specific presentation tools such as power point slides for it is done with more than one person. Further, there is specific purpose to the presentations unlike oral communication which can take place impromptu. In the context of teaching and learning in academic institutions, it has been argued that the Socratic dialogue common in most first year courses challenges students to think on their feet, but the method does not teach students how to describe their research path, explain the analysis of a client's legal issue, or make a recommendation on a course of action using the spoken word on an individual basis. This is because the Socratic dialogue is a formal method by which a small group (5-15 people), guided by a facilitator, finds a precise answer to

a universal question by involving group decision-making by consensus (Marinoff, 2009). As a result, lack of adequate oral skills has become an area of concern, as the ability to participate constructively in conversations about the law is an essential skill for students to acquire during law school. However, the importance of good oral communication skills is often overlooked although a survey of new attorneys rated these skills as more important than writing skills (Korn, 2004). Without an effective way to communicate orally, law students' knowledge of the law and their critical thinking can get lost in boring, repetitive and rambling presentations of legal materials.

Having understood the necessity for including oral presentations in legal studies, the subsequent question that is much debated would be on the issues related to assessing oral presentations. Black and Williams (1998) defined assessment to include all activities that students undertook in the classroom that could be used to modify students' learning. According to Pearce and Lee (2009), the skills that are usually evaluated in oral presentations are knowledge of the subject, confidence, conciseness of the responses, quality of responses, thinking on the spot, communication skills, application of theory to practice, ability to handle questions, body language, professional mannerism and clarity of responses. According to Curcio (2009), the current methods of assessing potential lawyers involve testing of a very narrow range of skills and assessing those skills within an equally narrow range of test

methodologies. These assessment methods have repeatedly been critiqued as inadequate and inaccurate ways to develop and assess the skills and values that new lawyers need to practice law competently. UK's Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education [QAA] (2012) connoted the preference for using more than one assessment method unless there was a compelling reason to only use one. Henry (2012) examined the changing nature of assessments in UK universities and identified that more and more universities were using non-traditional assessment methods in preference to written exams.

Despite the necessity for developing oral presentation skills via activities incorporating oral assessments in courses, oral examination itself has been criticized by many authors for lack of reliability. According to Joughin (2010), reliability is concerned with how dependent a student's result could be on the case or scenario given to the student for examination, the level of difficulty of the follow up questions that are asked to the student after presentation, who examines them and whether an examiner's assessment could change over a period of time in examining a large number of students. He went on to add that the examiners in an oral examination participated actively in the examination process and their participation could introduce a bias. This is also confirmed by Davis and Karunathilake (2005), who claimed that an examiner might have bias towards students' appearance, ethnicity or background. Another criticism is that oral examination can also be threatening

to candidates with potentially poor performance due to the stress involved in oral assessments. In addition to these criticisms, past literature has also raised numerous concerns related to the use of oral presentations as a form of assessment. Researchers such as Alwi and Sidhu (2013), Chuang (2009), and El Enein (2011) had identified a number of difficulties faced by students in oral presentations such as anxiety or fear of speaking. Further, a number of studies have also identified the reasons for students' poor performance in oral presentations. Turner et al. (2012) as well as Akindele and Trennepohl (2014) classified these reasons into three categories:

- Personal traits – e.g. shyness, fear of facing an audience, self-confidence and physical appearance.
- Instruction – e.g. negative evaluations, hard questions, humiliating feedback, etc.
- Lack of presentation skills – e.g. researching, planning, organizing, practicing and presenting.

METHODOLOGY

In essence, this research was done using a quantitative research method. It is clearly advocated that this kind of research involves the investigation of some problem or question which is 'social' in nature involving techniques of data collection that are similar to those used in social science researches. The main objective of this research is to identify the effectiveness of oral presentations as a form of assessment in an undergraduate law program from the

students' perspectives. In line with this, four research questions were designed and they are as follows:

1. How do undergraduate law students perceive oral presentations as a form of assessment in their program?
2. What are the benefits reaped by undergraduate law students from oral presentations?
3. What are the challenges faced by undergraduate law students in oral presentations?
4. What are the skills enhanced by the use of oral presentations as perceived by undergraduate law students?

In order to answer these research questions, a quantitative research is deemed as most effective. According to Creswell (2018), a quantitative research method deals with statistical, mathematical or numerical data where data is collected through primary research from a large sample size and analyzed using statistical software. Accordingly, the researchers collected the data using a survey questionnaire. A non-probability purposive sampling method was adopted. The sample chosen was undergraduate law students pursuing a law degree in a public university in Malaysia. The questionnaire was distributed to 200 undergraduate students in Year 1 to Year 4 and 178 usable questionnaires were analyzed using SPSS. The questionnaire was divided into six parts which are Section A to Section F comprising of demographic details, students' past experience with oral presentations, students' perception of oral presentations as a form of assessment, benefits of oral presentations, challenges faced in oral presentations and students' attitude towards oral presentations. The questionnaire was designed using the Likert-type scale. According to La Marca (2011), Likert–type scale is a scale that can be easily read and understood by the respondents and it also enables the researchers to easily construct and manage the data. A pilot test of the survey questionnaire was conducted on 30 respondents to identify flaws in the questionnaire. According to Crossman (2017), a pilot study is a research activity that is conducted on a limited scale that allows researchers to get a clearer idea of what they want to know and how they can best find it out without the expense and
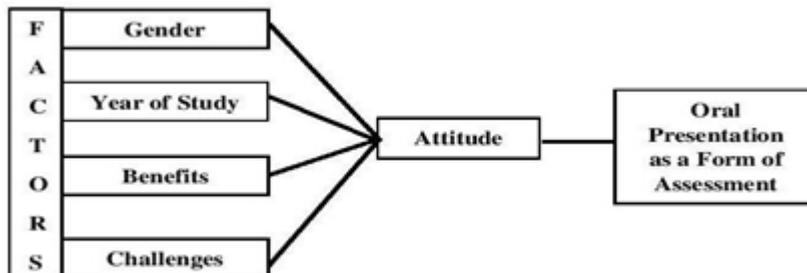
Figure 1. Conceptual framework of study

effort of a full-fledged study. It also enablesd researchers to identify and rectify any flaws in the questionnaire. The researchers used the conceptual framework as shown in Figure 1 to understand undergraduate law students' perceptions of oral presentations as a form of assessment.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section will discuss the findings of the survey conducted among undergraduate law students to identify their perceptions of oral presentations as a form of assessment in a law program. Prior to the discussion of the findings, a brief description of the demographics related to the sample used in the study is given. The sample comprised both male and female students.

The demographics of the respondents are shown in Table 1.

The findings indicate that a total of 21.3% (n = 38) of the respondents were males and 78.7% (n = 140) were females. For the purpose of this survey, the age of the respondents was not taken into consideration as part of the demography as law programs do not impose any restriction on age for entry requirement.

Table 2 shows the distribution of the respondents according to the year of study. The reason for identifying the year of study is to investigate whether there are any differences in the perception of students on oral presentations as a form of assessment in the different years of study with the continuous exposure to oral presentations in their courses.

Table 1

Gender distribution of respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	38	21.3
Female	140	78.7
Total	178	100.0

Table 2

Distrubution of respondents' year of study

Year	Frequency	Percentage (%)
First Year	53	29.8
Second Year	67	37.6
Third Year	42	23.6
Fourth Year	16	9.0
Total	178	100.0

Before proceeding to elucidate responses from the respondents on their perception of oral presentations as a form of assessment, the researchers sought some background information from the respondents on their exposure to oral presentations as a form of assessment in the courses taught in their law program. Table 3 depicts the findings.

As indicated in Table 3, eight statements were given to the respondents where they had to indicate their agreement or disagreement. High positive responses were noted for four of the statements with 98.3% agreeing that oral presentations were used as a form of assessment in their program, 87.6% agreeing that this type of assessment is beneficial to them, 78.7% agreeing that oral presentations are effective for assessing their academic progress and 77.5% stating that oral presentation assessments should be made compulsory in all law courses. Although a high percentage of the respondents agreed that oral presentations are utilized in their program, less than 50% agreed that it is adopted in all their courses. This finding is contradictory to the common belief that oral presentations are a common part of many courses at colleges and universities as they are one of the ways to improve learning of course material. An interesting finding noted from the survey is that the respondents did not discriminate between individual and group oral presentations. The respondents also did not show a higher preference for oral (45.5%) over written (54.5%) assessments. Since the difference is only 9%, there is no evidence that written assessments are better than oral presentation assessments or vice versa. A majority of the respondents (88.8%) indicated that oral assessments contribute to less than 50% towards the overall marks of each course.

Having obtained information on respondents' past experience of oral presentations as a form of assessment, the

Table 3

Students' past experiences of oral presentations

Experience	Yes	No
Oral presentations form a part of assessment in the program.	98.3	1.7
Oral presentations are a part of assessment in all your courses.	49.4	50.6
Oral presentations contribute more than 50% to the total assessment.	11.2	88.8
Oral presentations should be compulsory assessments in law courses.	77.5	22.5
Oral presentations are effective forms of assessments.	78.7	21.3
Having oral presentation assessments are beneficial to students.	87.6	12.4
Oral presentation assessments are better than written assessments.	45.5	54.5
Group oral presentations are better than individual oral presentations.	55.6	44.4

researchers went on to elicit information on their attitude towards this form of assessment. Table 4 shows the findings of this.

The findings indicate moderately high positive responses for only two of the statements given; 66.9% agreed that use of oral presentations as a form of assessment enhanced their ability to remember better and 63.5% agreed that they appreciated oral presentations more when they had autonomy over the selection of topic. On the other hand, only 59.5 % agreed that individual oral presentations were suitable for law students. Further, an average of 51.1% agreed that they enjoyed participating in oral presentations while 11.3% disagreed. Similarly, an average percentage of 50.5%

respondents agreed that they found it easier to learn through oral presentations while 21.9% disagreed. 50% of the respondents also claimed that they did better quality research when oral presentations were used. It was unanticipated that a large percentage of respondents chose a neutral stand to the statement of enjoying the subject more when oral presentations were used. To understand this further, 10% of the respondents randomly chosen were questioned individually as to why some students would chose this stand. The majority responded that they were bogged with too many assignments, tests as well as oral presentation tasks which resulted in them not being able to truly distinguish their level of enjoyment towards the different

Table 4

Undergraduate law students' attitude towards oral presentation

Attitude	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)
Enjoy participating in oral presentations	11.3	37.6	51.1
Have more interest in the subject when oral presentations are given.	23.0	37.6	39.3
Find it easier to learn through oral presentations.	21.9	27.5	50.5
Do better quality research when oral presentations are involved.	20.8	29.2	50.0
Tend to remember more when oral presentations are used.	12.9	20.2	66.9
Prefer individual more than group oral presentations.	27.5	33.1	39.3
Enjoy the subject more when there are oral presentations involved.	21.9	46.1	32.0
Like oral presentations because can make more friends.	39.3	38.8	21.9
Think individual oral presentations are very suitable for law students.	14.6	25.8	59.5
Like oral presentations more when options are given for choosing topic.	11.2	25.3	63.5

types of assessments. This view is shared by the researchers who have gone through a similar program earlier. Table 5 shows the findings of the law students' perceptions on oral presentations as a form of assessment.

The findings of the survey on the respondents' perceptions of oral presentations as a form of assessment revealed high levels of agreement. Out of the 10 positive statements given, respondents agreed to all the statements with very high percentages ranging from 84.2% to 98.9%. The statements given were all worded positively reflecting the positive impact of the use of oral presentations as a form of assessment. These included views that oral presentation assessments are efficient in terms of occupying students' time, reliable as a form of assessment, removes stress, effective in testing students' knowledge and application, effective in testing individual students' knowledge of materials studied, prevents cheating and plagiarism, caters for students' individuality and expression, assess different range of skills and abilities as well as enable students to develop and improve verbal abilities on legal matters. The high percentages of agreement are conclusive of students' overall positive outlook on the use of oral presentations as a form of assessment. One important point to note is that the statements that state oral presentations assess different range of skills and abilities as well oral presentation assessments enable students to develop and improve their verbal abilities had the highest percentage of agreement, 98.8% and 98.9% respectively. Table 6 shows the findings of the benefits of oral presentations to undergraduate law students.

Table 5

Undergraduate law students' perceptions on oral presentation as a form of assessment

Perceptions	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)
Oral presentation assessments are efficient in terms of occupying students' time.	96.6	3.4
Oral presentations are reliable forms of assessment.	96.1	3.9
Oral presentation assessments remove the stress of having to memorize lots of facts and figures.	84.2	15.7
Oral presentation assessments effectively test how well students can use and apply information.	97.2	2.8
Oral presentation assessments assess individual students' abilities adequately.	96.7	3.4
Oral presentation assessments test individual students' knowledge of materials studied during the course effectively.	96.6	3.4
Oral presentation assessments prevent cheating and plagiarism.	87.7	12.4
Oral presentation assessments allow for student's individuality and expression.	97.8	2.2
Oral presentation assessments assess different range of skills and abilities.	98.8	1.1
Oral presentation assessments enable students to develop and improve their verbal abilities on legal matters.	98.9	1.1

Table 6

Benefits of oral presentations to undergraduate law students

Benefits	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)
Oral presentations reduce biases and promotes considering and understanding different perspectives of legal issues.	24.2	37.6	38.2
Oral presentations help students learn to use evidence and data to support their arguments and viewpoints.	9.0	23.0	68.0
Oral presentations help learners realize that issues are not merely black and/or white.	8.4	28.1	63.5
Students learn to be open-minded and accept reasonable criticisms through oral presentations.	5.6	18.5	75.8
Students learn to question everything via oral presentations.	19.7	26.4	53.9
Students learn to take or change position based on evidence in oral presentations.	13.5	33.1	53.4
Oral presentations help students learn to seek precise and credible information.	15.2	24.2	60.7
Oral presentations help students learn to take the entire situation into account.	12.9	28.9	58.4
Students learn to look for options and search for reasons via oral presentations.	12.3	23.0	64.6
Oral presentations improve oral communication and argumentation skills.	6.1	11.2	82.6

In response to the statements on the benefits of oral presentations to students, the respondents agreed to all the statements on a scale ranging from 53.4% to 82.6% with only one statement having below 50% of agreement. The statement that had the lowest percentage of agreement is the one which stated that oral presentations reduce biases and promotes considering and understanding different perspectives of legal issues with 38.2% agreeing, 24.2% disagreeing and 37.6% taking a neutral stand. Since this finding was inconsistent with the rest of the findings which viewed the use of oral presentations as a form assessment as being very beneficial, the researchers elicited further information on this by questioning

a few of the respondents selected randomly through an informal face to face session. The responses given were all almost similar with them claiming there were no significant differences between the various modes of assessment in terms of reducing biases and promoting the need to consider and understand the legal issues from different perspectives. This can also be taken to be the reason for the 37.6% of the respondents choosing the neutral option. The benefits which were agreed by the majority of the respondents (75.8%) were that through oral presentations, students learnt to be open-minded and accepted reasonable criticism and that oral presentations improved oral communication and argumentation skills

(82.6%). These findings are consistent with past literature for example Girard et al. (2011) had asserted that students could gain knowledge not only from the research they and other students performed, but also by observing the other presenters' strengths and weaknesses to develop better communication and presentation skills. Other statements on the benefits which also indicated high positive responses were that oral presentations helped students learnt to use evidence and data to support arguments and viewpoints (68%), they help learners realized that issues were not clear and some could fall under a gray area (63.5%), they helped students learnt to seek precise and credible information (60.7%) and students learn to look for options and search for reasons via oral presentations (64.6%).

Other benefits that were agreed upon are students learn to question everything via oral presentations (53.9%), students learn to take or change position based on evidence given in oral presentations (53.4%) and lastly oral presentations help students learn to take the entire situation into account (58.4%).

Besides asking the respondents as to the benefits obtained through the use of oral presentations as a form of assessment, they were also requested to identify the challenges that they faced in oral presentations. Table 7 shows the findings of this question.

In terms of challenges, the researchers identified a list of challenges that have been highlighted in past researches on the effectiveness of oral presentations. Although these researches were done in other fields such as Sciences, Engineering and other

Table 7

Challenges faced by undergraduate law students in oral presentations

Challenges	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)
Lack of presentation skills causes unnecessary stress and results in poor performance.	10.6	23.6	65.7
Fear of facing the audience and the instructor.	15.1	20.8	64.0
Lack of proper training on oral presentations prior to oral presentation assessments causes lack of motivation and confidence.	12.3	21.9	65.7
When choice of topic for oral presentation is determined by the instructor, students face discomfort and lack of interest.	11.2	35.4	53.4
Lack of time to research adequately on the topics for oral presentations.	10.6	19.7	69.7
Marks awarded does not commensurate effort and time spent for preparation of oral presentations.	13.0	27.5	59.6
Assessor fails to give constructive feedback for future improvement.	30.9	34.8	34.3
Absence of permanent record of oral presentations to assist students in future improvement.	15.1	33.1	51.7
Finding time for meetings for group oral presentations to achieve oral presentation goals.	10.7	20.8	68.6
After oral presentations, groups disbanded without reflecting on their work which defeated proper learning.	15.2	24.7	60.1

Social Science subjects and not in law programs specifically, the researchers are of the opinion that the challenges would also be the same when oral presentations are used as a form of assessment in legal studies. Among the challenges identified and put forth to seek the respondents' perceptions include; unnecessary stress is faced resulting in poor performance, fear in facing the audience, lack of proper training in oral presentation skills, topics chosen by the instructors are not of interest to students, lack of time, marks given do not commensurate effort and time spent on oral presentations, no permanent record to guide future efforts, difficulty in finding time to meet for group oral presentations and lack of reflection after oral presentations. When these challenges were given to the respondents for feedback by way of agreement or disagreement, the respondents agreed that they did face similar challenges except for the challenge that the assessor failed to give constructive feedback with only 34.3% agreeing to it. This low percentage of agreement indicates that the lecturers do give feedback. The importance of feedback is also highlighted by King (2002) who suggested that teachers should hold question and answer session, provide feedback and evaluation of students' performance. The rest of the challenges presented in the survey questionnaires had a percentage of agreement between the ranges of 51.7% to 69.7%. The highest percentage of agreement (69.7%) was that students found that the duration given for preparing for oral presentations was insufficient. This is supported by past researches where it was held one of the disadvantages of oral presentations was that it took a considerable amount of time to prepare (Bartsch & Cobern, 2003; Brown et al., 2004). It must also be noted here that 64% of the respondents agreed that fear of facing the audience and the instructor as a challenge that they faced. This is similar to Wolfe's (2008) findings where it was shown that the worst challenge was the fear of public speaking. Thus, it can be concluded that the challenges faced by students in oral presentations are similar despite the difference in subjects/programs in which they are used as a form of assessment.

In addition to identifying benefits and challenges faced by the students when oral presentations are used as a form of assessment, the researchers also identified students' views on the skills that were enhanced through this form of assessment. Based on past literature, the respondents were given a list of skills that have been perceived to be enhanced through the use of oral presentations as a form of assessment. The skills that were identified are inter cultural communication, interpersonal communication, leadership skills, academic development, time management, self-development, teamwork, intrapersonal communication, digital literacy, thinking and problem solving. The respondents were asked to select three skills that they felt were developed the most. Figure 2 shows the finding.
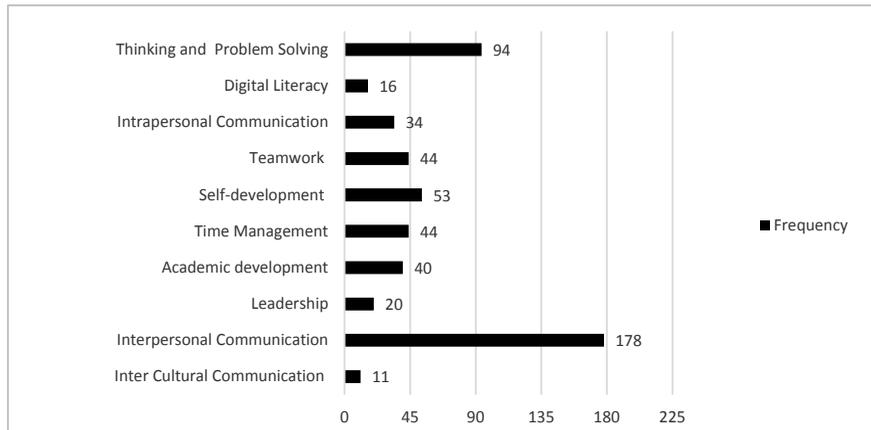
Figure 2. Perception of skills enhanced through oral presentations

The findings in Figure 2 indicate that all the respondents were in consensus that the skill developed the most through the use of oral presentations as a form of assessment was interpersonal communication (frequency count: 178). This is consistent with King (2002) who asserted that oral presentations given in a class was one of the activities that enhanced students' proficiency level. The skill that was perceived as important after interpersonal communication is thinking and problem solving (frequency count: 94). On the other hand, the skill that was selected the least was Inter Cultural Communication (frequency count: 11). When further analysis was done with selected respondents in an informal face to face session, it came to light that the university does not have international students in their undergraduate programs. It also came to the knowledge of the researchers that the respondents had interpreted the skill "inter cultural communication" as communication between them and international students and not

between the different ethnic groups in Malaysia. Digital literacy and leadership skills were also not selected by many with a frequency count of 16 and 20 respectively. The reason given for this in the informal face to face session was that most of the oral presentation assessments were done individually and the only technology allowed was PowerPoint slides. It must be noted that the reason given by the students actually supports King's (2002) comment that the availability of cameras, slide, project, PowerPoint, VCD/DVD and other visual aids would make oral presentations more exciting and interesting. However, since the use of technology was limited to power point only, the students claimed that their digital skills were not enhanced greatly. Further, leadership skills were also not enhanced because most of their oral presentations were done on an individual basis. The researchers also conducted a Pearson Correlations test to identify the relationship between the factors affecting

student's attitude towards oral presentations as a form of assessment. Table 8 shows the findings.

The Pearson correlation test carried out indicates that there is no significant relationship between gender (r=-0.061), year of study (r=0.074) and challenges (r=-0.144) with the students' attitude towards oral presentations as a form of assessment. This means there is no significant difference between females and males attitude towards oral presentations as a form of assessment. Further, the Pearson Correlation test also indicates there is no significant relationship between year of study and attitude towards oral presentations as a form of assessment. The finding from the Pearson Correlation test which indicated that the challenges faced by students in oral presentation assessments did not significantly influence their attitude was unexpected as it is generally advocated that attitude towards a task is greatly affected by the depth of challenge experienced in the particular task. The result proved that there was a positive correlation (r=0.460, sig. level=0.000) between benefits attained from oral presentation assessments with students' attitude towards this type of assessment. Thus, this means that students' attitude is more positive towards the use of oral presentation assessments when they perceive that there are more benefits in this form of assessment.

Table 8

Relationship between the factors affecting student's attitude towards oral presentations as a form of assessment

Correlations		Gender	Year of Study	Benefits	Challenges	Attitude
Gender	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.081	0.029	0.064	-0.061
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.284	0.697	0.393	0.419
	N	178	178	178	178	178
Year of Study	Pearson Correlation		1	0.116	0.001	0.074
	Sig. (2-tailed)			0.122	0.985	0.324
	N		178	178	178	178
Benefits	Pearson Correlation			1	0.131	0.460**
	Sig. (2-tailed)				0.081	0.000
	N			178	178	178
Challenges	Pearson Correlation				1	-0.144
	Sig. (2-tailed)					0.056
	N				178	178
Attitude	Pearson Correlation					1
	Sig. (2-tailed)					
	N					178

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

The researchers also included an open-ended question as the last part of the survey questionnaire where respondents were asked to suggest two ways in which the use of oral presentations as a form of assessment in their programs can be enhanced. The students gave a multitude of diverse views. In order to ensure reliability of analysis and to remove subjectivity of interpretation, the researchers analyzed the responses and coded them with the help of two inter raters. The responses were coded into 5 distinct categories; increase marks allocated for oral presentation assessments, do more individual rather than group oral presentations, students should be given autonomy to select group members and topics, constructive feedback should be given after presentation and ample time should be given for preparation. The findings are shown in Figure 3.

This question was an optional question and as such, some of the respondents did not give any response. Among the ones who responded, the suggestion that lecturers should give ample time to students to prepare for the assessment was the highest with 32 respondents. According to Chivers and Shoolbred (2007), one of the characteristics that is important to ensure oral presentations are effective is careful planning and preparation and to do this, students should be given sufficient time. They went on to claim that insufficient time could create pressure and affect quality of presentation. The second highest recommendation (22 respondents) was for lecturers to allow students to select their own topics and group members rather than being assigned into a group with a specific topic by the lecturer. According to Rivers (1968), when a teacher chooses a topic that
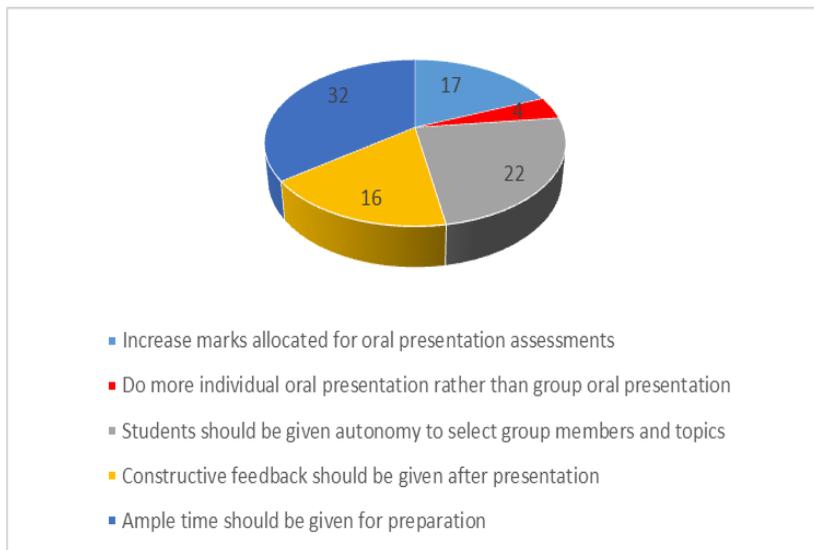
Figure 3. Respondents' recommendation for improving the use of oral presentations as a form of assessment

is uncongenial or about which the students have little knowledge, it will create difficulty for the students to give good presentations. The recommendation given by the students to be allowed to choose their own group members is supported by Sisto (2009). Similarly, Zivkovic (2014) viewed that in oral presentations, students were involved in their own learning process as active participants. They added that the students are engaged in real-world experience, and they build creative and critical thinking and problem-solving skills which are important characteristics for success in the 21st century and as such they should be given autonomy to choose both topic and group. The other recommendations made are to increase marks allocated for oral presentation assessments (17 respondents), that constructive feedback should be given after presentation (16 respondents) and to do more individual oral presentations rather than group oral presentations (4 respondents).

CONCLUSIONS

Oral communication skills transcend almost all aspects of legal and non-legal professional practice. In this sense, oral communication can be described as a generic and also readily transferable or universal skill. The findings of this research have clearly proven that the use of oral presentation assessments in the law program are positively viewed by the students and they are perceived to be beneficial as they enhance core skills needed in a legal profession. Given the fundamental importance of communication skills in most professional environments, requiring some form of oral communication skills training in tertiary law courses is highly desirable. It can be concluded that oral presentations demand a deeper level of knowledge and understanding of particular legal issues. It is recommended that oral assessment tasks should be used effectively throughout tertiary legal education to promote a deeper level of learning and understanding of the law. Unlike the traditional 100 percent assessment based on final examination which encourages short term outcomes such as passing exams with the least amount of student input, oral assessment tasks give rise to many, perhaps less tangible benefits such as increased knowledge, understanding and the acquisition of lifelong learning skills which are crucial to excel in the legal profession. As such, the researchers conclude on a note that oral presentations should be made compulsory for all legal courses. It is also advocated that further research is done on the methods of assessing oral presentation assessments to ensure that the use of this form of assessment is carried out effectively.

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Students' Perception of their English Lecturer's Interpersonal Behaviour and Achievement in English as a Subject

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ABSTRACT

Teachers' beliefs influenced the interpersonal behaviours they exhibit which significantly affect, correlate and predict students' achievement, motivation and behaviour. The interpersonal teacher circumplex model identifies eight possible interpersonal teacher behaviours which represent the control and affiliation dimensions. Despite various findings on the connection between teacher's interpersonal behaviours and their benefits to students, studies recorded in Malaysia and on tertiary education are limited. Past studies have found no connection between positive interpersonal behaviour and students' achievement. Hence, this study aims to find out whether students of different academic achievement significantly perceive the interpersonal behaviour of their English lecturer differently. The adapted Malay version of the Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction (QTI) was administered to 128 students of a university college in Malacca, Malaysia. The respondents were categorised as poor, average and excellent achievers according to the final grade they received. It was found that the English lecturer was mostly understanding and least reprimanding in behaviour as well as exhibiting positive control and affiliation over the students, behaviours that were different than the expected behaviour of ASEAN teachers. A one-way ANOVA test found that respondents from poor achievement group significantly perceived the English lecturer to be more reprimanding, uncertain, dissatisfied yet accommodating compared to average and excellent achievers. This finding suggests that positively associated teacher behaviours like steering, understanding and friendliness do not result in grade improvements among students.

INTRODUCTION

The proximity and influence from teachers were found to positively relate to students' cognitive and affective outcomes (den Brok et al., 2004). It has been established through multiple researches that positive interpersonal behaviours such as friendliness and exceptional leadership of the teachers contribute towards an increase in motivation, participation, and improvement of behaviour. However, for past studies on interpersonal teacher behaviour that was based on the Model of Interpersonal Teacher Behaviour (MITB), there is no evidence that suggests significant improvement on students' achievement.

To date, studies focusing on interpersonal behaviour in the context of teaching and learning were mostly carried out at the school level; similar ones done in tertiary settings on the interpersonal behaviour between the lecturer and their students are scarce. It is expected that the students from higher education are better-behaved and matured than those at the primary and secondary education levels. Hence, it is intriguing to see whether there would be any differences in perception between school students compared to their counterparts at the tertiary-level.

With these issues in mind, the study set out to fulfil the following objectives:

- to verify the most and least common interpersonal behaviours exerted by an English lecturer from a higher learning institute according to their students;
- to determine whether the students perceive more positive or negative affiliation and control from their English lecturer;
- to identify whether there is any significant difference between students' achievement in English as a subject and the perceived level of interpersonal behaviours exhibited by their English lecturer; and
- to identify whether there is any significant difference between students' achievement in English as a subject and the perceived level of affiliation and control exhibited by their English lecturer.

The concept put forth is that the behaviours exhibited by the lecturer have significant effects on the students' learning outcome. This assumption is made based on the reports of improved interest in the subject (Fisher et al, 2005) and subject-achievement (Sivan & Chan, 2003). For this study, the primary focus is on how students with different achievements in English perceive the behaviours shown by their lecturer. It is expected that students who perceived their lecturer to be more positive and less negative in his/her behaviours are also those who scored well in the subject. Figure 1 (below) depicts the framework of the study, providing a visualization of related concepts.
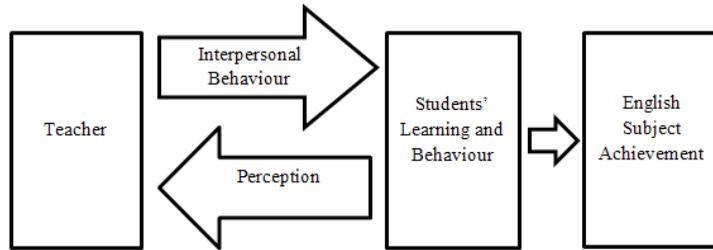
Figure 1. Conceptual framework of the study

TEACHER INTERPERSONAL BEHAVIOUR

Model of Interpersonal Teacher Behaviour (MITB)

Leary (1957) developed the Model of Interpersonal Behaviour to gauge subjective behaviours. At its first inception, it was simply a two-dimensional axes of influence and proximity that was not specific to teachers and more towards the general masses (see Figure 2). One axis (vertical) represents influence which shows the person in charge of the communication process. The other axis (horizontal) shows proximity which indicates the closeness or cooperation between those involved in the communication process. Opposite behaviours are represented by these two axes; with Dominance and Submission as an indication of influence; and Cooperation and Opposition representing proximity. These dimensions help to show how much influence and proximity was given by the people in the relationship.

The Leary Model of Interpersonal Behaviour was then adapted to the MITB (Figure 3) to specifically suit teachers. 8 quadrants of different interpersonal behaviours that can be exhibited by a teacher were identified. Leadership represents
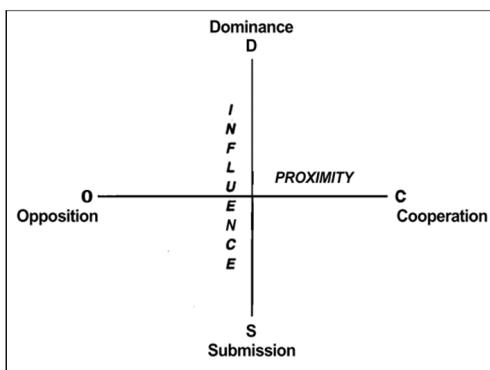
Source: Goh (1994)
Figure 2. Leary model of interpersonal behaviour
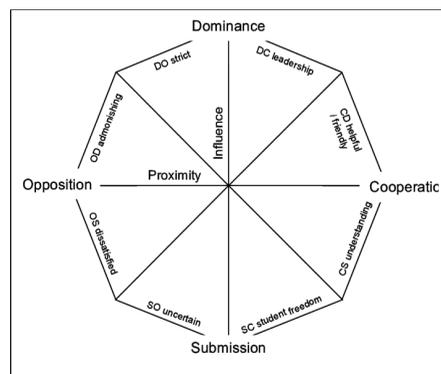
Source: Fisher et al. (1995)
Figure 3. Model of interpersonal teacher behaviour

the provision of leadership and attention management of the teacher. Helpful/friendly signifies friendliness and helpfulness portrayed by the teacher. Understanding denotes caring/concern/understanding behaviours toward the students by the teacher. Student responsibility and freedom refers to opportunities given by the teacher to the students to assume responsibility for their own learning. Uncertain depicts uncertainty and dissatisfied represents dissatisfaction and unhappiness directed at the students by the teacher. Admonishing is an expression of anger/temper/impatience by the teacher in class. Strictness and demands aimed towards the students by the teacher is indicated by strict.

Every teacher has his own preferences when approaching his/her students. For instance, teachers can be overtly friendly or authoritative or submissive in the relationship. These differences result in the portrayal of different behaviours which can be observed by students and they are considered as the teacher's interpersonal behaviour (Petegem et al., 2008). This is somewhat similar to another interpretation of teacher interpersonal behaviour which defines it as communication strategy that creates different types of relationships with students (Telli et al., 2007). It has also been identified as the behaviour that stems from the interactions that occur between teacher and students in the classroom (Goh, 1994.). Nonetheless, teacher's behaviours would stabilize over time through routines, rules and procedures; creating a default preference for the teacher.

Interpersonal Teacher Behaviour Circumplex Model

The MITB was later updated resulting in a circular instead of a hexagonal shaped model that allows for better representation of how all eight behaviours are connected. It is this revised version of Leary's theory by Wubbels et al. (2012) (Figure 4) and its accompanying model that is the basis and theoretical grounding of this study. There are also other additional changes in which the names of the behaviours were updated to better represent the teachers' action in interaction.
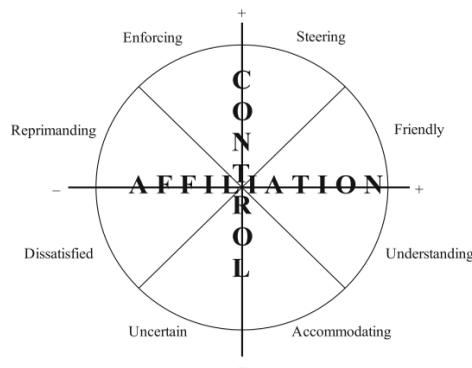
Source**:** Wubbels et al. (2012)
Figure 4. Interpersonal teacher behaviour circumplex model

Once the values for all eight behaviours are determined, they can be used to identify the levels of affiliation and control exhibited by the teacher. There are four specific behaviours that represent each side of the spectrum. For instance, reprimanding, enforcing, steering, and friendliness represent positivity in regard to control. On the other hand, teachers' negativity in their control over their students is represented by dissatisfied, uncertain, accommodating and understanding. All values are then added up to find their mean average for the side that they represent and a value closer to 5 indicates strong agreement whereas a value closer to 1 means strong disagreement. Similar calculation applies to affiliation. Measuring this requires the use of the Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction (QTI)

Through the questionnaire, the study can identify and provide exact numbers for each of the eight behaviours which shows how frequent they are exhibited by the teacher. A smaller number means less frequent and vice versa. After all 8 behaviours (Steering, friendly, understanding, accommodating, uncertain, dissatisfied, reprimanding, and enforcing) have been plotted; the study would be able to determine the extent of control and affiliation exercised by the teacher.

Behaviour Preferences and their Effects

Past studies must be consulted when categorizing behaviours into positive or negative. Positive behaviours should be behaviours that improve on students' motivation, attitude, behaviour, achievement, and they must also positively impact the teachers. Negative behaviours result in negative outcomes.

Steering and friendly behaviours are considered as positive since these traits are reflective of teachers with students who display lesser behavioural and emotional difficulties (Poulou, 2015). Understanding is also positively associated behaviour as they are considered part of effective teacher behaviour (Misbah et al., 2015). Meanwhile, accommodating behaviour is categorized as both positive and negative whereby the teacher must balance it according to the requirement of the students (Turliuc & Marici, 2013). Uncertainty was found to be a negative predictor of achievement; thus it is considered negative behaviour (Wei et al., 2009). There is a negative correlation between dissatisfaction and students' self-efficacy in learning science which meant it is negatively associated (Smart, 2009). Reprimanding and strictness were identified to be negatively correlated to students' enjoyment, attitude and values; hence they are labelled as negative behaviours. However, it should be noted that the pattern observable here in categorizing these variables fits nicely in the affiliation dimension of the interpersonal teacher behaviour circumplex model. The four positively associated behaviours are part of positive affiliation whereas the four negative behaviours are part of negative affiliation.

Educators should also consider the overall impact that their behaviour would have on control and affiliation rather than a specific behaviour alone. This is due to these dimensions representing the overall

interpersonal relationship between teachers and students. As mentioned in the previous sub-topic on MITB, 4 behaviours represent each side of the positive-negative dimensions for both control and affiliation. The inclusion of 4 negatively toned behaviours; uncertain, dissatisfied, enforcing, and reprimanding are actually necessary for positive control and affiliation. Teachers need to reprimand, show authority and enforce rules as lack thereof can lead to misbehaviour like bullying (van der Zanden et al., 2015). Previous studies have also found positive control to have significant influence on students' wellbeing and outcome (Petegem et al., 2008; Telli, 2016).

METHODS

Research Design

This research was designed around one lecturer and the students under his tutelage who were enrolled in the same program and course. Therefore, it is a case study of the interpersonal behaviour of one lecturer; and how the behaviours exhibited by the lecturer in the relationship are perceived by students with varying achievements in English as a subject. This design was chosen as it allows for a deeper understanding of the complexity of the case in hand. Although most case studies in the social sciences are approached qualitatively using interviews and observations, it is still acceptable to use a quantitative method of data collection. Hence, in this study, it was approached quantitatively with the use of questionnaires as its only instrument.

Because this is a case study, the population was identified early on. The English lecturer who agreed to volunteer for this study will have his students as the population. Since there were only 128 students, all of them were required to participate in this research; removing the need for sampling. Fortunately, all of them shared similar characteristics that would limit the interference of outside variables. First, they were enrolled in the same programme. Second, they took the same course under the English lecturer. Third, and perhaps most importantly they were all Malaysian tertiary education students.

Procedures Employed

In order to achieve the objectives of this study, the 48 items QTI by Fisher et al. (1995) was adapted to Malay, pilot tested and checked for validity and reliability before being administered to the 128 samples of 34 (26.5%) males and 94 (73.4%) females. All 48 items were short statements regarding how the teacher reacted to different situations in class with his students. A 5-point Likert scale was used to determine the frequency of each item. 1 representing never, 2 meaning almost never, 3 indicating somewhat always, 4 equalling almost always and 5 showing always.

In measuring subject achievement, the study looked into the students' cumulative marks for the English course at the end of the semester. The samples were required to complete 60% coursework and sat for a 40% final examination. The coursework was divided into quizzes (25%), a presentation (15%) and an assignment (20). The score that they received would determine their grade which ranged from A+ to an F. This grade was used to distribute students into specific achievement groups of excellent, average and poor achievers (refer to Table 1).

Table 1

Division of samples according to their achievement in English as a subject

Level of English language Achievement	Grades received
Excellent	4.00
Average	3.00 – 3.99
Poor	2.00 or less

The researchers personally visited the class of the lecturer and administered the questionnaire for a short pre-determined period. The researcher had informed the samples that the acquired data would be kept private; and all participants including the lecturer would remain anonymous. These steps were necessary because the samples were required to identify themselves to determine their English language score at the end of the semester. Thus, they might be concerned over the privacy of their answers which could affect the acquired raw data.

Descriptive statistics and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) using SPSS were used to achieve the objectives of the study.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The Lecturer's Interpersonal Behaviour

The scores recorded for all eight interpersonal behaviours by the respondents were identified and as mentioned before, the higher the score the more frequent the behaviour was observed.

At number 1 with a mean score of 4.46 (SD=0.43) is understanding. This is followed by steering behaviour with 4.21 (SD=0.47) and friendly behaviour (M=4.12, SD=0.52). Enforcing behaviour is in fourth place with 2.55 (SD=0.68) while accommodating is

in fifth with 1.89 (SD=0.44). At sixth and seventh are uncertain (M=1.60, SD=0.62) and dissatisfied (M=1.36, SD=0.39), respectively. The behaviour with the lowest score is reprimanding with a mean average of 1.22 (SD=0.44). The third (friendly) and the fourth (enforcing) ranked behaviours have a noticeable gap of almost 2 points. This might seem odd; however, in the grand scheme of things, it could be due to the lecturer having a tolerant-authoritative relationship with the students (Rickards et al., 2005).

This deduction is based on the high score recorded for steering, friendly and understanding behaviours; with average score for enforcing behaviour and low score for accommodating, uncertain, and reprimanding behaviour (see Figure 5). In other words, the lecturer in this study took charge of the lesson but was still able to show tolerance by being friendly and understanding to the students. In fact, this particular pattern of interpersonal behaviour is considered the most cooperative out of all possible student-teacher relationships (Misbah et al., 2015).

However, taking charge also meant that there was less room for students to experiment on their own which shows in the low score for accommodating. Ideally,

students prefer teachers who also promote student freedom (Wei et al., 2009). On a positive note, uncertainty and enforcement were perceived to be less; probably because the lecturer was able to steer the respondents in the right direction. Additionally, since the lecturer showed high understanding, it led to less reprimanding behaviour, akin to how friendliness overshadowed dissatisfaction.

The Lecturer's Control and Affiliation

The cumulative scores received for all behaviours allowed us to identify the extent of control and affiliation practised by the teacher. The following table (Table 2) shows the descriptive statistics of items on the level of control and affiliation practiced by the English lecturer as perceived by the respondents.
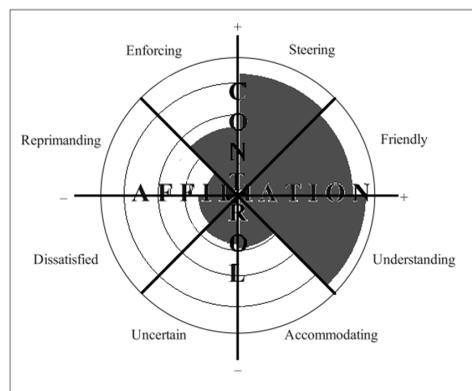
Figure 5. Visual representation of the lecturer's interpersonal behaviour

Table 2
Descriptive statistics of items on the level of control practiced

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Positive control	118	3.03	0.33
Negative control	120	2.32	0.29
Positive affiliation	119	3.67	0.31
Negative affiliation	120	1.67	0.38

Based on the scores it was identified that the English lecturer was more positive in control and affiliation with his students. The small difference of 0.71 between positive and negative control is similar to another study by Telli (2016) which found that language teachers were often rated lower in the control dimension compared to other subject. The same issue could be present here as language subjects are often perceived to be less demanding and controlling on students. Nevertheless, positive control is integral

to a teaching and learning environment as students prefer to have more teacher support and clear directions in maintaining cohesiveness in task completion (Wahyudi, 2010). Furthermore, communication in the classroom will also be pleasant as the teacher positively maintains control over it (Misbah et al., 2015). With high levels of control, misbehaviours such as bullying will also diminish (van der Zanden et al., 2015)

The observation for affiliation is definitely more intriguing as the gap between positive affiliation and negative affiliation is exactly 2 points. By comparison, most of the neighbouring countries where similar studies have been conducted such as Indonesia and Brunei, found that their teachers were rated negatively in affiliation (den Brok et al., 2005a, 2005b; Maulana et al., 2012)

It was even argued that there was a large power difference between teachers and students in ASEAN countries which caused a more repressive relationship between them. Hence, the relationship that the lecturer in this study has with his students is different even though the study was conducted in the same region. The reason for this dissimilarity could be because the respondents of this study are students at the tertiary education level, compared to the secondary school students sampled by the past studies mentioned. Younger students would require more steering, friendly, understanding, and accommodating behaviour to shape and prepare them for social life. All these behaviours are indicative of positive affiliation. They are also expected to listen to the authority figure without any issues. Similarly, tertiary students are also supposedly more mature and can listen to instructions effectively.

The Perceived Interpersonal Behaviours of the English Lecturer Based on Respondents' Achievement in English as a subject

Table 3 shows the distribution of respondents according to their English language achievement.

There were four behaviours identified as insignificant and another four as significant (Table 4). The behaviour that is least significant according to the respondents' achievement in English as a subject is Friendly with p=0.48 [F (2,122) = 0.75]. Next insignificant behaviour is understanding behaviour [F (2,125) = 1.46, p=0.24]. This is followed by steering with p value of 0.19 [F(2,124) = 1.68] and enforcing behaviour [F(2,121) = 2.69, p=0.07].

This means that regardless of achievement in English as a subject, the respondents were indifferent to their English lecturer's friendly, understanding, steering and enforcing behaviours. Now we would

Table 3

Frequency statistics of the respondents according to their achievement in English as a subject

	Frequency	Percentage
Excellent	32	25.0
Average	70	54.7
Poor	26	20.3
Overall	128	100.0

Table 4

One way ANOVA multiple comparison test between the 8 interpersonal behaviours and achievement in English as a subject

	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Steering	2	0.37	1.68	0.19
	124	0.22		
	126			
Understanding	2	0.27	1.46	0.24
	125	0.18		
	127			
Uncertain	2	1.19	3.23	0.04
	124	0.37		
	126			
Reprimanding	2	0.64	3.48	0.03
	123	0.18		
	125			
Friendly	2	0.20	0.75	0.48
	122	0.28		
	124			
Accommodating	2	0.57	2.99	0.05
	120	0.19		
	122			
Dissatisfied	2	0.71	4.83	0.01
	123	0.15		
	125			
Enforcing	2	1.20	2.69	0.07
	121	0.45		
	123			

like to take the opportunity to point out that these four behaviours were actually the four most frequently perceived behaviours practised by the lecturer. In the previous studies, these behaviours were often found to have positive association, relationship and impact on the teaching and learning experience (den Brok et al., 2005b; Maulana et al., 2012; Spivak & Farran, 2016). Hence, it is peculiar that this study found no difference in perception of these four behaviours among students with different levels achievement in English as a subject.

From a different viewpoint, it might be that academic achievement is a factor that is least influenced by positive interpersonal

teacher behaviour. As seen in China where uncertainty was the only behaviour that had significant association with achievement in English as a subject (Wei et al., 2009). Teacher's interpersonal behaviour was also found to be insignificant in predicting students' cognition (Sivan & Chan, 2013). However there was a study which emphasized positive interpersonal skills because it found positive relationships between teachers and students had an effect on students' achievement (Witherspoon, 2011). Interestingly, that particular study did not utilize the QTI to gather information on teachers' interpersonal behaviours. Thus, the inability to relate positive behaviours with subject achievement may also be due to the instrument used, as all the previous studies mentioned earlier had used QTI as their main instrument.

Nevertheless, being overtly friendly, understanding, enforcing, and steering may not be enough to improve the students' achievement in the subject taught. However, it is not warranted to discard these behaviours altogether since they are as mentioned earlier, the students' preference for an ideal teacher. In fact in another study, three out of the four interpersonal teacher behaviours; friendly, understanding and steering can be used to predict students' attitude towards the subject and even their affective domains (Sivan & Chan, 2013). Hence, they are still useful in getting students to participate during the class activity and improve their attitude and motivation towards the subject. As established before, motivation is key predictor of subject achievement and

teachers can show positive interpersonal behaviours with the hope that the students will be motivated to learn the subject (Smart, 2014).

Behaviours that are identified to be significant based on achievement in English as a subject of the respondents are accommodating [$F_{(2,120)} = 2.99$, p=0.05), uncertain [$F_{(2,124)} = 3.23$, p=0.4], reprimanding [$F_{(2,123)} = 3.48$, p=0.03], and dissatisfied [$F_{(2,123)} = 2.99$, p=0.01]. Hence these four behaviours which coincidentally scored the lowest, were perceived differently by students with different levels of achievement in English as a subject. Because the p value is similar or less than 0.05, the four behaviours underwent post-hoc LSD multiple comparison tests. It was hoped that it would provide a detailed understanding of how each group of excellent, average and poor achievers view their English lecturer's interpersonal behaviours.

Looking at the data (Table 5), the differences in score were identified as significant at the p<0.05 level between the poor achievers and the average with p=0.02. Furthermore, the differences in mean score between poor achievers and high achievers were also significant (p=0.03). However, there was no significant difference in the mean scores between the average and excellent achievers with p=0.91. Therefore, it can be concluded that respondents with poor achievement in English as a subject perceived their English lecturer to be more uncertain in their behaviours compared to average and excellent achievers.

Table 5

Post-hoc LSD multiple comparison test between uncertain behaviours and achievement in English as a subject

(I) Testing2	(J) Testing2	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Excellent	Average	-0.02	0.13	0.91	-0.27	0.24
	Poor	-0.35	0.16	0.03	-0.67	-0.03
Average	Excellent	0.01	0.12	0.91	-0.24	0.27
	Poor	-0.34	0.14	0.02	-0.62	-0.06
Poor	Excellent	0.35	0.16	0.03	0.03	0.67
	Average	0.34	0.14	0.02	0.06	0.62

Table 6

Post-hoc LSD multiple comparison test between reprimanding behaviours and achievement in English as a subject

(I) Testing2	(J) Testing2	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Excellent	Average	-0.12	0.09	0.20	-0.30	0.06
	Poor	-0.29	0.11	0.01	-0.53	-0.07
Average	Excellent	0.12	0.09	0.20	-0.06	0.30
	Poor	-0.18	0.09	0.07	-0.38	0.01
Poor	Excellent	0.29	0.11	0.01	0.07	0.53
	Average	0.18	0.09	0.07	-0.01	0.38

Likewise, the post hoc LSD test (Table 6) shows significant differences at the $p<0.05$ in the mean score between excellent and poor scoring respondents (p=0.01). However, there is no significant differences between average scoring respondents with excellent (p=0.20) and poor (p=0.07) respondents. Therefore, it can be concluded that respondents with poor achievement in English as a subject perceived their English lecturer to be more reprimanding in his behaviour compared to the perception of excellent achievers.

The result (Table 7) shows the post-hoc LSD test between achievement in English as a subject and items on accommodating behaviour. Similarly, there are significant differences in the mean scores between respondents with poor English achievement when compared to excellent (p=0.04) and average (p=0.02) achievers. Conversely, comparison between excellent and average

Table 7

Post-hoc LSD multiple comparison test between accommodating behaviours and achievement in English as a subject

(I) Testing2	(J) Testing2	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Excellent	Average	-0.01	0.09	0.89	-0.20	0.18
	Poor	-0.24	0.12	0.04	-0.48	-0.01
Average	Excellent	0.01	0.09	0.89	-0.18	0.20
	Poor	-0.23	0.10	0.02	-0.43	-0.03
Poor	Excellent	0.24	0.12	0.04	0.01	0.48
	Average	0.23	0.10	0.02	0.03	0.43

Table 8

Post-hoc LSD multiple comparison test between dissatisfied behaviours and achievement in English as a subject

(I) Testing2	(J) Testing2	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Excellent	Average	-0.09	0.08	0.25	-0.26	0.07
	Poor	-0.31	0.10	0.00	-0.51	-0.11
Average	Excellent	0.09	0.08	0.25	-0.07	0.26
	Poor	-0.21	0.09	0.02	-0.39	-0.04
Poor	Excellent	0.31	0.10	0.00	0.11	0.51
	Average	0.21	0.09	0.02	0.04	0.39

achievers is not significant with p=0.89. In other words, accommodating behaviours are perceived to be exhibited by the English lecturer more by the poor achievers when compared to excellent and average achievers.

The post-hoc LSD multiple comparison test in Table 8 also shows that there were significant differences in the mean scores between poor achievers with excellent (p<0.00) and average (p=0.02) achievers at the p<0.05 level. However, there was no significant difference in the score between excellent and average achievers (p=0.25). Therefore, it can be concluded that poor achieving respondents perceived the English lecturer to be more dissatisfied in behaviour compared to the excellent and average respondents.

There are several studies which may help explain why poor achievers perceived their lecturer to be more uncertain, reprimanding, accommodating and dissatisfied.

For uncertain behaviour, it was found to have negative correlation with student achievement (Wei et al., 2009). Additionally, uncertainty is also reportedly higher among teachers of countries neighbouring Malaysia which are Singapore and Brunei. Therefore, there is a possibility that the region where the data was collected may play a role in how students perceive their teachers' uncertainness. However, we do concede that additional study on this matter is required for a more conclusive finding since the study focused only on the students of one English lecturer.

The study also found poor achievers to perceive more reprimanding behaviour which contrast another study by Scrivner (2009) where teacher's disposition was found to have no impact on student's score. Perhaps this tendency in thinking that the lecturer is reprimanding is due to their inability to enjoy the lesson. Similarly, poor achievers' views that the lecturer is often dissatisfied may also be connected to their inability to enjoy the subject; due to their poorer competence compared to average and high achievers (Wahyudi, 2010).

Interestingly, these four interpersonal behaviours were also found to be gender specific similar to a study conducted by Wahyudi (2010). Apparently, the males seemed to observe these four behaviours - uncertain, reprimanding, accommodating and dissatisfied - more than their female counterparts, suggesting the possibility that the poor achievers in this study are males. Rather than leaving this up to coincidence, the researchers went ahead and checked the percentages of male and female respondents under the poor achievement group.

The findings revealed that the number of male respondents (n=21) in the poor achievement group overshadows the females (n=5) by a ratio of four to one (Table 9). This provides further supporting evidence for the earlier studies in which male respondents often perceive their teachers regardless of the teacher's gender, as possessing more uncertain, reprimanding, accommodating and dissatisfied behavioural traits.

In the context of the Interpersonal Teacher Behaviour Circumplex Model (see Figure 3), there are three interpersonal behaviours here representing the negative affiliation dimension, namely dissatisfied, reprimanding and uncertain behaviours. This may translate to the poor achievers perceiving their lecturer as being more negatively affiliated compared to the perceptions of their average and excellent achiever counterparts. Similarly, for the control dimensions, there are three behaviours here

Table 9

Distribution of gender among poor achievers

	Frequency	Percentage
Male	21	80.8
Female	5	19.2

that represent negative control (uncertain, dissatisfied, and accommodating). Thus, the perception that the English lecturer is more negatively controlling by respondents with poor subject achievement is a possibility. The conclusion to this can be found in the next sub-topic.

The Perceived Control and Affiliation of the English Lecturer Based On Respondents' Achievement in English as a Subject

A similar method was used to achieve the fifth research objective of this study. A one-way ANOVA was carried out between the positive-negative dimensions of both control and affiliation; and the respondents' achievement in English as a subject.

It can be seen here (Table 10) that the amount of positive control exhibited by the English lecturer was not significantly perceived to be different by the three groups [$F_{(2,11)} = 1.74$, $p=0.18$]. On the other hand, the mean score recorded for negative controlling behaviours was significantly different [$F_{(2,117)} = 3.63$, $p=0.03$].

For affiliation, positive affiliation was identified to be insignificant at the $p<0.05$ value with $p=0.14$ when tested against respondents with different achievements in English subject. Meanwhile, negative affiliation showed significant difference with p value of 0.01 among the three achievement groups. Unlike previous studies where positive affiliation is associated with achievement, the findings here suggested otherwise (Telli, 2016; Wei et al., 2009).

Post-hoc LSD tests were conducted for both negative control and negative affiliation.

Table 10

One way ANOVA multiple comparison test between control and affiliation dimension of interpersonal behaviour and achievement in English as a subject

	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Positive Control	2	0.16	1.74	0.18
	116	0.09		
	118			
Negative Control	2	0.51	3.63	0.03
	117	0.14		
	119			
Positive Affiliation	2	0.21	2.03	0.14
	115	0.10		
	117			
Negative	2	0.35	4.39	0.01
	117	0.08		
	119			

The post-hoc LSD test (Table 11) shows that there were significant differences between respondents with poor achievement in English as a subject when compared to excellent (p=0.01) and average (p=0.03) respondents. However, there was no significant difference in mean score between respondents with excellent and average achievement in English as a subject (p=0.39). This finding indicates that the respondents with poor achievement in English as a subject perceived their English lecturer to be more negative in their controlling behaviour when compared to excellent and average achievement respondents.

Control is positively correlated to students' attitude towards the subject (den Brok et al., 2005b); which means that students who view a subject negatively would also perceive negative control from the teacher. Hence, it is acceptable to assume that there is a connection between students' attitude and academic achievement based on the controlling behaviour of the teacher. What this means is that because the poor

achievers view the English lecturer to be more negatively controlling, they may also view the subject less favourably compared to the average and excellent achievers.

Although poor achievers may view the English lecturer to be more negatively controlling, it should not deter educators from being positive in their controlling behaviour with weaker students. It is imperative in facilitating positive behavioural and psychological development in children. Plus, students' cognitive ability (Wahyudi, 2010), their attitude and affection (den Brok et al., 2005b; Telli, 2016) are influenced more by negative control with proper guidance; than positive control with poor guidance. In other words, some students may require more negative control than positive ones with the inclusion of proper guidance and clear task direction.

Next, based on the post-hoc LSD multiple comparison tests between negative affiliation and achievement in English as a subject (Table 12), it can be observed here that there was no significant difference

Table 11

Post-hoc LSD multiple comparison test between negative control and achievement in English as a subject

(I) Testing2	(J) Testing2	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Excellent	Average	-0.07	0.08	0.39	-0.23	0.09
	Poor	-0.27	0.10	0.01	-0.47	-0.06
Average	Excellent	0.07	0.08	0.39	-0.09	0.23
	Poor	-0.19	0.09	0.03	-0.37	-0.02
Poor	Excellent	0.27	0.10	0.01	0.06	0.47
	Average	0.19	0.09	0.03	0.02	0.37

Table 12

Post-hoc LSD multiple comparison test between negative affiliation and achievement in English as a subject

(I) Testing2	(J) Testing2	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Excellent	Average	-0.00	0.06	0.97	-0.13	0.12
	Poor	-0.19	0.08	0.02	-0.34	-0.04
Average	Excellent	0.00	0.06	0.97	-0.12	0.13
	Poor	-0.19	0.07	0.01	-0.32	-0.06
Poor	Excellent	0.19	0.08	0.02	0.04	0.34
	Average	0.19	0.07	0.01	0.06	0.32

between the respondents who received excellent and average scores (p=0.97). However, significant differences in averages can be seen when poor achievers were compared with excellent (p=0.02) and average achievers (p=0.01). Hence, it indicates that the respondents with poor achievement in English perceived the English lecturer to be more negative in affiliation compared to excellent and average achievers.

Since there is an association between perceived affiliation and students' enjoyment of the subject (den Brok et al., 2005b); perhaps, the poor achievers in this study also experienced lesser enjoyment in learning English compared to the average and high achievers. Nonetheless, poor achievers' low enjoyment due to mostly negatively affiliation can still be overcome with clear task direction and support.

As mentioned earlier, students' cognitive ability (Wahyudi, 2010), their attitude and affection (den Brok et al., 2005b; Telli, 2016) are influenced more by negative control with

proper guidance than positive control with poor guidance. Hence, it is inappropriate to dismiss teachers who maintain a more distant relationship/affiliation with students as proper teaching and learning techniques are more substantial than affiliation. In the case of this study, the lecturer should try to approach poor achievers differently by having more control over affiliation.

Perceived affiliation from the teacher was also found to be a significant predictor of students' efficacy for learning and mastery orientation (Smart, 2014). Since the poor achievers view their teachers' affiliation more negatively, it is fair to assume that they lacked the efficacy for learning the English language compared to the average and high achievers. These poor achievers may also view the English subject as a compulsory subject to pass and have no intention of mastering the language.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION

In a nutshell, this case study determined

whether the interpersonal behaviours of an English lecturer were perceived differently by his students with different achievement in English as a subject. . The following was concluded from the findings. The lecturer of the study is characterised as being highly understanding and least dissatisfied when interacting with students; he was tolerant and authoritative in the relationship. Positive control and affiliation were observed to be more frequent by the English lecturer compared to negative teacher trait. This specific arrangement of behaviours is not usually observed in teachers in ASEAN countries which usually prefer high control and power as it is customary in a collectivist society to show respect to elders (den Brok et al., 2005a, 2005b; Maulana et al., 2012).

When the eight interpersonal behaviours were tested against groups with different achievements in English as a subject, poor achievers perceived the English lecturer to be more dissatisfied, reprimanding, uncertain and accommodating. It was proposed that despite having positive correlation with students' subject-specific attitude and behaviour, these four behaviours have no impact on subject achievement. Respondents with poor achievement in English also perceived their English lecturer to be more negatively controlling and affiliating which could be due to their lesser enjoyment of lessons compared to average and high achievers (den Brok et al., 2005b). Lack of efficacy for learning the English language could explain why poor respondents perceived more negative affiliation of the lecturer as it is a significant

predictor of affiliation (Smart, 2014). In dealing with students who are poor in the language, language teachers should focus more on giving clear task directions, look assured and be confident of their ability. Although this may lead to increase in control due to the need for enforcing and steering when directing students, it is more suited when dealing with weaker students.

English teachers who want to improve their students' achievement in English should utilize positive interpersonal behaviour in improving the quality of the lesson. This is because positive interpersonal behaviours alone were not differently perceived by students of varying achievement in English as a subject. Hence, what teachers should aim for is, improving the students' enjoyment and attitude towards the subject in the hope that they would be motivated to improve their academic achievement. Being positive with students alone would improve their attitude, enjoyment and perception of teachers but evidently not their achievement in the subject.

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Students' Satisfaction of MARA College Management Services, Learning Environment and the Effect on Learning Motivation

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ABSTRACT

Higher education institutions in Malaysia have been facing an overwhelming demand to provide adequate facilities and resources to assist with students' learning. The resources mentioned include ICT facilities, offices, libraries, as well as positive learning environments. Thus, this study aimed to investigate the level of students' satisfaction with *Majlis Amanah Rakyat* (MARA) college management services (student service and affairs, registration service, and resources/facilities) and its learning environments. The study also examined the effects of those management services and the learning environments on students' learning motivations. A descriptive analysis was used to determine the level of students' satisfaction, while a t-test was used to determine whether student gender influenced students' satisfaction levels. A total of 169 pre-university students were selected as the sample group, using a convenient sampling method. From the SPSS results, the study found that the level of satisfaction on learning environments and the learning motivations of the participants were high. It also showed that, gender had no influence on the participants' satisfaction levels. The Smart PLS is a statistical software used for Structural Equation Model (SEM) to know the effect of exogenous variable (independent) on endogenous variable (dependent). SEM-PLS identified that learning environments and student services had an effect on student motivation levels. Moreover, it predicted student satisfaction and motivation levels. Finally, a few recommendations were made for better management service on how to increase a learner's motivation.

Keywords: Facilities, learning, service, motivation, MARA, student satisfaction

INTRODUCTION

In an increasingly diverse and complex teaching and learning environment in institutions of higher learning, the area of primary concern includes whether students are being provided with adequate resources or facilities to assist with their learning experiences. Facilities provided in any higher institution of learning can vary enormously. Many methods can be used to measure this variation, but one commonly used method was using students' evaluations of facilities provided by a specific institution. For many decades, the outcome of students' evaluations has been seen as an important tool to measure the effectiveness of an institution's facilities (Martin, 1996). The students' evaluations would reflect the qualities associated with resources, instructional materials and staffing, as well as services rendered by an institute (Martin, 1996). In addition to being a measurement tool of services provided, the results of student evaluations have been beneficial in helping a management team identify specific areas that need improvement (Keith, 2004).

As students' progress with their day to day operations in a classroom, they need a wide variety of facilities which include a functioning computer, a conducive learning area, a clean dining area, a well-stocked library and many more. The facilities are needed in order to assist the students with discovering themselves through independent study and learning. Hasan et al. (2013) claimed that the quality of an institution's environment or atmosphere should be a high priority of a management team in an institution in order to increase the levels of satisfaction and motivation among learners. In fact, years of research have proven that there is nothing more important for a learning institution than to provide their students with an effective learning experience through the provision of quality facilities. Keith (2004) claimed that students and teachers alike needed healthy and functional school facilities in order to succeed.

The facilities include a library that does not only support school or college programs, but also quality teaching and learning processes through the provision of materials or resources that met their various needs and demands (Clarke, 1999). Hence, a library should be adequately stocked and upgraded with the latest collection of books, materials and online learning for students to use (Adomi, 2006).

Nevertheless, despite the fact that there have been countless numbers of student evaluations on school facilities, research conducted on how school facilities can affect a learner's level of motivation has been scarce. Thus, it was important to ascertain whether the facilities rendered in a MARA higher institute of learning satisfied its learners' needs and whether the resources or facilities provided had any effect on learners' levels of motivation to learn. While it will be thoughtful and crucial to investigate the role or influence of student gender on motivation and their deferment about management services at MARA College, some studies around the globe found gender influences customer's

satisfaction significant while some found it insignificant.

Whether the influence of gender on service satisfaction is significant or insignificant, in MARA context, it would be interesting to examine as the students participated in this study were from different states and locations in Malaysia, meeting together at the MARA college to continue their studies. Besides, it is worthy to explore gender differences as psychologically, males and females tend to be different a lot in the ways they see or perceive things (Mansoora, 2017).

Hence, this study was conducted to contribute to the limited literature related to learners' levels of satisfaction on facilities provided and its effect on their motivation levels in a MARA higher education institute. Operationally, in this study, management services refer to the services that are expected from the MARA college management to provide resources to facilitate learning and smoothen the academic process such as providing a library, books, computers, internet, instructional tools, students' healthcare and counselling. Hence, they are considered as facilities under MARA management responsibility. Considering this, this research was driven by the following hypotheses:

H01: The mean score for overall satisfaction levels among students in a MARA college on their learning environment and management services was not equal.

H02: There was not a significant influence of gender on student's overall levels of satisfaction on management services and learning environments.

H03: There was not a significant direct-effect of management services provided by

a MARA college and learning environment on students learning motivations.

Academic Institution Service and Learning Achievement

Educational organizations of higher learning are continually competing to generate better students. One of the most vital institutional organizations of a community is an educational organization (Duong, 2015). According to Chan et al. (2014), from the viewpoints of today's society, higher levels of education are a training ground for progressive vocational and professional competences. The notion was also supported by Baum et al. (2013) which stated that students with higher levels of education contributed more to society, by higher tax payments and civic involvement. The nation places a tremendous pressure for individuals to perform or order to develop high quality students.

The term 'high quality students' could be interpreted diversely from various perspectives. Nonetheless, the main factor that has been commonly associated with high quality students have been students' academic performances. Educators within educational institutions ensure the quality of a students' performance is a high priority. Indeed, they constantly research the elements involved in a students' achievement (Farooq et al., 2011). In addition to this, Shareef et al. (2015) conducted a study and concluded that there was a positive correlation between the academic performance of students and their quality of life. The importance of students' performances motivated researchers and

academic communities around the globe to identify the aspects involved in improving students' performances. Lizzio et al. (2002) conducted a research which found that the perceptions of university students toward their learning environments had significant effects on their achievements in learning, how they enjoyed the learning process, and also affected the outcomes of their learning through the development of key competences. In turn, this showed obvious or discreet predictions of their attitudes towards their studies.

Academic Facility, Student Satisfaction Level and Learning Motivation

Students' performances have also been closely related to their levels of motivation, whether intrinsic or extrinsic. Ryan and Deci (2000) stated that according to the self-determination theory (SDT), motivation could be categorized into two categories. The first was an intrinsic motivation, which referred to the natural tendency of an individual to perform well. It may range from the need for stimulation and challenge, to prove capabilities, and to learn and explore new things. On the other hand, an extrinsic motivation originated from outside activities (Rutten et al., 2012) such as rewards, family and society's expectations, career prospects, teachers' effectiveness, learning environments and availability of resources. Previous researchers Tella (2007) and Auwalu et al. (2014) had found that motivation had been significant in determining students' academic achievements, which was a key

determinant of students' performances in schools.

Afzal et al. (2010) conducted a study which involved 342 university students from different programs in various universities in Islamabad and Lahore, in Pakistan. They found that there was a positive mutually causal relationship between students' academic performances and their levels of motivation. They also found that although the student's motivation levels were highly affected by factors such as teachers' performances, discipline, and quality of education, nevertheless, the students' motivation levels were not greatly affected by facilities provided by the university. This may have resulted from the students' levels of intrinsic motivation that determined whether or not external factors such as facilities and services would affect their performance. Radovan and Markovec (2015) theorized that students with greater intrinsic goals were highly motivated regardless of their learning environments, because they possessed a better control of their learning and had better confidence in their abilities.

Through broad strategy towards study, motivation has decisive effect on students' academic performance (Kusurkar et al., 2013). This finding was consistent with the findings of Amrai et al. (2011) which established that there was a relationship between the components of motivation and academic achievements among students. Furthermore, Auwalu et al. (2014) indicated that students' motivation was a good predictor to measure the expected level

of performance (GPA) of students. Hence, in line with the findings, it can be asserted that motivation is significant in enhancing students' academic performances.

The importance of students' motivation directs researchers to further develop the factors that develop or trigger students' motivation. Akomolafe and Adesua (2016) carried out a study in Senior Secondary Schools in South West Nigeria which aimed to review the relevance of physical school facilities and its effect on students' academic performances. Akomolafe and Adesua (2016) proposed that the availability and effective utilization of school physical facilities led to a significant role in improving students' academic performance. This finding is in lieu with the findings in studies conducted by Edwards (2006) and Hasan et al. (2013). Another literature that supported the importance of school facilities in increasing learners' motivation levels, were the works of Hasan et al. (2013). These researchers claimed that students within schools, and particularly those at a secondary level of school education needed higher quality services and facilities in order to be motivated to study. The reason for this was because a high quality of services at this level satisfied their self-esteems and developed the students with all the essential skills and capabilities to be effective education personalities. Hence, educational institutions which provided higher quality of services and facilities were viewed as being more capable at motivating learners and would eventually produce a high number of good performers and productive students.

A similar research was conducted by Siming et al. (2015) on the reasons behind the expansion of student enrolments in higher learning institutes. The scholars believed that there was an increasing need to understand the factors that affected the satisfaction levels of students in higher institutions, like MARA colleges. A survey was conducted on 200 students from a few select universities which studied the factors that affected students' motivation, such as teachers, course content and school facilities. It was found that students' satisfaction levels with campus services and facilities and students' support services were very good and satisfactory. Nevertheless, to the researchers' knowledge, in Malaysia there are a scarce number of published findings that have explored the relationship between students' motivation and students' satisfaction towards the facilities. Mai et al. (2015) carried out a study on the relationship between students' motivation and academic satisfaction but there was not a focus on facilities. As a result, the researchers of this study were inspired to analyse the relationship between students' motivation and students' satisfaction of the resources or facilities at one of the MARA colleges in Northern Malaysia.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study is guided by some theories. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are used in this study as the motivational

theory with the reference to Deci and Ryan (1985) Self-Determination Theory while Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm, which measures 'service quality' was utilized for management services. For intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, both factors have been studied extensively worldwide and the findings derived have helped in terms human psychological development and practices. Deci and Ryan (1985) Self-Determination Theory distinguished different types of motivation, depending on different reasons or goals that trigger action. The most basic distinction occurred between intrinsic motivation which can be explained as 'doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, and extrinsic motivation as 'to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome' (Ryan and Deci, 2000).

To measure service quality, SERVQUAL is always used as an instrument which factored service quality into five factors: reliability, assurance, tangibles, empathy and responsiveness. Tangibles describe the physical appearance of facilities, equipment, personnel and written materials while reliability describes the management ability to perform or provide the promised service reliably and accurately. Responsiveness talks about the will of helping customers by delivering prompt services. Assurance refers to employees' trusting the service or management while empathy deals with caring, easy accessibility, understanding and attention given to customers (Naik et al., 2010).

In an effort to measure management service quality, the majority of the studies to date use SERVQUAL to determine the gap between customer expectations or perceptions and service quality (Parasuraman et al., 1985, 1988; Shahin, 2008). SERVQUAL depends on the paradigm of disconfirmation, looking at the gap between 'expected' and 'perceived' in the quality service which will be an evaluation of the overall service provided by the management of an organization (Shekarchizadeh et al., 2011). In light of this, this study has made use of both theories to draw the hypothesised model and the construction of the instrument.

Figure 1 presents the research hypothesised model. From the figure, management services are measured by five factors, which are considered as independent variables while the school learning environment is considered as the second independent variable. Learning motivation is measured as extrinsic and intrinsic, making it as the dependent variable. This study came into due to MARA's student complains about the existing resources or facilities provided by MARA college management in the Northern part of Malaysia. With the researchers' vast experience of working in MARA college; the study in particular, focused on the pressing issues among MARA students, on management services such as services on student healthcare, responsiveness to student needs, counselling, registration of courses, books' availability, internet, computers and instructional tools for teaching/learning
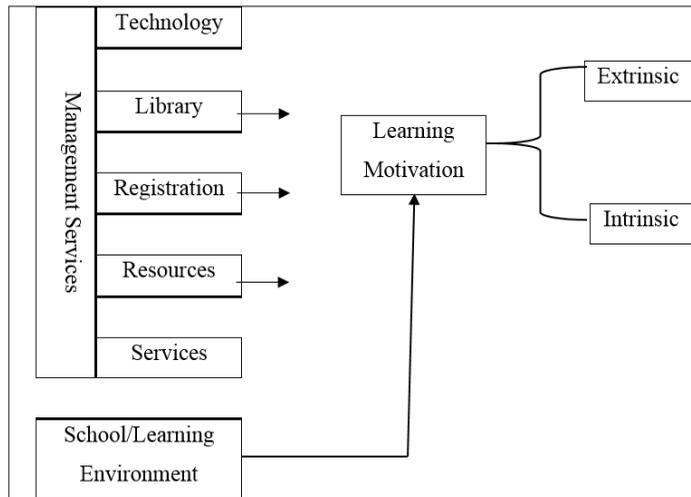
Figure 1. Research hypothesised model

and the effect of these issues/items on motivation to study or learn. This study calls authorises and policy-makers' attention to look into these issues before it becomes rampant. Although, the study was carried out in one MARA college, but there is a high possibility on the occurrence of the same issues in the future among other MARA college students in Malaysia.

In a situation where these issues are taken slightly, in a long run or as a consequence, it could lead to students dropping out of the college due to their less satisfaction about the college management services. A plethora of studies has reported management services, influencing student motivation and learning. A study of Justina (2015) on the motivational factors that enhanced students learning/achievement had reported environment and facilities strongly motivated students to learn, while adequate learning environment (Ullah et al., 2013), campus services and facilities (Siming et

al., 2015) and perceived service quality of the students correlate with their satisfaction, loyalty and motivation (Annamdevula & Bellamkonda, 2014). This is an indication on the significant role that management plays in ensuring good and quality services are provided to increase student motivation and their satisfaction.

METHODOLOGY

The present research was quantitative in nature as data was collected using a survey. A total of 169 students studying in different foundation programs in a MARA college participated in this study. The target population for this study were students currently studying in different foundation programs in a MARA college. A total of 310 students studied in the year 2015 during the time the research was conducted. The researchers applied convenience sampling (CS) among a target population and selected 169 respondents

based on a table developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). The sampling procedure was applied because it was convenient to the researchers who were familiar with the system, the experience of the location and the environment tested. Due to the difficulty of sample sizing the entire population in research, some researchers have supported the application of convenient sampling procedures, especially when the population is unknown and due to the respondent easy accessibility and recruitment (Sedgwick, 2013).

With the use of CS, questionnaires were distributed to students or participants at the different locations and times in the college. Some questionnaires were given to the students with the help of some teachers by distributing them to the students in their classes or after lectures, while some were given in the library, canteen and in the computer labs. To ensure the heterogeneity, despite of using CS, the researchers ensured the 'representativeness' of the sample by recruiting students originating from different states and locations in the college. The researchers only chose respondents from one MARA college as different colleges had varying environmental characteristics which may have caused distractions in the data collected.

In terms of instrumentation, the survey used in this study was adapted from a Texas Tech University Students Satisfaction Survey (SSS) designed in 2010-2011. Originally, the items were developed by the Office of Institutional Planning and Assessment of Health Science Centre. The

survey was used to measure the level of satisfaction of students among different faculties within the Texas Tech University, on the overall facilities provided by the campus. The current study adapted six dimensions and eliminated the following factors: Student Business Services, financial aid, advising and mentoring, and students' lives. The reason for the elimination of these factors was because the present study was only interested in studying students' level of satisfaction on resources provided by the management to facilitate learning, and the target population area had no student business centres. The instrument used in this study consisted of 23 items which addressed six dimensions under facilities and services that affected students' satisfaction. The dimensions were office facilities and services, registrar facilities and services, student affairs facilities and services, library facilities and services, colleges' environment and ICT resources. The survey measured two main factors, which were 1) learning resources or facilities and 2) services offered by non-academic staff directly involved with students.

The study utilised the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ). Pintrich and DeGroot (1990) designed the MSLQ to investigate students' motivation on self-regulated learning strategies. The researchers in this study adapted the instruments, using only 16 items from the original 41 items in the MSLQ. There were 8 items which aimed to investigate students' extrinsic motivations and another 8 which examined students'

intrinsic motivations on their learning. The researchers devised a 39-item questionnaire to measure the level of satisfaction and learning motivation of students in a MARA higher learning institute, which were 23 items and 16 items respectively. Items for Student Satisfaction Survey (SSS) were 6-point Likert items ranging between 6 – very satisfied to 1 – very dissatisfied. The items in the MSLQ comprised of 5-point Likert items which ranged from "1 - strongly disagree" to "5 -strongly agree". Since the items were adapted, the instruments were deemed valid.

In terms of data analysis, this research used 1) a descriptive analysis to determine the overall level of students' satisfaction of their learning environments, services and facilities, 2) a t-test was used to ascertain if students' gender influenced their overall satisfaction of the environment, facilities and services provided by MARA, and 3) a structural equation model (SEM) using SmartPLS was used to determine the effect of exogenous variables (satisfaction, services, environment and facilities) on

endogenous variables (motivation for learning).

FINDINGS

Participants' Demographic Information

The demographic characteristics of the respondents (N = 169). The participants were students from the 1) North – Kedah, Perlis, Pulau Pinang, and Perak, 2) South – Johor, Kuala Lumpur, and Selangor, 3) East Coast – Kelantan, Terengganu and Pahang, 4) West Coast – Melaka and Negeri Sembilan, and 5) West Malaysia – Sabah and Sarawak. From the analysis, female respondents tended to be more than males.

Hypothesis 1: Overall satisfaction of students toward management services

Table 1 shows the level of satisfaction of students toward management in relation to their learning. Overall, the mean score for satisfaction was high (mean = 4.17), with a SD of = 0.57.

It was also found that five factors showed a high level of satisfaction with a mean score of >4.01. The highest level of

Table 1

Overall satisfaction of students on their learning environment

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Main Office	4.26	0.67
Registrar	4.54	0.80
Library	4.37	0.78
Campus Environment	4.13	0.76
General Technology	3.47	0.85
Students' Affair Office	4.35	0.85
Overall	4.17	0.57

satisfaction was with the registrar office and services (M = 4.54, SD = 0.80). This is followed by the level of satisfaction with library services (M = 4.37, SD = 0.78). The student affairs office came third showing a value of (M = 4.35, SD = 0.85). The next factor which had a high level of satisfaction was the students' satisfaction with the main office (M = 4.26, SD = 0.67), followed by the level of satisfaction with the campus environment (M = 4.13, SD = 0.76). The findings also showed a moderately high level of satisfaction on only one factor, which was students' satisfaction with 'general technology', which had a mean of >3.01 (M = 3.47, SD = 0.85).

Hypothesis 2: The Differences in Levels of Satisfaction based on Student gender

In order to determine whether there was a significant difference in the levels of satisfaction based on gender, an independent t-test was performed. Table 2 shows the differences in levels of satisfaction according to gender.

The t-test found that Levene's test for equality of variances showed a significant value of F = 1.361 and p>0.05 at p = 0.245. This means that the variances between the mean satisfaction scores for male and female students were equal. The t-statistics obtained showed t-values of -0.690, p >0.05 (p = 0.491), resulting in the acceptance of the null hypothesis that there was no difference in the level of satisfaction based on gender.

Measurement Model

Validity and Reliability. The convergent validity and item reliability of the present study were checked to determine how valid the items were. Normally, it can be achieved by meeting three criteria: (1) the factor loadings of all items should be significant and greater than 0.70, (2) the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) should be greater than 0.50, (3) the composite reliability index for each construct should be greater than 0.70. It can be seen from Table 3 that the convergent validity within this study was satisfactorily achieved, and all the constructs exceeded 0.70.

Table 2

T-test on difference in level of satisfaction based on gender of students

Gender	n	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value
Male	44	4.12	0.528	-0.690	0.491
Female	125	4.19	0.591		

Table 3

Formative Outer Measurement Model Assessment

Construct	Convergent Validity		Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
	Loadings	Composite Reliability	
Technology		0.906	0.828

Table 3 *(Continued)*

Construct	Convergent Validity		
	Loadings	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Techn3	0.90		
Techn4	0.91		
Student Services		0.809	0.681
Stuserv 3	0.74		
Stuserv 4	0.89		
Student Registration		0.942	0.844
stuRegis 1	0.92		
stuRegis 2	0.91		
stuRegis 3	0.91		
Learning Environment		0.870	0.692
SchEnvi 1	0.84		
SchEnvi 2	0.88		
SchEnvi 3	0.75		
Resources		0.809	0.647
AcedRecou 3	0.81		
AcedRecou 4	0.84		
AcedRecou 5	0.81		
AcedRecou 6	0.74		

Structural Model

This study determined predictive values and the effects of exogenous variables (college management services and learning environments) on endogenous variables (student learning motivation) through standardized path coefficients.

Table 4 presents the effects of exogenous variables on endogenous variables. It can be seen from Figure 2, that school environment had an effect on students' extrinsic motivations (β=0.236, p< 0.019) and intrinsic motivations (β=0.257, p< 0.014). Furthermore, student services provided had an effect on students' extrinsic motivations (β =0.249, p< 0.003) and intrinsic motivations (β=0.244, p< 0.001), while the rest of the variables (technology, academic resources, and student registration were found to have insignificant effects on students' extrinsic and intrinsic motivations.

The findings of this study revealed that the students in MARA College had a high level of satisfaction towards their learning environments. More specifically, they
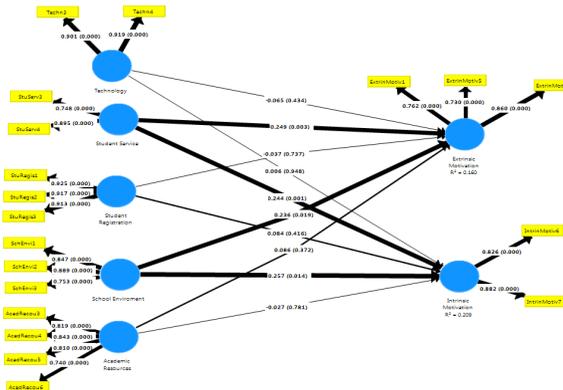
Figure 2. SmartPLS Path Model result

Table 4

Result summary of path coefficient

Variable	Coefficient	Remark	Hypothesis
Technology → Intrinsic Motivation	0.006	Not Predicted	Not Supported
Resources →Intrinsic Motivation	0.086	Not Predicted	Not Supported
Student Registration → Extrinsic Motivation	0.037	Not Predicted	Not Predicted
Technology → Extrinsic Motivation	0.065	Not Predicted	Not Predicted
Student Registration → Intrinsic Motivation	0.084	Not Predicted	Not Supported
Resources →Extrinsic Motivation	0.086	Not predicted	Not Predicted
School Environment → Extrinsic Motivation	0.236	Predicted	Supported
School Environment → Intrinsic Motivation	0.257	Predicted	Supported
Student Service → Extrinsic Motivation	0.249	Predicted	Supported
Student Service → Intrinsic Motivation	0.244	Predicted	Supported

were satisfied with the facilities provided by the college and services offered by the staff who dealt with them on an everyday basis. The students were highly satisfied with services and resources provided by the college's library, the student affairs office, the registrar office, the main office, and the campus environment. Nevertheless, the findings also showed that the students only

had a moderately high level of satisfaction with general technology. The findings were consistent with Larson and Owusu-Acheaw's study (2012), which identified that students were generally satisfied with their learning resources and the services rendered by the staff dealing with them in their learning environments.

The present study also found that the students had moderately high levels of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. This predicted that they had a greater sense of control over their learning performances. The present study also revealed that students' gender had no effect on their levels of satisfaction with their learning environments and their levels of motivation. These results are in line with the findings of Radovan and Markovec (2015), which found students who possessed intrinsic motivations were more confident in their abilities. Nonetheless, this study proved that students' learning motivations were affected by their levels of satisfaction with their learning environments and services provided by MARA. The higher the level of students' satisfaction with environment conduciveness, facilities and the quality of student services, the higher their extrinsic and intrinsic motivations were. This finding supports findings in a previous research that found students' satisfaction and perceptions of their learning environments had an impact on their learning motivations (Akomolafe & Adesua, 2016; Hasan et al., 2013; Lizzio et al., 2002).

Taking into account the above findings, the issue of learning environments, facilities and services should have serious consideration by the Malaysian Ministry of Education (MOE) and especially the MARA Department of Education and Training, due to their connections with learning motivations and enhancements. Learning motivations and enhancements are related to student motivations and satisfaction levels. Thus, student motivations and satisfaction levels should be a priority in order to develop more conductive learning environments, better facilities and services for learning to take place. This issue should not be taken for granted as students' desire to learn and excel in their studies depends on positive learning provisions and quality facilities and services provided.

LIMITATION

With some interesting findings revealed in this study, there are some limitations that should be considered when using the findings as a reference. First, the researchers admitted and acknowledged the fact that, the study was carried out in one the MARA colleges in the Northern part of Malaysia in which generalization of this study findings to other or the entire MARA colleges in Malaysia would be unfair. But notwithstanding, this single study has significantly contributed to the literature and research on quality management service and student satisfaction as well as motivation especially among MARA students.

To the best knowledge of the researchers, there is a scarcity of research on MARA colleges' management services in Malaysia and students' perceptions or learning motivation. Therefore, this study urged further investigation and research to be carried up whether the same problems investigated in this study do exist in other MARA colleges in Malaysia. Furthermore, this study has another limitation in terms of inability of selecting the study sample size using a probability sampling method. This

is an indication again that, there should not be a generalization of the findings.

CONCLUSIONS

The present study was conducted to explore college MARA students' level of satisfaction with their learning environments, such as facilities and services, and its effect on their learning motivations. The study revealed that the MARA learning environments and student services had an effect on MARA students' extrinsic and intrinsic learning motivations. This means that learning environments and student services were high predictors for student learning motivations. The findings of the SEM-PLS were also confirmed by the results of the descriptive analysis which discovered students' level of satisfaction and motivation were high in terms of facilities and services which led to their learning conveniences. In order to facilitate learning and pave ways for student achievement among MARA students in Malaysia, the results of this study could be used as a framework.

Moreover, as long as the core business of education institutions or schools is learning, being aware of what students need or their demands can be considered as a "silver bullet" to identify strengths and weaknesses for further improvements in schools. The results of this study which predicted student satisfaction levels and motivation through learning environments and services, can be utilized to determine what MARA students think and their preferences. The results can also improve the college further. The MARA management team have done a tremendous job in many areas, nonetheless, continuous improvement and quality should constantly occur in order to keep up with 21st century school quality demands, for better quality management practices and for sustainability.

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Gender Issues in Education: Why Boys Do Poorly

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed to determine the gender differences in terms of their learning and educational opportunities particularly on male students in Thailand. Researchers searched for the fundamental aspects of gender bias in educational opportunities from different points of view. Researchers gathered 54 related past studies to investigate the three major gender aspects namely factors that contributing to classroom learning, internal factors within the learners, and other surrounding factors. Content analysis and meta-analysis techniques were employed as systematic researching strategies. According to the results derived from past studies and in-depth interview with experts as well as focus group interviews with male students indicated that there were at least 12 variables that related to the male students' poor learning achievement. These 12 identified variables are ethical behavior, learning skills, attitude towards learning, learning behavior, aggressive behavior, learning hindrance, self-perception, nature or sex drive, social environment, attitude towards sexual relationships, learning ability, and expectation for furthering education. The findings demonstrated the constructive results to the public, educators, and policy makers with an understanding of the gender equality phenomenon in educational opportunities and could facilitate us to perceive the background of the phenomenon so that the solutions for solving traditional practices can be challenged.

Keywords: Educational opportunities, gender equality, learning achievement, learning behavior

INTRODUCTION

The Second World Education Forum which was held in Dakar, Senegal in the year 2000 where nations from around the world renewed their commitment to ensuring all children and adults have the rights to an education through Sixth Dakar Education for All (EFA) Goals (The Dakar Framework for Action Report, 2000). Additionally, an EFA Mid-Decade Assessment (MDA) was carried out in 2005 revealed that there was still a highly unacceptable number of children and adults, primarily girls and women, who were denied their rights to an education in Thailand United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (United Nations Children's Emergency Fund [UNICEF], 2008). According to the EFA-MDA Gender Equality in Education Progress Note in the year 2008, an analysis revealed that school enrollment of boys was significantly lower than those of girls in Malaysia, Mongolia, Philippine, and Thailand (UNICEF, 2008). However, in some countries, the trends pointed in a different direction and gender disparities were at a disadvantage for boys.

Equality as an educational aim is largely a twentieth-century phenomenon. There are four main interpretations of the concept of equal opportunities emerged such as equal life chances, open competition for scarce opportunities, equal cultivation of different capacities, and independence of educational attainment from social origins (Wood, 1987). The concept of gender gap has been introduced in recent years as examination performance has become equated with school and pupil success. The gender gap indicates the ratio of girls and boys studying and passing examinations in particular subjects, where the size and the nature of the gender gap differ according to the subject. Gender policy is aimed at reducing gender gaps overall and gaps have thus narrowed in some subjects in some countries (William, 2000).

An Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) assessment on Thai students' learning achievement in reading, mathematics, and science in 2009 indicated that male students received an average assessment score lower than female students (PISA Thailand Project, 2010). It is clear that these disparities in the disadvantages for male students span across all education levels. The disadvantages for male students in secondary education have become slightly worsened not only in Thailand but also in Malaysia and Philippines. Although there was a significant progress was made in Mongolia during 1999 to 2005, male students' enrollment in secondary education still remains far lower than that of female students (UNICEF, 2008).

Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) 2006 results showed that among students in the fourth year of schooling girls had significantly higher reading achievement than boys in all except two countries, Spain and Luxemburg, where average achievement was equivalent between the sexes (Mullis et al., 2007). Girls' higher achievement in reading was

also observed in studies that assess older students. In the three PISA surveys of 15-year-old, significant differences in favor of females were reported for virtually all European countries.

However, because of the increased emphasis on examination achievement in the recent year and the narrowing of the gender gap in favor of female students, much interest in gender has reverted to concern about the perceived 'underachievement of males' (OECD, 2001). Thus in recent years and in many countries, gender issues in education have come to be equated with boys' relative underperformance in examinations, and a so-called crisis of masculinity.

LITERATURE REVIEWS

Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) reviewed 1400 research studies on sex differences. They concluded that female superiority in verbal skills and male superiority in mathematical skills. Gipps and Murphy (1994) showed that tests which indicated sex differences might not necessarily be accurate in predicting performance or future capacity to learn. The sex differences produced might be due to a particular test itself or the differential responses to it from males and females, for example, its gender bias. Hyde (2005) held that males and females were in fact quite similar to most, though not all, psychological variables.

Halldorsson and Olafsson's (2009) study of Iceland's performance suggested a basic stability in patterns of gender difference over the years but also proposed that girls' relative superiority was due mainly to psychological factors such as their greater affinity with a 'learning culture' while boys performance was more affected by issues to do with (poorer) discipline and behavior. A study comparing the gender outcomes of the PISA studies for Sweden and Switzerland suggested that while both countries performed at the upper end of the international spectrum, Sweden had an educational climate with a higher degree of gender equity (with the exception of reading) (Fredriksson et al., 2009).

The interaction of different social factors can produce quite complex gender outcomes. For example in Spain research on the incorporation and progression of Roma children in compulsory secondary schooling shows that girls face more obstacles than boys in their transition from primary to secondary schools and also gain lower grades than their male counterpart. However, fewer Roma girls than boys leave school early, at the end of schooling twice as many Roma girls as boys remain in the system. It is argued that these school-leaving patterns are related to Roma family discourses which display a narrowed conception of women's roles and therefore make girls' involvement in education difficult. However, girls' later continuance is more to do with their greater motivation for studies and learning (Vassiliou, 2010).

Even when teachers believe that they treat their students equally, they are more likely to chastise male students and pay them more attention, while at the same time creating greater dependency in their female

students (Magno & Silova, 2007). Hence a variety of studies from different countries have shown that both male and female teachers tend to encourage passivity and conformity in their female students while at the same time valuing independence and individuality in their male students (Golombok & Fivush, 1994).

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main aim of this research was to conduct a preliminary study to examine the understanding of the phenomenon on gender-bias in educational opportunities in Thailand. Specifically, this study was aimed to achieve the following objectives:

- To synthesize research variables on male students' low learning achievement and educational opportunities in basic education in Thailand during the past decade.
- To study the fundamental aspects of gender-bias in educational opportunities from the viewpoints of educators and educational administrators at the policy-making level as disclosed by research findings.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In trying to achieve the objectives, this study seeks the answer for the following questions.

What are the research findings on the variables of low learning achievement and educational opportunities of male students in basic education in Thailand over the past decade?

What are the fundamental aspects of gender bias in educational opportunities

from the viewpoints of educators and educational administrators at the policy-making level?

RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

The research framework of this study can be drawn in accordance with the component-relation model and are elucidated in Figure 1 (Appendix A). Researchers have drawn a research framework as the foundation to study the phenomenon of gender bias in educational opportunities against Thai basic education students particularly the male students. In order to explain the phenomenon, the researchers begin by analyzing the data derived from those documents regarding gender and learning, learning behaviors, and educational opportunities to form a research framework for the synthesis of the research work qualitatively and quantitatively. The results from research synthesis will be focused on gender and learning behaviors, and educational opportunities.

At this initial stage of the study, researchers have set the hypothesis on the factors that affecting male students' learning behaviors and educational opportunities such as factors of social identity (Achawanijkul et al., 1996), sex characteristics from the viewpoint of science and behavioral science (Aiewsriwong, 2002; Department of Mental Health, 2010), national development policies through educational system (Fredriksson et al., 2009), social structure (Schoon et al., 2010), the geography or origin, economics, and the institutions of family (Achawanijkul et al., 1996).

Researchers further used the hypothesis created from the initial stage as the fundamental issue for in-depth interviews

with informants from the relevant fields of the study including educational administrators at the policy level. These participants were acquired to make conclusions and recommendations that covered promoting gender quality and educational opportunities matters.

METHODS

Researchers employed an exploratory design because our intention was merely to explore the research questions and did not intend to offer final and conclusive solutions. This type of research is suitable because the problem of the study has not been clearly defined yet in Thailand context. This study was conducted in two phases. The first phase was to explore the phenomenon of gender inequality and educational opportunities according to document analysis on 54 past research findings. The second phase of the study which involved in-depth interviews and focus group interviews was to affirm the findings from the first phase of this study.

Phase 1: Exploring the Phenomenon of Gender Inequality and Educational Opportunities

The method that used in Phase 1 are consisted of content analysis and research synthesis is based on the 54 past researches (refer to Appendix A, Figure 2). Phase 1 consisted of four stages as follows: (i) Analyzing the content contained in theoretical documents about gender and learning, learning behavior, and educational opportunities; (ii) developing a conceptual framework based on the content analysis results for the purpose of synthesizing the

research works; (iii) gathering relevant facts or issues from the past researches concerning gender and learning variables, learning behavior variables, educational opportunity variables, and (iv) studying the effect size through a quantitative research approach using meta-analysis. Besides, those researches that cannot be synthesized by using meta-analysis will be synthesized by means of qualitative analysis. The instruments used in the first phase included a document recording form and a research characteristics recording form. The collected data were analyzed by means of content analysis and effect size calculation. By the end of the first phase, researchers have to create a conceptual framework focusing on gender and learning variables as well as educational opportunities based on the findings.

Phase 2: Affirming Findings from the Created Phenomenon

The second phase of this study was to affirm the findings from the first phase. The second phase involved in-depth interviews with the three experts thus triangulated with the findings from focus group interviews with four male students. Phase 2 was comprised of five stages as follows: (i) The created conceptual framework from the first phase was used to develop interview protocol for the in-depth interviews as well as focus group interviews; (ii) In-depth interviews with three experts who were selected after consulting with the education section, UNICEF Thailand. The selected participants are from the various related fields such as sociology, psychology,

curriculum and learning, and children rights group. They are also holding important positions in the government educational policy-making and politics; (iii) Focus group interviews are carried out with a group of male students in upper secondary schools from private sectors. This group of male students was selected according to their different achievement levels namely high, moderate, and low; (iv) arranging appointments for interviews and preparing interview scripts, and (v) Data collected from the second phase are analyzed by using the principles of similarities and differences thus relate them to created conceptual framework. Results from the comparative analysis between the two phases would be able to draw a conclusion and make policy recommendations for the purpose of promoting gender equality and educational opportunities. The instruments used for the second phase consisted of in-depth interview recording form, a group discussion recording form, and field notes. Both in-depth and focus group interviews are audiotape recording. The collected data are analyzed by means of content analysis.

Participants

Three experts who have involved in the in-depth interview was categorized as Expert A, Expert B, and Expert C were recommended by UNICEF. Our discussion was mainly based on the analysis of data collected from the three experts through their in-depth interviews which were carried out by 8th, 14th and 10th February 2011 respectively. The demographic information of these three experts is presented below:

(i) Expert A is an expert in the field of psychology with a qualification of master degree. His job position is in the area of mass communication. Besides, he is a former advisor to the Deputy Minister of Education thus he has broad experiences in policy planning. He was awarded Diplomatic Protection of Child Rights Award 2009; (ii) Expert B is a sociologist. She is a former Head of Educational Development Program, former Dean of Graduate School, former Associate President on Academic Affairs of Srinakharinwirot University. She obtained a Ph.D. qualification in Sociology and her specialization is in the area of gender study and sexuality, and (iii) Expert C is a psychologist and has a qualification of Ph.D. degree and her specialization is in the area of educational psychology. She is holding a position of Assistant Professor in Department of Special Education, Srinakharinwirot University.

A total of four male students participated in focus group interview which was conducted by 14th February 2011. These male students were selected based on their teacher's discretion on their general academic performance. They were studying in the upper secondary school of Khon Kaen University Demonstration School (Mordindaeng) at the time of data collection. These four male students were selected from three categories namely one from high, two from moderate, and one from low academic achievement.

RESULTS

Results of this study are presented in

accordance with the research objectives that are indicated above. The initial finding is a synthesis of 54 types of research done in Thailand related to male students and their learning. This is followed by the explanation of reasons for gender unequal opportunity in learning. Finally, policy-based recommendations are made for the improvement of gender equality issues.

A Synthesis of 54 Types of Research in Thailand that Related to Male Students and Their Learning Behavior

A total of 54 research works were carried out in Thailand from the year 2004 until 2010. These 54 research works were investigated thoroughly and synthesized by means of a meta-analysis method. General characteristics derived from the 54 past types of research indicated that majority of the research works (90.70%) used the questionnaire to elicit responses from their target groups. On top of that, there was about 90.70 percent of them tested the reliability of their questionnaires by means of a Cronbach alpha coefficient while 96.30 percent of them tested the validity of the questionnaires by means of a content validity analysis. The statistic used for analyzing the data in 96.30 percent of the works was Pearson Product Moment Correlation. Another characteristic found is significant correlation between the studied variables and the male students' learning. In another word, correlation coefficient means classified according to variables which are connected with male students' learning.

The results are revealed into three categories namely factors contributing to classroom learning, internal factors within the learner himself, and surrounding factors. In addition, three groups or 12 variables relating to male students' learning found and each of the variables is presented as follows:

Factors that Contributing to Classroom Learning

Findings of first phase of the study indicated that there are five variables that contributing to classroom learning closely related to male students' learning as follows: (i) Learning ability refers to matters that a learner should take cognizance of and be able to do academically so that he can achieve learning objectives of each subject attempted. For example, the ability to use computer effectively, the ability to solve mathematical problems. (ii) Learning skills refers to a learner's expertise in various aspects such as communication skill, self-adaptation skill, and ready for new learning experience. (iii) Learning behavior refers to a learner' behavioral expression that encourages classroom learning such as the knowledge of how to spend time efficiently, love of reading, adjusting oneself to learning environment. (iv) Learning hindrance refers to factors that hinder learning such as poor schooling background, unwillingness to participate in group activity, lack of concentration for doing learning activities, and (v) attitude towards learning refers to a learner's like or dislike for or satisfaction with the subjects like mathematics, theatrical arts, etc.

Internal Factors within the Learner Himself

Results found that there are five variables

considered as internal factors within the learner himself closely related to male students' learning as follows: (i) Self-perception refers to the learner's self-knowledge of his learning ability as demonstrated in his pattern of learning, the invigoration of his learning, his self-conception, his self-esteem, his belief in his own self-control. (ii) Ethical behavior refers to the learner's action which is done in accordance with social expectations such as self-discipline, sense of responsibility, perseverance, ethical reasoning. (iii) Nature or sex drive refers to sex hormone and physical factors that affecting one's feeling, thought, and other conducts such as showing the desire to lead, to take risk, to use force. (iv) Attitude towards sexual relationships refers to a general attitude towards sexual relationships whether, as a student, one should or should not have sex with the opposite sex and (v) Aggressive behavior refers to violent behavior such as fighting, intimidation, violation of rules and orders.

Surrounding Factors

The results showed that there are only two surrounding factors which closely related to male students' learning as follows: (i) Expectation for further education refers to social pressure on male students to continue to higher education such as family expectation. (ii) Social environment refers to physical environment as well as social psychology that interact with the male students' behavior and characteristics.

After identifying the 12 variables relating to male students' learning, researchers would like to use meta-analysis to derive a pooled estimate closest to the unknown common truth based on how this error is perceived. A key benefit of this meta-analysis approach is the aggregation of information leading to a higher statistical power and more robust point estimate than is possible from the measure derived from any individual study. In performing a meta-analysis, researchers have made choices many of which can affect its results, including deciding how to search for studies, selecting studies based on a set of objective criteria, dealing with incomplete data, analyzing data, and accounting for or choosing not to account for publication bias.

Meta-analysis can be thought of as 'conducting research about previous researches' because meta-analysis can only proceed after identifying a common statistical measure that is shared among the studies referred, called the effect size, which has a standard error so that researchers can proceed with computing a weighted average of that common measure. Such weighting takes into consideration the sample sizes of the individual studies.

Results of the meta-analysis on the 12 identified variables by means of Pearson Product Moment showed that ethical behavior variable obtained the highest correlation coefficient mean of 0.65 while expectation for furthering education variable

Table 1

Corrections coefficient means of factors relating to male students' learning

Factors relating to male students' learning	Correlation coefficient means (S_r^2)
Ethical behavior ($\bar{r}_{c8}$)	0.65
Learning skill ($\bar{r}_{c2}$)	0.62
Attitude towards learning ($\bar{r}_{c7}$)	0.61
Learning behavior ($\bar{r}_{c5}$)	0.59
Aggressive behavior ($\bar{r}_{c12}$)	0.59
Learning hindrance ($\bar{r}_{c4}$)	0.56
Self-perception ($\bar{r}_{c6}$)	0.54
Nature or sex drive ($\bar{r}_{c10}$)	0.53
Social environment ($\bar{r}_{c9}$)	0.51
Attitude towards sexual relationships ($\bar{r}_{c11}$)	0.46
Learning ability ($\bar{r}_{c1}$)	0.35
Expectation for furthering education ($\bar{r}_{c3}$)	0.22
The overall correlation coefficient mean ($\bar{r}$) = 0.44	
Correlation coefficient variance (S_r^2) = 0.07	
Sampling standard error (S_e^2) = 0.002	
Reliability = 0.41	
Effect size = 0.53	
χ^2 = 1.067	
df = 53	
p = 0.001	

showed the lowest mean of 0.22. Table 1 shows the details of the 12 variable means.

Results from the meta-analysis showed the overall mean of correlation coefficient, correlation coefficient variance, sampling standard error, reliability, the effect size, and the χ^2– test which showed a zero variance all pointed to the fact that the effect size deriving from the synthesis of research works is reliable. Therefore, researchers concluded that the relationship between male gender and learning with a correlation coefficient mean of 0.44, a covariance of 19.36 percent (0.442 x 100), a low sampling standard effort of 0.002 and a reliability of the correlation coefficient mean of 0.41 together with the effect size of 0.53 male is related to learning at the 0.53 unit.

Fundamental Aspects of Gender Bias in Educational Opportunities for Male Students

Although the 12 identified variables from the synthesis which are related to male students' learning, it is possible to infer that the factors caused the unequal opportunity for learning are still insufficient to provide a causal explanation as to what role the variables play in the male students' learning and their opportunities for learning. Therefore researchers decided to affirm the reliability of the 12 variables by providing explanations collected from in-depth interviews with experts. These three experts representing various offices and organizations such as communication organizations, private organizations concerning with children's rights promotion, psychologists, sociologists, and educationists. On top of that, researchers also organized a discussion session with a group of secondary students. The collected data from both in-depth and focus group interviews can be used to explain the main reasons for unequal opportunities of male students' learning as follows:

Affirming the Variables that Related to Male Students' Learning

Findings from in-depth interviews found that most of the variables cited are related to male students' learning. Those variables are the factors which can be explained scientifically, psychologically and sociologically, and are interwoven in every part as clearly attested by repeating social occurrences. Scientifically, it is affirmed in accordance with biological principle that males have different type of sex hormone from females'. The hormone activates male students to act in the way that shows their maleness such as love by using force, risk-taking, and strong emotion. Such behaviors which are exclusive to boys are determined by sex hormone and lead further to another psychological explanation which states that male's emotional state is in accordance with physical growth and social experiences one gain at each stage of growth.

However, sociological point of view tends to look at male behavior as a result of family bringing up and training. Families tend to be strict with daughters more than sons in their raising of children. As a result, female students are apt to follow rules and regulations, show higher working discipline, and have a higher learning achievement than male students. This finding also found to be true in a formal schooling environment where strict discipline observation is required and which encourages growth of learning behavior in female and male students.

A Causal Explanation for the Sources of Variables that are Related to Male Students' Learning

According to results from in-depth interviews with the experts and focus group interviews with male students indicated that there are various factors that cause the 12 identified variables to develop and are related to male students' learning. The variables are so related and inter-affected one another that eventually lead to the phenomenon of unequal opportunities for male students' learning. Figure 2 demonstrates the sources

of the variables and their inter-connection, direct as well as indirect (refer Appendix A).

In order to provide a clearer view of the factors, it is necessary to present the results from both qualitative findings derived from in-depth interviews as well as focus group interviews. Researchers have classified the findings into four sources namely social factor, family factor, formal schooling factor, and religious factor.

a) Social Factor

Social factor is the major factor that directly affecting the family and education factors. This social factor was explicitly pointed out by Expert A and Expert C.

> "*A society is a field of discourse in which capitalists utilize all forms of media to reproduce poor male models for youths. They do that with a blatant disregard for social interest and moral-ethical values*" (Expert A).

> "*The display of violent behavior in various forms through male players, not excluding the leading male actors who often act aggressively towards other players, so seeps into the minds of the audiences that they gradually accept the display as normal and that it is right for a male to act in such a violent manner*" (Expert C).

The social factor also includes factors of culture, beliefs, and values for maleness which are increasingly presented in the media as mentioned by Expert A.

> "*…like the picture of law violators who are mostly males through TV/radio news programs, and the pictures that show adventures risk-taking, the willingness to take risk, the fond of employing force through soap operas, news programs, advertisements, feature stories, all lead the audiences to accept as male identity.*"

Thus, social view of male behavior has directly affected the way families bring up their children.

b) Family Factor

It is a direct effect of social factor that causes the illusion among the family to bring up their children without paying due consideration to the nature of a boy. This family factor has been highlighted by Expert B.

> "*Most of the parents look after their daughters very closely while they tend to think that they have to raise their sons to be strong and independent so that they will be able to make a living when they grow up.*"

c) Formal Schooling Factor

Schools are regarded as human-resource producing agency whose apparent aim is to supply the industrial system with its graduates. Most of the governments around the world tend to regard this industry as an essential tool for national development and

for competing with the so-called developed countries. This issue has been expressed by Expert B.

> *"The production of capable, hardworking and patient workers who are able to endure under the pressures of strict rules and orders, and yet not daring enough to leave the confinement prescribed for them, is ideal for the industrial system, hence the process of inculcation of such values into the students' mind by the schools which, under directions from the government, set to produce human resource that go in line with national line of industry-based development. This situation does not facilitate the growth of male students' learning behavior."*

In addition, teachers' inadequate comprehension of the natural temperament of male students is also responsible for the way they organize educational activities that do not facilitate learning, while the family and formal education factors interact with one another in the dependent fashion because the family is influenced by the capitalism-based social process. Expert A explained,

> *"The honoring of smart students by way of dismissing the losers and by giving emphasis to money and profit making has greatly affected the parents' way of thinking. It is conceivable that the parents, wanting their children*

to be able to stand on their own feet in the society, now and then, encourage the schools to organize the education for excellence for their children. However, the organization of education for the sake of academic excellence just does not facilitate learning for male students."

d) Religious Factor

Religious factor that related to male students' learning has been mentioned by Expert A.

> *"Although Thailand is essentially a Buddhist country in which the teachings of Buddhism have trained well the minds of believers, especially the students, to be peace and to be conscious in the conduct of their lives and learning. However, the monks, as the input factor, have never been fully accepted by the schools due mostly to their lack of qualifications and misconduct in some cases. To make matters worse, news of immoral monks' misconduct are publicized every now and then only helps increase the rate of reproduction of a bad model. Beginning from the media it spreads out in the society, to the families and the formal education system as well."*

To recapitulate, the main causes of variables relating to male students' learning including the four factors namely social, family, formal education, and religious

factors have created a common attitude towards boys. This is evident in the more flexible way the families raise their sons but a stricter way for their daughter. On the other hand, the schools reflect the attitude well through their organization of learning activities that disregard male students' nature, for example learning activities that do not seem to be challenging enough to rouse their curiosity, the strict rules and the passive role they have to play when sitting in class. All of these matters are just incompatible with boys' nature whereas girls seem to possess greater patience and learn much better under the same circumstances.

Furthermore, the formal education system is arranged in the way that only the academically excellent students (mostly girls) are honored, does not really leave enough room for the allegedly lazy male students. Instead, they become recognized as raised from the focus group interviews,

> *"...the group of students in the back of the room that the teachers often ignore and don't show much interest in their learning, in contrast to the more attentive girl students in the front rows who normally get greater attention from the teachers."*

It seems that the school guidance office normally should act as an important refuge for the students who need help or as an intermediary between the teachers and male students to help the former comprehend the latter's nature, has failed to perform its task properly. This issue has been informed by Expert C.

> *"Boys who are in trouble are usually referred to guidance teachers only after they have been labeled as 'problem boys' in the eyes of everyone"*

The attitudes of parents, school system, and their treatment to boys have inevitably led them to form a negative concept of themselves. This is because of the pressure from their families and people around them do not allow them to gain their opportunities to display proper learning behavior in their own way. This will cause them to look elsewhere for ways of living a manly life which they cannot find it in the classroom setting as arranged by their teachers. As a result, they go in search for challenging activities that would gain them group recognition such as risk-taking, the use of force and technological utilization, all of which are in line with a male's nature. However, these extramural activities sometimes are unacceptable in the eyes of the adults and often done in vicious places in the surrounding areas.

The lack of a proper male model in the school and society eventually causes a feeling of sex bias in the adults as well as the boys themselves. The adults tend to feel that boys are difficult to train and when they try to admonish them they usually like to cite mischievous behaviors of some other persons. As for the male students themselves, believing that education is not the only avenue to success and the fact that they are males, they feel that there are still many opportunities for them to show off their success and thereby gaining

recognition from others. According to results from focus group discussion showed the way teachers organize learning activities and the way families bring up their sons clearly reflect the feeling of sex-bias against male students.

The close inter-relationship between the factors thus far has proved to be significant sources of the variables concerning male students' learning, therefore, their reactions toward the factors that are related to their learning therefore become more intense in accordance the significance of the factors that affect their learning. Hence, findings indicated that the more intense reaction becomes the greater effect it has on the boys' learning and their being dismissed from the educational system.

Suggestions for Creation of Gender Equality in Educational Opportunities

According to findings from both in-depth and focus group interviews indicated the fact that if the situation gender inequality is to remedied, one needs to provide suggestions to the following causal factors which included related individuals, groups of people, authorities, and agencies as follows:

a) For families

Family is the smallest unit of the child growing since the child was born, they will need to erase their illusions about the upbringing of their children and to rethink about nature and physical, emotional, social, and intellectual development of their children instead and then treat them accordingly.

b) For authorities or agencies relating to family planning

These units will need to organize a continuous campaign to educate young couples who are getting married about the proper way of upbringing their children. The government itself can help by issuing policies or measures for lovers to be trained in parenthood before they are allowed to register their marriage.

c) For formal education system in schools

Teachers who are responsible for organizing learning activities should genuinely understand the nature and learning behavior of both male and female students. Having done that, they should not try to abate their strong bias against male gender and look for learning activities that meet the needs of both male and female students equally. The softening of male rough behavior and the reinforcement of girls' industriousness should be integrated into normal classroom learning activities. This integration would indiscipline male students and makes it easier for them to learn while at the same time encouraging female students to lead and to make better decisions.

The other possible tactic is to create un-bias curriculum without a clear dividing line separating male from female students such as student club activities which open to all students who are interested in the same subjects. The other way to help male students feel that they are not victims of sex bias is to employ communication technology which boys are usually very much interested in as part of learning activities where students

of both sexes have an opportunity to learn together. Teaching how to do housework or handicrafts, traditionally regarded as female's jobs, is another good opportunity for male students to learn along with female students. On the other hand, the female students should be encouraged to engage in sports or do adventurous activities like boys do. All the schools need to keep in mind is that as long as they base school activities on 'having fun' the students will be ready to participate and learn together.

d) For faculties of education

If the faculties can incorporate sexology into their teacher training curriculum they would be able to produce new generations of teachers who know how to organize learning experience that takes into account the equality for students of both sexes.

e) For society

The society represents a wide and complex place where crowds congregate for different purposes. It needs cooperative groups to work together to win a greater space for sexual equality in the society. They might have to scramble for wider space in the media to display pictures of sexual inequality in the society. The academics will have to be bold enough to discuss the inequality in the public. The national, as well as, international organizations or authorities will have to make it known in a concrete form as to where do they stand regarding sexual equality. Although the results of the analysis of the 12 variables clearly demonstrate that they are all closely related to male students' learning and the sources of the variables have been revealed, it does not necessarily mean that solving the problem of unequal opportunities for learning for males is to force.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The overall results of this study demonstrated a constructive phenomenon of gender inequality in educational opportunities which are in line with the previous studies (Halldorsson & Olafsson, 2009; Vassiliou, 2010). Moreover, the results are in accordance with Prasartpornsirichoke and Takahashi's (2013) study. Prasartpornsirichoke and Takahashi found that the northern part of Thailand had severe inequality in education. The results also supported by some theorists' argument that boys are more aggressive than girls that put them at a dominant position thereby creating inequality between the both sexes (Acker, 2006). However, results are contradicted with Mullis et al.'s (2007) study. Mullis et al. found that there was equivalent between the sexes in Spain and Luxemburg.

The phenomenon of inequality in education in which male students get lesser opportunities than the female counterparts in learning as reflected in their poor learning achievement and alarming rate of dropout has not been fully appreciated by the public in general. Nevertheless, it is necessary for the families, schools, and society as a whole at this point to begin to study it carefully and then keep a watchful eye on the change. The present study has attempted to demonstrate the origin of the phenomenon in the hope

that equal opportunities in learning would eventually open to all disregarding their gender. Findings from this study revealed that Thailand is an outstanding case demonstrating a trend which male students have less advantage than female students do. As a result, the recommendation above should be taken into consideration in order to close the gap of gender inequality in education.

The results of this study imply that gender inequality will cause a huge loss of human potential in Thailand if immediate actions are not taken. Gender equality is therefore integral to democracy, development and a human rights system to which all students are entitled. For educational practitioners, the results of this study can be valuable and essential to solve the gender inequality problems, build on good practices and manage human resources to make sure all students can make long-term gains in learning opportunities. Monitoring can assist Thailand education systems focus on equity by identifying those students being left behind and addressing the challenges they face as well as measuring the quality of schooling, and whether the educational system is working efficiently or not.

Ministry of Education, Thailand can make more related research data available to strengthen the national systems. The ministry should also support the schools in using this data to inform policies and more effectively put them into practice. In addition, Ministry of Education should work closely with schools, parents, local community to make national education accountable to ensure an equal and quality education for all students despite their gender. Ministry of Education can help to strengthen local planning and ultimately develop school improvement plans in terms of educational opportunities.

A prominent part of future studies should promote an approach that puts power at the heart of gender and development analysis. Therefore, future researchers should turn a feminist lens on attempts to institutionalize gender through 'mainstreaming' and brought new perspectives to debates on gender in relation to labor, health, environment and participatory development. Educational programs will have to be designed in a way that they can provide accessible and diverse information to bridge the gaps between theory, policy and practice.

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Appendix 1

Phenomena of Gender Inequality in Education Opportunities

Content analysis from principal and theoretical documents

Setting a research synthesis framework

Synthesis of research works quantitatively and qualitatively

Findings on Gender and Learning Behaviour variables and Educational Opportunity variables

Hypothesis

Social Identities; Culture, Values, and Beliefs

Sex characteristics from Viewpoint of Sciences and Behavioural Sciences

National Development Policy through Educational System

Social Structure

Geography / Origin

Economy

Institution of family

In-depth interviews and discussion

Conclusion of variables in Gender and Learning Behaviours and Educational Opportunities and Policy-based Recommendations

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework

Figure 2. Connection between variables

Student's Experiences of Career Counselling and their Perceptions of Outcomes in Rawalpindi (Pakistan) Colleges

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ABSTRACT

The major aim of this study was to explore college student's experiences of career counselling in Rawalpindi city in Pakistan. The objective was also to investigate the effects of career counselling on the career choices of students in the context of Pakistan. The study was conducted by using quantitative research design. Through simple random sampling technique 74 students were selected from private and government colleges of Rawalpindi city. The main instrument used for data collection was questionnaire. The findings illustrate that professional career counselling services were not readily available to the students at college level. Students had to rely on alternative sources including teachers, friends, and family for making decisions regarding career selection. Consequently, Students remained unaware about potential career options. In the light of the findings it is recommended that career counselling should be made available at college level for the larger benefit of college students in the country.

Keywords: Career counselling, career choices, career outcomes, college students, Pakistan, personal grooming

INTRODUCTION

Career counselling is an educational process and its aim is to solve problems of learners (Palmer, 2007). It takes place within a well-planned structure and aims to provide useful decision to the student in terms of future career path (Szilaghyi & Paredes, 2010). The process involves a number of interventions which are central to individuals' "self-understanding, broadening one's horizons,

work selection, challenges, satisfaction, and other interpersonal matters" (Engels et al., 1995). Counselling is primarily a systematic process during which the counsellor having expertise in the field provides professional advice to clients (students). Such services may also be provided by teachers to help students in selection of subjects, making choices regarding employment, further trainings during the course of a career and seeking employment opportunities (Nyan, 2014).

The process of career counselling offers insight, guidance and support to help all grades of students to understand and manage different issues related to career and life style (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization[UNESCO], 2002; Watson, 2016). It assists individuals to identify personal abilities, skills, interests, and values so that they can manage their career in a better way (Patton & Mc Mahon, 2014).Further, the activities during this process enable students to explore, pursue and attain their career goals (Sun & Yuen, 2012). According to Lent and Brown (2012), the purpose of career counselling is to provide assistance to three main issues including implementation of career decisions, guidance in getting used to changes within a career and long term career growth and finally ensuring career transition and achieving balance between work and life.

The foundations of counselling and guidance principles can be traced to ancient Greece and Rome with the philosophical teachings of Plato and Aristotle. There is also evidence to argue that some of the techniques and skills of modern-day guidance counsellors were practiced by Catholic priests in the middle ages. One of the first texts about career options became available near the end of sixteenth century. It was called the Universal Plaza of All the Professions of the World and was written by Tomaso Garzoni in 1626. Nevertheless, formal guidance programs using specialized textbooks did not start until the turn of the twentieth century.

At the beginning of the 20th century Frank Parson developed an approach to helping clients develop an understanding of self and the world. Parson's largely intuitive and experiential foundation of career counselling formed the basis for his establishing the Vocation Bureau at Civic Service House in Boston in 1908; this was the first institutionalization of career counselling in the United States (Ginzberg, 1971). The terms career counselling and career development came into more common usage in the 1950s through the work of Donald Super (1980) and were institutionalized when the name of the National Vocational Guidance Association (1913-1983) was changed to the National Career Development Association in 1984 (Pope, 2000). The field of career counselling as a specialty area has been recognized since the early 1980s with the establishment of career counselling competencies, credentials, and preparation and ethical standards.

The Study Context

The Islamic Republic of Pakistan is a sovereign country located in South Asia. It has a total population of 155.5 million being the sixth most populous country in the world (Government of Pakistan, 2009). Pakistan continues to encounter a number of challenges on both political and economic fronts (Malik & Courtney, 2011). This in turn also affects the education system of the country where free compulsory and high quality education even at primary level remains a target (Government of Pakistan, 2009). Inequalities across education in Pakistan are widespread and include gender disparities and the urban–rural divide (Malik & Courtney, 2011). Though literacy rates have increased from 52.5% in 2005 to 58% in 2016-2017 (Pakistan Economic Survey, 2016-2017) the goal of universal basic education has yet to be achieved (Farah & Shera 2007).

Rationale of the Study

In the context of Pakistan the concept of career counselling is new. According to the traditional cultural traditions of the country the extended family is the one to attend to the needs of young individuals and to take important decisions regarding their future. The idea of seeking assistance regarding education and career is a recent development in the country (Ibrahim & Almas, 1983). Hence, career counselling is an area relatively under researched in Pakistan. The available studies in the Pakistani context on career counselling have focused on attitude of students towards certain professions (i.e.

medicines, engineering) and on the impact of career selection on job satisfaction (Khan et al., 2012; Shahab et al., 2013; Zaidi & Iqbal, 2012).

Rapid advancement in technology has created awareness about higher education, but students find almost no professional guidance for adoption of available careers. So the need for career guidance and counselling in Pakistan has grown significantly during last few years especially for college's students. Taking this as a point of departure this study aims to investigate the availability of career counselling services and their effects on students' choices in selected colleges in Rawalpindi city in Pakistan. This study is significant since it will help policy makers to come up with strategies to assist young minds in the selection of their future goals

Objectives of the Study

The study was carried out to achieve the following objectives:

1. To explore if career counselling services are available for college students in the research area?

2. To investigate if career counselling affects college students' future career choices in the study area.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This paper is inspired by Social Learning Theory as proposed by Bandura (1989). This theory offers valuable theoretical vantage point from which career development in contemporary contexts could be examined. According to this theory a reciprocal

relationship is involved between the social cognitive mechanisms of self-efficacy, outcome expectations and goal setting behaviour. It argues that in the absence of sufficient opportunities traditional methods of career counselling such as examining interest and aptitude may be used yet these are not sufficient as such. According to Bandura et al. (2001) numerous factors including the social context of individuals, their personal aptitude, networking, and educational attainment are involved during this process.

Career counselling has emerged as a practical process in recent years. It interconnects several domains including education work, economy and culture (Cojocariua & Cojocariu, 2015). Research has shown that choosing a major and setting career goals are often among the most difficult decisions that college students face and that for many the challenge lies in identifying courses of study and professions that match their interests and abilities (Morgan& Korschgen, 2013). Research on career counselling illustrates that three major barriers are involved in the way of decision making during the career counselling process. These include unawareness about the presence of employment opportunities; students' promises for the future not being related with their abilities and the skills that they acquire; and absence of clear career plan (Crişana et al., 2015). To address such needs over the years, many career guidance centres have been set up in colleges throughout the world (Nyan, 2014).

Students' perception of being suitable for particular jobs has been found to be influenced by a number of factors including ethnic background, year in school, level of achievement, choice of science subjects, attitudes and differences in job characteristics (Hewitt, 2010; McQuaid &Bond, 2003). Personality, interests, self-concept, cultural identity, globalization, socialization, role model, social support and available resources such as information and financial are other factors that have been reported to influence career choices of students (Kerka, 2000).

College students are also believed to be influenced by factors in career counselling such as home environment/family including parents, relatives, college-related success and failure, teachers, beliefs about teaching and learning, goals, policies and procedures and classroom climate (Overholser, 2005). According to Hewitt (2010) some students simply follow the career choices that are available to them while others choose career that may give high return in terms of income. Hearne (2009) believed that parents played leading role in high-achieving children's college and future career choices. Additionally, college friends and alumni also influence students' decision process.

The benefits of career counselling have already been outlined in the introduction. Career counselling is especially important during early years of schooling and college life since during this time adolescents are interested to explore various opportunities for their future (Gati & Saka, 2001; Super, 1990). This is a time in adolescents' lives

when they tend to be under stress (Taveira et al., 2003) and they rely on others for making decisions for them (Gati & Saka, 2001).

In the absence of professional career counselling services students lack an understanding of their own interests and aptitudes, education and employment options and how to plan for their future (Whiston, 2003). This leads to difficult transition between the different levels of education (Valentine et al., 2009; Vargas, 2004). This is especially true for students from low-income backgrounds, who are not able to best use their time at the educational institutions and link their studies with their career path (McDonough, 2004; McSwain & Davis, 2007).

Previous researches have demonstrated that counselling services whether individual consultations, workshops, trainings, group counselling, can be attractive for students and these can motivate them to participate. However, for this purpose career counselling services should start from real identified needs of the students. A study was conducted in Politehnica University of Bucharest to examine results of career counselling services among students. A comparative approach of the counselling needs of students from study years I, II and III was taken and the career counselling needs of these students were found to differ (Chircu, 2014).

Several researches have been carried out on the significance of career planning for young individuals and the presence of individuals and support group during the career counselling process. For example,

in the context of Africa it was found that parents play an important role during the selection of career. Students in grades 12 through 14 reported that during the career counselling process information about courses and post-secondary information were believed to be useful (Lewis, 1981).

Research on career counselling in the Asian context has highlighted absence of professional career counselling services in schools and colleges. Recent studies have shown that only about two-thirds of the students from poor, rural areas in China finish junior high school and enter high school. One factor that may be behind the low rates of high school attendance is that students may be misinformed about the returns to schooling or lack career planning skills (Loyalka et al., 2013).

A study conducted in India examined the influence of socio-economic backgrounds and social-cognitive environments on career development. This study examined the interaction between career beliefs and socio-economic status within a sample of Indian high school students. Significant socio-economic status differences were observed, with the lower socio-economic status groups showing higher levels of negative career beliefs (Arulmani et al., 2003).

Likewise, a study was conducted in Bangladesh to examine the availability of career counselling services in schools. It was found that there was lack of formal program for guidance and counselling. There was lack of trained counsellor to meet the individual needs of the students in the sampled schools. The services provided

to students were not planned, organized and holistic and were not readily intent for counselling purpose. Moreover, schools did not have any trained personal, solely responsible for such services (Hossain & Faisal, 2013).

In the context of Pakistan a study was conducted in Khyber Pakhtunkwa province to determine the attitude of students towards medical profession. It was found that the decision to choose a career involves a number of factors including personal interest, peer pressure, self-motivation, financial reasons and better quality of life (Shahab et al., 2013). Similarly, a study was carried out to explore the impact of career selection on job satisfaction in the service industry of Pakistan. It identified the factors which are important in the selection of career by the employees of this industry (Zaidi & Iqbal, 2012). Research in the context of Gilgit Pakistan reported challenges faced by students of high school related to career selection. It found that teachers play an important in career guidance of high school students. It was reported that teachers voluntarily act as informal counsellors in guiding students about selection of subjects and career paths (Khan et al., 2012).

Issues relating to the career counselling services have been documented previously in different contexts. Some of these include lack of systematic personalized career counselling; insufficient number of specialists working in the career-counselling centres, the dilemmas of psychologists in the career-counselling activity and the significance of student's needs (Cardoso et

al., 2012; Lee & Johnston, 2001). These are issues encountered by different stakeholders in the already established career centres internationally. However, in the context of Pakistan, the availability of career counselling services remains an issue which needs to be addressed and awareness needs to be raised about its significance for college and university students. This is because career counselling is directly related to providing fit and trained individuals to the economy so the process of career counselling is important for the larger economy and development of countries. It is increasingly becoming relevant to the configuration of the labour world and in the context of life-long education (Cojocariua & Puiub, 2014).

MATERIAL AND METHODS

This research was carried out by using quantitative research design. Quantitative research is a formal, objective, systematic process to describe and test relationship and examine cause and effect interaction among variable (Neuman, 2007). A descriptive survey was conducted in Rawalpindi city in Pakistan. The respondents of this study were students from two education providers including F.G. Degree College located on Abid Majeed road Rawalpindi and Federal Abdali College Misriyal Road Rawalpindi. Out of the five Public and eight Private Colleges in Rawalpindi two colleges were selected (one public and one private) and the major reason for selecting these two colleges was access provided to the researchers by the college administration.

The respondents were selected by using simple random sampling method and purposive technique. Students in their second and fourth year of studies were selected as the population by using purposive sampling technique. This decision was taken considering the fact that these students may be more aware about the presence of career counselling services provided in the colleges and may be able to respond to the questions in a better way compared to new students. Out of the total number of 2nd and 4rd year students in both colleges the sample of 74 male and female respondents was randomly drawn by using Taro Yamni Formulan = N/1+N(e)2.

A self-designed researcher administered questionnaire was used to collect the data. The questionnaire consisted of fourteen items and was designed in the light of study objectives. To unsure validity of the questionnaire a number of measures were taken. For example, face validity was established and the questionnaire was pretested. The responses from pre-test were put in spread sheet and the data was cleaned. Finally the internal consistency of the questions was checked and the questionnaire was revised as needed. The questionnaire comprised questions on background of the students and their awareness about the presence of career counselling services in their respective colleges. It also consisted of questions on outcomes of the career counselling facilities for the students. A five point Likert scale was used in the questionnaire. Ten questionnaires were pretested prior to the final data collection stage. For the final round of data collection21 students (10 females and 11 males) were selected from the private college and 45 (22 females and 23 males) from the government college.

Prior to the data collection stage the selected colleges were approached and consent of the school administration was taken. They were briefed about the purpose of the study and confidentiality of data was assured to them. Measures were taken throughout the data collection stage and writing stage to maintain the confidentiality of the respondents. After the data was collected a systematic analysis was carried out to interpret and make sense of the data and the opinion of the students. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used during the analysis process.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 presents the background data of the respondents who participated in this research study. It shows that the majority of the selected respondents (86%) belonged to the age group of 16 – 19. 61% were enrolled in arts/commerce and 39% were enrolled in science group. The respondents were asked about the pocket money they received on daily basis. The data shows the majority (88%) received Rs. 100 – 1000 per day. 39% respondents lived in nuclear families while 38% lived in joint family setup. 23% reported to be living with single parents. In terms of occupation the parents of 46% were government employees and 54% were privately employed. 96% of the parents (fathers) were reported to be literate and

Table 1

Background information about the respondents

Categories	Percentage	Categories	Percentage
Age		Study Scheme	
16 – 19	86	Arts/Commerce	61
20 – 22	14	Science	39
Pocket Money (Rs)		Family Type	
100 – 1000	88	Nuclear	39
1100 – 2000	7	Joint	38
2100 – 3000	5	Single parent	23
Parents Occupation		Parent's Education	
Government	46	Educated	96
Private	54	Illiterate	4

Source: Survey

04% were illiterate. These characteristics are important to be considered at the onset since these guide if background characteristics of individuals contribute in the process of career counselling.

The findings of this study (Table 2) indicate that the majority (76%) of the students had no awareness about career counselling prior to selection of college. This was especially so for female students compared to male and for students from rural background compared to urban background. This indicates that male students and students from urban centres have more awareness about career counselling services irrespective of the fact that whether career counselling services are provided at college level or not. Likewise students in the fourth year of their studies were more aware about the career counselling services and their use compared to the students in second year of their studies. This identifies the importance of maturity and age in determining awareness regarding career counselling. Additionally, there were differences on the basis of study scheme. Students enrolled in science disciplines seemed to have better understanding of selection of colleges and subjects compared to students enrolled in arts and commerce. This is an interesting finding indicating the fact that perhaps students from sciences already had a clear picture about their potential career that is whether they intended to be doctors and/ or engineers. In contrast students studying humanities and arts were yet to decide their career path.

Table 2 also illustrates the various reasons for the respondents to choose the colleges. Clearly there was no motivation behind the selection process since the majority had no idea how the selection of colleges and courses was linked with future career. Only 31% reported that selection of

Table 2

Selection of college and subjects

Reasons for Choosing College	Percentage	Reasons for Selection of Subjects	Percentage
Personal	31	Considering Job Market	18
Parents/Relatives	8	The Only Option	22
Friends' influence	8	Personal Interest	6
Well Known	15	Motivated by Teachers	2
The Only Option	11	Influenced from Friends	16
Fee Structure/Teachers	32	Parents Suggested	36
Awareness about Career Counselling	Percentage	Satisfaction from College/ Subjects	Percentage
Yes	24%	Yes	54
No	76%	No	46

Source: Survey

colleges and courses was based on personal interest and choice. 15% reported that the colleges they had selected were well known while 11% were candid to report that this was the only place they could get admission because of their low score in matriculation exams.

Similarly in terms of selection of subjects at the time of admission there seemed to be lack of motivation. 36% reported that the parents selected the subjects, i.e. whether they should study pre-medical pre engineering or commerce. 22% reported that the selected subjects were the only ones where admission was available. Regarding satisfaction from the college and selection of subjects only 54% seemed satisfied. They reported that it was not possible to change the college yet they had managed to change the subjects a few times. Here, the relation between the choice of subjects and satisfaction is important point

to consider. Naturally, since for some the decision of subjects was not personal, hence the level of satisfaction from the subjects was also low. The level of satisfaction was also low due to the fact that they had switched subjects a few times.

The majority (90%) of the respondents were of the view that career counselling was available to them at college level through different means and ways but not through career counselling services as such. These means and ways through which the students were advised on their career were further explored and the data is being presented in the following table.

Table 3 presents the kinds of career counselling services available to students at college level after enrolment. It highlights measures taken to facilitate students for their future career by the college administration and students personal attempts for this purpose.

Table 3

Availability of career counselling services

Career Advice Available from Teachers	Yes (%)	No (%)	Other Sources for Career Guidance	Yes (%)	No (%)
Selection of Subjects	52	48	Friends/Seniors at College	58	42
What Jobs to apply for	54	46	Family/Relatives	64	36
How to Apply for Jobs	46	54	Acquaintances at Universities	14	86
How to Prepare for Job Interview	12	88	Self-initiatives Via Internet	82	18

Source: Survey

The study found that no formal means of career counselling services were available in both the selected colleges. Teachers were reported to have prepared students for potential career path. The respondents were asked if they were provided guidelines about the selection of subjects at university after the completion of college studies. 52% replied in positive. They were asked if they were given advice on the kinds of employments they could pursue after university studies and 54% replied that they were provided such guidelines.

The students were asked if they were given advice on how to look for employment opportunities. Only 18% were of the view that such options were available. They were asked if they were trained on how to prepare for job interviews and only 12% replied that such services were provided. These findings show that the selected colleges did make efforts to train students about the selection of subjects and the kinds of employment opportunities that may be available. However, they were not given guidelines about practical applicability of the careers as such which remains an important stage in individuals' lives.

Other sources available for the career guidance of students were reported to be friends/seniors at college (reported by 58%), family (reported by 64%), acquaintances at universities (reported by 18%), and internet (reported to be 82%) in affirmative. These findings indicate that parents and friends played key role during career selection. These findings are also similar to previous study conducted in Pakistan (see Khan et al., 2012).

A deeper analysis of the student's responses to the above categories shows differences on the basis of gender and study level. On the availability of career counselling services more female students reported the availability of guidelines on selection of subjects yet few reported to have been guided on what jobs to apply for. The responses for guidelines about

how to apply for jobs and preparing for job interviews too had very low responses from the female students. This practice reflects the expectations of the Pakistani society where male are expected to serve the job market. According to gender differences on the presence of other sources for career guidelines more female were likely to seek guidelines from family and relatives compared to male while more male seemed to make self-initiatives through the use of internet to explore career options. Analysing the data from the perspective of study level, senior students were reported to have been guided about employment opportunities and were prepared for job market. There were no significant differences related to scheme of study among the responses of students.

The data shows limited guidelines were available for preparing students to meet the challenges of real life. For example students were not informed about the practical application of their degrees and the scope of the careers in practical life. They were not trained as how to prepare for interviews, how to look for employment and how to prepare their personal resumes for job applications etc. This shows that colleges did make efforts to train students about the selection of subjects and the kinds of employment opportunities that may be available to them, yet they were not given guidelines about practical applicability of the careers. These are very important aspects which play vital role in the selection of a suitable career. Nevertheless, through these means and ways students did report to have some clarity about the availability of possible careers in Pakistan and their scope in terms of employment prospects.

Table 4

Career guidance and its outcome in terms of future career choices

Categories	Strongly Agree (%)	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)	Strongly Disagree (%)
Clarity about availability of Careers	66	20	0	6	8
Understanding about what subjects to select	58	22	4	12	4
Clarity about career selection	55	26	0	12	7
Clarity about scope of the career	28	32	10	46	14
Setting goals and strategy to achieve them	25	14	0	42	19

In this research data on the outcomes related with career guidance in terms of future career choices for the students was sought. The opinion of students was taken regarding clarity about careers available to them in the Pakistan after graduation. The data (Table 4) indicates that 66% strongly agreed to the statement. Male students and students from urban background had more clarity about the availability of career options compared to female students. Students from science group also had more clarity compared with arts. Likewise, their understanding about selection of career path at university was sought. The responses show that 58% strongly agreed to the statement. This indicates that majority of the students were confident about career options at university level. Here too male students were more determined about their choice of subjects compared to female who were not sure if they could make it to university level and if so what subjects they may select.

To a statement about clarity about career options after graduation 55% strongly agreed. When their understanding of scope of the careers they intended to select after graduation was investigated 28% strongly agreed, 32% agreed. Again male students had more clarity about career selection and its scope. As explained earlier too this may be largely due to the fact that the Pakistani society expects males to be the breadwinners while the choice of employment for women remains a secondary option. When students' opinion was taken on their understanding of how to set goals and achieve them 25%

strongly agreed, 14% agreed, 42% disagreed and 19% strongly disagreed. This indicates that even though students had clarity about choice of career they were unsure about how to actually set goals and achieve them in future.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The concept of career counselling though is well developed in the western world it is relatively new in the context of Pakistan. This study was conducted with the aim to determine the availability of career advice to students at college level. The respondents of this study acknowledged that prior to the selection of college they did not have awareness about the possible careers options. The professions that they were familiar with included medicine, engineering and teaching. These remain the traditional occupations in the Pakistani society that are respected too. The findings indicate that early education in schools did not prepare students for career selection as such. It is important to have knowledge about different professions from early years of schooling since college is the turning point in student's lives in Pakistan. It is at this stage that students should be able to make important decisions regarding their future careers and strategies to achieve their goals.

The selected colleges in this study did not provide access to professional services and neither did they train students about possible strategies to address the

potential needs of students. There was lack of professional advice available to students at college level both at the time of entry into the college and later on during the course of their studies. The findings indicate that the major sources for career guidance were teachers, peers and parents. During the course of study at the college level career counselling advice was available through teachers only. The students made personal efforts to gain information about possible career paths through internet mostly. Some acquired assistance from acquaintances at university and friends and seniors at college. As a result a large number of students remained unsatisfied. This highlights the challenges met by students in the absence of career counselling services. It also illustrates that the absence of professional and strategic guidelines prevented students from setting future goals and acquiring means to achieve the goals.

This study agrees with the studies of Cojocariua and Puiub (2014), and Lee and Johnston (2001). It supports the idea that career counselling should commence at initial level of student academic career so that their needs are identified and they are advised accordingly. The findings of this study are significant since these are helpful in raising awareness about the career counselling services in Pakistani context and the need to put in place such services in colleges and universities. The study recommends that efforts should be made at policy level to introduce professional career counselling services in colleges and universities to meet the needs of students in the country so that they may be able to contribute to the needs of the labour market in a more productive way.

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Construct Validation of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour in an Asian Context: An Evidence among Academicians in Private Universities in Pakistan

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ABSTRACT

The objectives of the research study were to explore the factorial structure and to establish validities of organizational citizenship behaviour among academicians' working in private universities in Pakistan. Purposive sampling and quota sampling were used for allocating samples of 347 academicians to 21 private universities in the Punjab/Islamabad Capital Territory of Pakistan. Organizational citizenship behaviour consisted of seven items and after exploratory factor analysis all items loaded strongly on one component and were labelled as "Organizational Citizenship Behaviour". The instrument of organizational citizenship behaviour was validated in the Pakistan's context. The one factor solution for the organizational citizenship behaviour construct was also confirmed through PLS (SEM). This study is unique in validating empirically the instruments of Organizational citizenship behaviour in Pakistan's (Asian) context among academicians in private higher education industry. Moreover, because of validated factorial validities of organizational citizenship behaviour researcher can academically differentiate between the factor structure of task performance and organizational citizenship behaviour among academicians in private higher education

industry in Pakistan, instead of mixing up the theoretical domain of two different constructs as a single construct.

INTRODUCTION

Organizational citizenship behaviour is an employee's behaviour which does not directly represent input or output on a job as with task performance, but that does enhance positive interpersonal relations, group cohesion, organizational morale and contributes to organizational efficiency and effectiveness (Broucek, 2011; Podsakoff et al., 2000). It is same across all jobs and it is not a part of the formal job description. The job performance inventory can be seen as a one-dimensional construct at the level of organizational effectiveness, and the behaviours themselves reveal potentially many facets (Spain, 2010). In the 1960s, Katz (1964) divided job performance into two major categories: in-role and extra-role performance. In-role behaviours are related to the written job description of the employees and it is a contractual obligation of employees to perform in-role behaviours (Kahya, 2007). In-role behaviours are also known as task performance (Miao, 2011). Extra-role behaviours are neither a part of the job description nor part of contractual obligations but play a crucial role in achieving organizational goals. Research scholars and practitioners have recognized the importance of employees' behaviours on the job other than task performance. Employers prefer employees who do more than their job description (Maarleveld, 2009). Employees are expected to exert extra efforts and helping each other. Employees are expected to implement and institutionalize ideas and become innovative (Scott & Bruce, 1994). This paper aimed at assessing the construct validity of organizational citizenship behaviour among academicians in a newer context (Pakistan).

Moreover, for the first time this study seeks to define systematically and empirically validate organizational citizenship behaviour within the context of private higher education industry in Pakistan. Construct validation is ascertained to be important measure for ensuring that results from a research are of substantial value to the theoretical domain of any field of study (Johari & Yahya, 2009), thus help to demonstrate the appropriateness and robustness of organizational citizenship behaviour construct. An important justification for the construct validation of organizational citizenship behaviour among academicians in private universities in Pakistan is based upon four reasons: (i) Most studies are adopting global or universal job performance measures as job performance of academicians (Shahzad et al., 2008; Tessema & Soeters, 2006) and ignoring organizational citizenship behaviour as a dimension of academicians' job performance (ii) most of the researches on organizational citizenship behaviour are mixing up dimensions of task performance

with organizational citizenship behaviour and thus not maintaining a clear difference between the two constructs (Amin & Khan, 2009; Awan et al., 2008; Chughtai & Zafar, 2006; Din et al., 2006); (iii) conceptually and empirically, a sound theory of job performance of academicians could only be established if researchers can maintain clear differences between task performance and organizational citizenship behaviour iv) The factor structure of organizational citizenship behaviour of academicians could vary from context to context and thus the measures of organizational citizenship behaviour should be explored before adopting them for further data analysis. In this connection, this study examined the construct validity and psychometric properties of organizational citizenship behaviour instrument. Specifically, the objectives of the study include: i) to assess the structure of construct of organizational citizenship behaviour using the responses of academicians working in private universities in Pakistan. ii) To assess validity properties including content validity, convergent and discriminant validity of constructs of organizational citizenship behaviour using respondents from the private higher education industry in Pakistan. Also, the study seeks to gather evidence or findings on the construct validation of organizational citizenship behaviour among academicians' in private universities in Pakistan's context based on following research questions. i) What is the factorial structure of organizational citizenship behaviour construct in the private higher education industry in Pakistan's context? ii) Do measures of the organizational citizenship behaviour construct have good validity properties to be used for future studies in Pakistan?

This paper is organized into seven sections. First section presents general introduction of the topic. Second section represents research questions and research objectives. Third and fourth sections present the conceptual and operational definitions of organizational citizenship behaviour along with literature review. Section five and six discusses the methodological techniques, procedures employed and data analysis in the study. Seventh section presents and discusses results along with theoretical managerial implications.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

The importance of organizational citizenship behaviour among employees and employers is increasing at a rapid pace. Because of changing organizational structures, global competition, team-based organizations, downsizing and customer service orientation. The common view of job performance is limited to task performance only. It is because of commonly used job analysis methods which always results in task dimensions. Researchers such as Borman and Motowidlo (1993, 1997) focused on a separate construct of performance, namely citizenship performance. Citizenship performance refers to all activities such as helping others with their jobs, supporting the organization and volunteering for extra work or responsibility (Motowidlo, 2000).

Barnard (1938) should be considered as the pioneer in identifying employee citizenship behaviours like the cooperation of the organization's members with each other. Katz (1964) and Organ (1988) also recognized the importance of organizational citizenship behaviours and accepted the importance of citizenship performance as extra-role performance or discretionary behaviour for the smooth functioning of an organization. This definition of organizational citizenship behaviour is closely related to the elements of citizenship performance discussed by Borman and Motowidlo (1997). Organizational citizenship behaviour is quite distinct from task performance. Task performance varies from job to job. However, organizational citizenship performance stays the same for every job. It is not the part of the job description, but peers, boss and subordinates expect cooperation and helping behaviour from each other (Organ & Paine, 1999).

However, there are three categories of organizational citizenship behaviour in the literature: organizational obedience, organizational loyalty, and organizational participation. Organizational obedience focuses on accepting and obeying formal rules and regulations of the organization. Organizational loyalty means putting organizational interests above personal interests and organizational participation means participating in different organizational tasks (Graham, 1991). Organizational citizenship behaviour is oil in the social machinery of the organization. The individual's willingness to contribute to the organization is indispensable (Dipaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

Activities such as volunteering or cooperating are the same for different jobs (Borman et al., 2001). The concept of organizational citizenship behaviour/performance is derived from organizational citizenship concepts (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988) and later on (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997) contributed to the debate on organizational citizenship behaviour, introducing the concept of contextual performance to the literature.

Ahmadi et al. (2010), in a study in Iran, described organizational citizenship behaviour not as a job qualification. It is also not required as a part of the job, nor could it be considered as part of the "good soldier syndrome".

Belogolovsky and Somech (2010) investigated the organizational citizenship behaviour of teachers and it was defined as all helping behaviours extended to colleagues, supervisors, and students. The researchers further concluded that task performance is not enough for the achievement of organizational goals. A model based on organizational citizenship behaviour was retested in Korea (Young, 2010). The model studied the relationship of organizational justice and perceived organizational support with respect to organizational citizenship behaviour and pointed out that organizational citizenship behaviour was a vital source of organizational effectiveness. Organizational citizenship behaviour with respect to transformational leadership styles was investigated by

Givens (2008). The study further pointed out three characteristics of organizational citizenship behaviour, namely; positive benefits of organization and organizational employees, positive effects on employee behaviours and positive, selfless behaviours. The study concluded that organizational citizenship behaviour plays a critical role in the effectiveness of employees and the organization.

Organizational citizenship behaviour was studied in China by Miao and Kim (2010) who found and admitted that organizational citizenship behaviour had not been studied in a wider cultural context. Also, in India, the influence of organizational culture on organizational citizenship behaviours was studied (Mohanty & Rath, 2012). It was concluded that organizations cannot afford to follow only the prescribed behaviour of employees; the employees have to act beyond the call of duty. Organizational citizenship behaviour, though not recognized by the formal reward structure of the organization, has a lot to offer for the better working of the organization. The critical link between organizational citizenship behaviour and employee engagement was explored in human resource management practices in different organizations (Mansoor et al., 2012). They took organizational citizenship behaviour as a mechanism to increase resources and productivity of the resources through creative and innovative ways.

Organizational citizenship behaviours were studied in a Japanese organization by Ueda (2012). The researcher studied the effect of job involvement, organizational commitment, and collectivism on organizational citizenship behaviour by collecting data from 131 professors and clerical workers in a private Japanese university. It was noted that the Japanese employees did not view the boundary between their job and extra role performance (Ueda, 2012). Among Iranian nurses, the relationship of organizational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction was studied (Dargahi et al., 2012). The research design was cross-sectional, covering 510 nurses from 15 teaching hospitals in Tehran. Sportsmanship, civic virtue, conscientiousness, and altruism were considered to study organizational citizenship behaviour among the nurses (Dargahi et al., 2012).

Dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Researchers summarized and reconfigured various dimension sets of contextual performance and renamed the performance domain as organizational citizenship performance. Coleman and Borman (2000) assembled a list of all dimension sets that belonged to organizational citizenship behaviours' studies, pro-social behaviour model studies and model of soldier's effectiveness. The 27 dimensions and definitions were sorted into different categories in accordance with their content. Moreover, 44 industrial psychologists were involved in the sorting process. Through sorting solutions, a pooled similarity matrix was developed, and the indirect similarity correlation matrix was developed (see

Borman & Brush, 1993 for the description of this method).

Factor analysis, and multidimensional scaling analysis, cluster analysis, was conducted and an agreed three factor solution emerged (Coleman & Borman, 2000). The three-category system was then converted into a three dimensional model of citizenship performance (Maarleveld, 2009). These factors were: (a) personal support (b) organizational support (c) conscientious initiative focused on the elements of volunteering and extra effort (Maarleveld, 2009; Motowidlo, 2000). Personal support represents the single dimension of helping others. Organizational support represents the different facets of supporting-the-organization and conscientiousness, and conscientious initiative covers elements of volunteering and extra effort (Maarleveld, 2009; Motowidlo, 2000). As far as factor structure of organizational citizenship behaviour is concerned Sesen et al. (2011) reported that the one-factor solution was the best solution. Moreover, Hoffman et al. (2007) went through OCB literature and tested whether the OCB dimensions fitted the five factors, two-factor or one-factor model. They reinforced the argument that the one factor solution was the best solution.

To measure employees' organizational citizenship behaviour, in this study, a seven-item scale developed by Koys (2001) based on the Organs (1988) five-dimensional taxonomy was used. Each item represented one of the five dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour constructs: altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy,

and civic virtue. Organizational citizenship behaviour is measured on a five-point Likert-type scale from (1) "Strongly Disagree" to (5) "Strongly Agree".

METHODOLOGY

For pilot study, forty-five questionnaires were returned out of 65 from the permanent faculty members of different universities in Rawalpindi and Islamabad. Five of the questionnaires were partially completed and therefore discarded. The test of internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) was conducted to assess the reliability of each of the measures used in the questionnaire. All the measures demonstrated an adequate level of internal consistency reliability. The internal reliability was 0.885 for the measure of organizational citizenship behaviour. The target population in this research is all the academicians (professors, associate professors, assistant professors, lecturers) working in the private universities of Pakistan. There are all together 43 HEC recognized private universities in Pakistan. The choice of 21 private universities located in the Punjab/Islamabad Capital Territory out of total 43 universities in Pakistan was based on Purposive sampling technique. Therefore Punjab/Islamabad Capital Territory was chosen through purposive sampling technique, as data was accessible from these regions of Pakistan. Most private universities were in the Punjab province/Islamabad Capital Territory regions, which have a sufficient proportion of the population in this study. Moreover, Punjab is the largest province of Pakistan

with 65% of the population of the country (Ahmed & Ahsan, 2011).

Moreover, Punjab and Islamabad Capital Territory have the highest literacy rates in Pakistan, which are 62% and 86% respectively (Higher Education Commission [HEC], 2013b). The 21 private universities in Punjab/Islamabad Capital Territory have accommodated the largest numbers of academicians in the country as permanent employees (HEC, 2013a). As such, total population and sampling error tolerance were used to calculate the minimum sample size through Israel's (2009) formula**:** n= N/ [1+N (e^2)] was used. Using a sampling error

tolerance of 5% and a total population of 2,618, the formula generated a minimum sample size of 347 participants. To achieve a representative sample, 21 subgroups were created based on the 21 private universities' total population of 2,618 academicians. The sample of 347 academicians was allocated to the 21 private universities' academicians on the proportionate population basis (quota sampling). Thus, a representative sample size of 347 academicians from 21 private universities was achieved for further data analysis in this research as shown Table 1.

Table 1

Sample allocated to private universities of Punjab/Islamabad capital territory of Pakistan

Sr. No.	Private Universities in Punjab/ Islamabad Capital Territory	Population	Sample
1	Beacon National University Lahore	76	10
2	Foreman Christian College University	174	23
3	Gift University Gujranwala	55	07
4	Hajvery University Lahore	197	26
5	Hitech University Taxila	69	09
6	Lahore Leads University	48	06
7	Lahore School of Economics	46	06
8	Lahore University of Management Sciences	118	16
9	Minhaj University Lahore	152	20
10	Qarshi University Lahore	11	02
11	Superior University Lahore	312	41
12	University of Central Punjab Lahore	170	23
13	University of Faisalabad	116	15

Table 1 *(Continued)*

Sr. No.	Private Universities in Punjab/Islamabad Capital Territory	Population	Sample
14	University of Lahore	61	08
15	University of Management Technology Lahore	185	25
16	University of Wah	87	12
17	University of South East Asia Lahore	62	08
18	Foundation University	191	25
19	Riphah International University	365	49
20	University of Emerging Sciences	78	10
21	Tameer-e-Millat University Islamabad	45	06
Total		2618	347

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

A total of 380 questionnaires were administered to the academicians included in the sample size to overcome the probable loss or misplacement of questionnaires. The questionnaires were administrated based on proportionate allocation which used a sampling fraction in each of the universities that was proportional to the total population of 2618 academicians. Finally, within a period of approximately 4 months, data was collected equivalent to the size of the sample on the measures of organizational citizenship behaviour. The descriptive statistics of all the variables involved in this research are given in Table 2.

Table 2

Items codes and descriptive statistics (N=347)

Variables	Content	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Organizational Citizenship Behavior					
OCB1	I manage to help other workers when they are in need.	3.9683	0.86126	1	5
OCB2	I willingly give of my time to help others out who have work-related problems	3.9078	0.86527	1	5

Table 2 *(Continued)*

Variables	Content	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Organizational Citizenship Behavior					
OCB3	I work to exceed the role requirements.	3.8588	0.89002	1	5
OCB4	I obey department/ organization's rules, even if no one is watching.	3.9914	0.92645	1	5
OCB5	I work with a "can do" attitude.	3.9251	0.89645	1	5
OCB6	I treat my co-workers with respect.	4.1297	0.94221	1	5
OCB7	I work with a sense of responsibility for our success.	4.0893	0.88701	1	5

Exploratory Factor Analysis of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

In the first run of EFA based on PAF on the variables of organizational citizenship behaviour, it was necessary to examine the correlation matrix of the items of the constructs of organizational citizenship behaviour, it was discovered that items OCB1, OCB2, OCB3, OCB4, OCB5, OCB6, and OCB7 have comparatively strong correlations >0.3 with other items (Field, 2009), as shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Inter-item correlation matrix of OCB

	OCB1	OCB2	OCB3	OCB4	OCB5	OCB6	OCB7
OCB1	1.000						
OCB2	0.531***	1.000					
OCB3	0.450***	0.523***	1.000				
OCB4	0.365***	0.497***	0.514***	1.000			
OCB5	0.353***	0.393***	0.421***	0.514***	1.000		
OCB6	0.432***	0.348***	0.318***	0.501***	0.508***	1.000	
OCB7	0.446***	0.372***	0.386***	0.448***	0.430***	0.626***	1.000

**Note: ***Correlations are significant at P< 0.001(2-tailed)

The next step was to determine if the data are adequate for EFA and if the sample size is adequate for EFA. This objective was accomplished by the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity. The results of these two procedures are also shown in Table 4.

The KMO measure of sampling advocacy was acceptable (0.849) and Bartlett's test of sphericity produced significant results. The results demonstrated that the variables used to measure the construct of organizational citizenship behaviour can be factor analysed. Further, the second run of EFA was carried out on the variables OCB1, OCB2, OCB3, OCB4, OCB5, OCB6 and OCB7 while PAF extraction and Oblimin rotation was performed on these variables. Only one component was extracted, and the resulting component loadings are shown in Table 5.

i. There is a number of indications that supports a one factor solution. The total variance explained is 52.595% for only one factor recording an eigenvalue above 1.

ii. Factor analysis showed that only the first eigenvalue (3.682) was larger than the corresponding values generated from a random data set.

iii. The examination of the Scree plot also suggests a one factor solution (Figure 1).

iv. Inspection of the component matrix table shows all items load strongly on one underlying component (all above 0.5).

Table 4

KMO and Bartlett's Test results for OCB construct

| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.849
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	90.562
	df	21
	Sig.	0.000
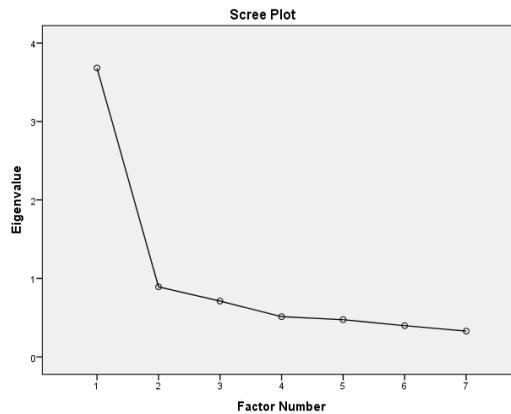
Figure 1. Scree plot for OCB construct

Table 5

Factor matrix for the components of OCB

Sr. No.	Items in the Scale	Component
		1
OCB1	I manage to help other workers when they are in need	0.636
OCB2	I willingly give of my time to help others out who have work-related problems.	0.661
OCB3	I work to exceed the role requirement.	0.647
OCB4	I obey department/organization's rules, even if no one is watching.	0.717
OCB5	I work with a "can do" attitude.	0.653
OCB6	I treat my coworkers with respect.	0.687
OCB7	I work with a sense of responsibility for our success.	0.678

The study used PLS structural equation modelling (SEM) to estimate its theoretical model using the software application SmartPLS (Ringle et al., 2005). PLS (SEM) is based upon two multivariate techniques including factor analysis, and multiple regressions. The assessment of the measurement model, or the outer model is the first important step in PLS analysis. Measurement model is concerned with determining the goodness of measures or the questionnaire items. The two main criteria used in the PLS analysis to assess the measurement model include reliability and validity. Reliability test tries to find how consistently a measuring instrument measures the concept it is supposed to measure. Whereas the validity tests try to find out how well an instrument measures a concept it is designed to measure. The Cronbach's Alpha, Composite Reliability, convergent and discriminant validities of the instrument used in this study are evaluated using the approaches developed for a PLS context by Fornell and Larcker (1981).

Convergent Validity

Convergent validity is referred to as "the degree to which multiple methods of measuring a variable provide the same results" (Gefen & Straub, 2005). It is demonstrated when each of the measurement items loads with significant t-values on its latent construct at least at the 0.05 significance level and each average variance extracted value is greater than 0.50 (Hair et al., 2006). In the first run of PLS, the AVE values of organizational citizenship behaviour were computed. All items of organizational citizenship behaviour construct loaded significantly on their respective factors, which indicate stronger indicator loadings. As indicated by the Table 5. Gefen and Straub (2005) had reported that loadings in

PLS could be as high as 0.50. Composite reliability and Cronbach's Alpha values exceeded the minimum threshold value of 0.70. Moreover, the results demonstrated that the AVE for organizational citizenship behaviour exceeded the acceptable value of 0.50 (Gefen & Straub, 2005), which was indicative of stronger convergent validities for all these scales. It is also recommended that if the AVE value is less than 0.50 but

composite reliability is higher than 0.60, the convergent validity of the construct is still established (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2011). The final significant factor loadings, composite reliabilities, Cronbach's Alpha reliabilities and AVE value for the construct of organizational citizenship behaviour are presented in the Table 6.

Table 6

Items loadings, scales' reliabilities, discriminant validities and convergent validities

Constructs/ Items	Loadings	T-Values	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha	AVE
Organizational Citizenship behavior			0.885	0.850	0.525
OCB1	0.688066	14.768			
OCB2	0.708239	16.550			
OCB3	0.687832	16.956			
OCB4	0.764734	25.902			
OCB5	0.712412	17.411			
OCB6	0.756914	18.908			
OCB7	0.750531	22.793			

Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity is "the degree to which measures of different latent variables are unique, i.e., the variance in the measure should reflect only the variables attributable to its intended latent variable and not to other variable and not to other latent variables" (Lehmann, 1988; Farrell, 2010). Complementary to convergent validity, discriminant validity is demonstrated by two factors: (i) When the measurement items show an appropriate pattern of loadings in which the measurement items load highly

on their theoretically assigned factor and not highly on other factors, and (ii) when the square root of AVE for each factor is larger than any pair of its correlations with any other factor. The results of the discriminant validity analysis of organizational citizenship behaviour construct shows a high square root of AV (i.e. All measurement items of organizational citizenship behaviour showed appropriate pattern loadings, i.e., that each item loaded higher on its principal construct than any other constructs. Further, the cross-loadings of organizational citizenship behaviour based on the PLS algorithm were

higher than EFA results demonstrated in the earlier sections, and the magnitude of loading differences between the loading on the principal constructs, and any other loadings were higher than the suggested threshold of 0.1 (Gefen & Straub, 2005).

The inter-factor correlations and their comparison with square roots of AVE values along the diagonal correlation matrix is an evidence of enough discriminant validity for all latent variables in this study. Fornell and Lacker (1981) tested for discriminant validity and also revealed relatively high variances extracted for each factor compared to the inter-scale correlations, which was an indication of discriminant validity of all constructs. The result of discriminant validity analysis of organizational citizenship behaviour construct shows a higher square root of AVE (i.e. 0.727). This established an evidence of discriminant validity for the construct of organizational citizenship behaviour.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

OCB consisted of 7 items and after EFA all items loaded strongly on one component and were labelled as "Organizational Citizenship Behaviour". This was in line with Podsakoff et al., (1990). Also, Sesen et al. (2011) reported that the one-factor solution was the best solution. Moreover, Hoffman et al. (2007) went through OCB literature and tested whether the OCB dimensions fitted the five factors, two-factor or one-factor model. They reinforced the argument that the one factor solution was the best solution. Thus, the Western researchers' conclusion was authenticated more in this thesis by validating a one-

factor solution of OCB in an Asian context. However, Kandlousi et al. (2010), in a study on an electrical manufacturing company in Iran, found that the results of EFA indicated a five-factor solution, which was inconsistent with the EFA results for OCB in this research. Along the way, among Malaysian hotel employees, self-rating of OCB generated a new dimension of OCB as "efforts expended" (Khalid et al., 2009). This was because of additional items added in the inventory of OCB represented as efforts expended.

The one factor solution for the OCB construct was also confirmed through CFA. The facets of conscientiousness and courtesy emerged as strongest with highest loadings of 0.764 and 0.756 respectively. Nonetheless, the results of CFA on OCB are consistent with Koys (2001) study which created a single dimensional 5-item OCB scale based on one item from each of Organ's (1988) five-dimension scales. This was also in line with studies conducted by Miao (2011). OCB was also established as a separate construct by Young (2010) in Korea which also supported the conclusions drawn in this study for the OCB construct. However, the results are inconsistent with Bachrach and Jex (2000), which also reported Organ's (1988) dimensions as separate scales. Thus, the meaning of OCB varies from study to study and it can use multiple behaviours and dimensions, or it can target on only one dimension, yet it could be labelled as OCB (Moon et al., 2008).

Theoretical and Managerial implications

This study is unique in validating empirically the instruments of OCB in Pakistan's (Asian) context among academicians in private higher education industry. Moreover, because of validated factorial validities of organizational citizenship behaviour researcher can academically differentiate between the factor structure of task performance and organizational citizenship behaviour among academicians in private higher education industry in Pakistan, instead of mixing up the theoretical domain of two different construct as a single construct. Generally, in the extant literature, the factor structure of OCB in this research corroborates the factor structure in Asian and Western contexts which favours a one-factor solution for OCB. The existence of multi-dimensional job performance in private universities is urging Asian managers to evaluate employees' behaviour, not only on task performance, but also on other dimensions of job performance like OCB for organizational effectiveness. The challenges of globalization in education industry can be met through varieties of job performance (Wagner, 2014). Practitioners can also help scholars provide more empirical evidence of demonstration of OCB. This can be accomplished through the redesigning the HRM practices in accordance with the multi-dimensional nature of the construct of job performance. The hiring, compensation, and assessment practice in private higher education industry should be aligned with OCB. The identification of potential academicians with tendencies of OCB and aligning OCB with compensation programs are some of the HRM practices that influence the constructs investigated in the present thesis (Ozturk, 2010).

Nonetheless, practically, some researchers have warned practitioners about the negative side of OCB. OCB could originate from self-serving and self-monitoring intentions which can give rise to impression management in an organization (Bolino et al., 2006). Individual performance appraisals could be damaged because of the OCB of others. Further, continuous demonstration of OCB could give birth to limitless expectations from the managers (Sesen et al., 2014). Thus, managers in private education industry should be aware of possible harmful effects of OCB. In the long term, expecting more OCB from academicians could give rise to "escalating citizenship behaviour" and could further developed as a phenomenon of "social loafing" (Sesen et al., 2014). Managers in the private universities in Pakistan should be aware that escalating OCB from academicians could also be at the expense of not focusing on the development of students, knowledge and innovation but spending most of the time managing recurring impressions to keep one's job intact. In developing countries like Pakistan where job mobility is low, OCB can become a bounded obligation and labour of employees. In the longer run the organization can coalesced into a criminal enterprise, run by blackmailed employees bending down to their supervisors.

Excessive demand of OCB gives extra room to incompetent and morally low people to be hired and retained by their supervisors. In a top down structure, the value of task performed becomes worthless and value of heads of organizations and departments become higher. The relationships with supervisors become more important than the relationships with the task performed. Thus, flattery and bounded yesmanship would be counted, among employees and their bosses, as organizational citizenship behaviour and task performance.

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The Cultural and Academic Background of BIPA Learners for Developing Indonesian Learning Materials

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ABSTRACT

Indonesian for foreign learners is one of the Indonesian language learning program that is devoted to foreign learners. This program is often called by the name of BIPA. Many foreign learners in Indonesia are studying Indonesian language in BIPA program. The study outlined in this article aimed to describe the cultural and academic background of BIPA learners. The description was used as a guide for selecting and developing teaching materials, specifically teaching materials for developing a communication literacy in learning BIPA. This research was conducted by a qualitative method. Participants of the research were foreign learners and instructors who were involved in BIPA program. The data research were the information about the origin country and the academic background of the learners, the levels of learners' competencies, and their needs in learning the Bahasa Indonesia. The data were collected by interviews, study documents, and observation. Based on the result of data analysis, the research found that BIPA learners who learnt Indonesian had the various cultural and academic background. They had different experiences and goals in learning Indonesian language. According to the differences, learning materials of language skills and Indonesian cultures are the main subjects that need to be taught and trained to them for the development of communication literacy.

Keywords: BIPA learners, communication literacy, learning BIPA, teaching materials

INTRODUCTION

BIPA is the acronym of *Bahasa Indonesia untuk Penutur Asing* (Indonesia language for foreign learners) that is one variant of the Indonesian language designed specifically for foreign learners. The characteristics of BIPA are in accordance with the characteristics of foreign learners who study it. The diversity of learners' motivation and culture needs to be deeply understood by BIPA teachers. The more thorough the teachers understand the differences, the better chance they have of meeting the diverse learning needs of all of their learners (Moo, 2016).

The variety and complexity of BIPA teaching materials need to be adapted to the competence and cultural background of the learners. Indonesia language for foreign learners is basically a second language or a foreign language because the language is learned after BIPA learners master their first language (Leung & Scarino, 2016). Therefore, the developing and structuring BIPA learning materials need to be adjusted to the level of learner ability. The materials need to be organized based on cultural theme units that are packed communicatively and integrated.

In learning BIPA, foreign learners are positioned as learning subjects who actively use and practice the Indonesian language in communication. Therefore, the selected learning materials must be the meaningful materials that potentially and functionally can be used in communication. Suyitno (2017) explained BIPA learning material needed to be selected based on (1) aspects of learning objectives, (2) practicality and visibility for communication, (3) flexibility, (4) meaningfulness, and (5) diversity. The results of the research conducted by Bardovi-Harlig (1999) and Kasper and Schmidt (1996) suggested that the mastery of grammatical material did not guarantee the ability of learners to communicate significantly.

Communication literacies are the main target that must be achieved by foreign learners in learning BIPA. Based on the opinion stated by LoCastro (2001), we can explain that learning BIPA can be said to be successful if BIPA learners can use the Indonesian language well in real communication. The paradigm changes the research focus of language learning from the linguistic studies to social and cultural studies in learning (Franson & Holliday, 2009). Based on the result of the study of language learning, we assumed that the criteria that need to be considered in the selection of BIPA learning materials are the suitability between the level of learner ability, the goals to be achieved, and the interests or preferences of the learners (Duff, 2008). Therefore, to plan instructional materials that ensure learners have language literacy skills, the development of teaching materials that match the characteristics of learners, learning objectives, and learning needs must be developed. This can be done if there is comprehensive empirical data about the characteristics of BIPA learners. The aims of the research are to describe and map the condition of BIPA learners and teaching materials used in BIPA learning.

METHOD

The subjects of this research were BIPA teachers and learners in Universitas Negeri Malang (UM) Malang, Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta (UNY) Yogyakarta, Universitas Indonesia (UI) Jakarta, and Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia (UPI) Bandung. The research data is in the form of information about (1) entry level of BIPA learner competence in the Indonesian language, and (2) need of relevant BIPA teaching materials and can improve language proficiency and cultured Indonesian BIPA learners. The data resources were field notes obtained through observation, notes of questionnaire results, interviews, and documents. The information is used for the development of prototype model of development of BIPA teaching materials. Analysing data was done through procedures: selecting data, organizing data, and presenting data in both table and description.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The Country of Origin of BIPA Learners

The research findings showed that BIPA learners come from various countries. Of the 4 universities targeted for the study, it was noted that in the last 3 years, the number of foreign learners studying was as many as 267. Of the number of learners, it was known that most BIPA learners come from the United States, i.e. as many as 90 learners (33.71%). After the United States, most learners come from Thailand with 59 learners with a percentage of 22.10%. The complete data are shown in Table 1.

Tabel 1

The country of Origin of BIPA learners

No	The Country of Origin	Sum of Students	Percentage
1	Amerika Serikat	90	33.71%
2	Thailand	59	22.10%
3	China	15	5.62%
4	Madagaskar	15	5.62%
5	Usbekistan	11	4.12%
6	Libya	9	3.37%
7	Korsel South Korea	8	3.00%
8	Poland	8	3.00%
9	Jepan	7	2.62%
10	Papua New Guinea	7	2.62%
11	Palestin	6	2.25%
12	Netherland	2	0.75%
13	Australia	1	0.37%

Based on the data in the Table 1, it can be said that the Indonesian language and culture are in great demand by foreign learners from both Asia and America. BIPA learners who come from different countries bring their own culture so it is possible for cultural diffusion. Cultural diffusion can be a source of trouble for BIPA students if they do not have a cultural understanding and cannot accept the cultural differences. Therefore, in the BIPA learning program, the great attention to learning management in order to avoid cultural conflicts is needed. Sharma and Jung (1985) explained that cultural diffusion, especially in the field of international education, got a lot of attention. Increased interaction among nations in the world with increased means of transportation and communication has brought many communities preliterate and emerging into global contact. US higher education institutions through exchange programs allow international learners from all over the world to study at American universities.

Learners from different countries show different characters in learning BIPA. The difference is due to the cultural background that the learner has. Due to the diversity of BIPA learner characters, Lentz as cited by Sharma and Jung (1985) stated that learners with international insights had a different character from BIPA learners who had only national insight. International BIPA learners have the following characteristics: (a) not prejudiced against persons from other countries, (b) not very antagonistic towards ethnic and racial groups, (c) more

enthusiastic about liberal and social views, and (d)) are more sympathetic to people in unfavourable circumstances. Meanwhile, Smith and Rosen as cited by Sharma and Jung (1985) revealed that individuals with only national insight were narrow-minded and tended to exhibit resistance to others.

In learning BIPA, the cultural background becomes an important factor to be considered by BIPA teachers. Cultural differences are closely related to learning styles and how they communicate. In terms of intercultural communication, there have been many studies that examine the patterns of communication between nations, between ethnic, and inter-racial (Chitty, 2010; Panggabean et al., 2013; Sharifian, 2010). In fact, Karomani (2017) had reviewed intercommunity communication in the same culture. All these studies show that culture is an important factor in communication activities. Therefore, the BIPA learning should seriously consider cultural factors, especially in the selection and determination of teaching materials.

The Academic Background of BIPA Learners

BIPA learners have different academic backgrounds. They generally are college learners and taking different courses of study in their home country. The data of the students' academic background can be seen in Table 2.

From Table 2, The research findings showed that BIPA learners with a background of Academic Anthropology as many as 20 learners (7.49%), Linguistics as many as 10

Table 2

The academic background of BIPA learners

No	Study Program	Sum of Students	Percentage
1	Anthropology	20	7.49%
2	Linguistics	10	3.75%
3	Asean Studies	64	23.97%
4	Political Sciences	18	6.74%
5	Geology	6	2.25%
6	Religius Studies	15	5.62%
7	Musicology	11	4.12%
8	Psychology	12	4.49%
9	International Relations	33	12.36%
10	Sociology	10	3.75%
11	Study of Indonesian Language	20	7.49%
12	Photography	8	3.00%
13	Public Health	7	2.62%
14	Natural Science	15	5.62%
15	English Literature	18	6.74%

learners (3.75%), Asean Studies 64 learners (26.78%), Political Science as many as 18 learners (6.74%), Geology as many as 6 learners (2.25%), Religious Studies as many as 15 learners (5.62%), Musicology 11 learners (4.12%), Psychology of 12 learners (4.12%), International Relations 33 learners (12.36%), Sociology as many as 10 learners (3.75%), Study of Indonesian Language as many as 20 learners (7.49%), Photography of 8 learners (3.00%), Public Health of 7 learners (2.62%), Natural Science as many as 15 learners (5.62%), and English Literature as many as 18 learners (6.74%). Based on the data, the highest academic background is Asian Studies.

The different areas of their study have implications for the preparation of learning programs. Grabe (1986) stated that the problem of learning a foreign language arose as a result of the linguistic and socio-cultural differences of the first language and the target language. In such situations, the use of appropriate approaches and the selection of teaching materials that are functional have a very important role in determining the success of the BIPA lesson process.

Based on the differences of the academic background, in the learning BIPA, teachers must prepare proper materials in order to meet learners' needs. Suyitno (2017) revealed that to meet the needs of various

BIPA learners, an alternative learning program should be prepared. Learning in this alternative program is done individually and depends heavily on the interests and requests of its learners. This alternative program principally provides services to meet the needs of the learner. Therefore, the use of authentic materials will greatly assist the learner, especially for those who are not familiar with the target language at all (Heritaningsih, 2007).

The Learning Objectives of BIPA Learners

BIPA students have different goals in learning BIPA. The data of the different goals of the BiIPA learners can be seen in Table 3.

The research findings showed that of 267 BIPA students, 24 learners (8.99%) wanted to continue study in Indonesia and 43 learners (16.10%) aimed to work in Indonesia. Meanwhile, BIPA learners who wanted to be able to communicate daily in the Indonesian language were as many as 43 learners (16.11%). In addition, there were some students who were studying BIPA because they were interested in Indonesian culture, as many as 28 learners (10.49%). BIPA students who intended to study more deeply about the Indonesian language as much as 53 people (19.85%). Those who aimed to continue their study of Indonesian language from their country of origin were 27 learners (10.11%), while those aiming to take a vacation in Indonesia were 17 learners (6.37%). Meanwhile, 32 learners (11.99%) had a goal to be able to speak Indonesian.

The diversity of BIPA learner objectives has implications for decision making of BIPA organizers in determining their learning program, especially in preparing the learning materials according to the purpose. Thus, the subject matter of BIPA

Table 3

The learning objectives of BIPA learners

No	Learning Objectives	Sum of Students	Percentage
1	Continue study in Indonesia	24	8.99%
2	Work in Indonesia	43	16.10%
3	Daily Communication	43	16.11%
4	Interested Indonesian Culture	28	10.49%
5	Continue their study from their country of origin	27	10.11%
6	Learning Indonesian language	53	19.85%
7	Vacation in Indonesia	17	6.37%
8	Speak Indonesian	32	11.99%

has a close relationship with the problem of meeting the needs of foreign learners. The statement, in line with the explanation of Meyer and Benavot (2013) who implicitly stated that educational objectives, including language learning objectives, were often controlled by the needs of the field or the needs of its partner institutions.

Understanding the learning goals of BIPA learners is an important factor to be considered in the selection of BIPA teaching materials. In this case, the institutions of BIPA have the authority in determining the right materials to be taught to BIPA learners. A holistic and comprehensive consideration of the learners' needs is a major problem in learning BIPA. In such cases, practice for cooperation programs, vision, and mission of the first institution (whose sending learner) are an important factor for making a decision in determining the direction of BIPA learning policy (Byrnes, 2012). BIPA learning often faces challenges when there is a difference of perception among inexperienced BIPA practitioners (Ball et al., 2011).

The Indonesian Learning Experiences and Competency Level of BIPA Learners

In learning Indonesian, BIPA learners had varied experiences. Based on the research findings, the learning experiences of BIPA learners could be seen that most BIPA learners knew and learnt Indonesian in their own colleges, which was 64 learners (24.34%). In addition to these experiences, BIPA learners had been familiar and able to speak Indonesian from ever living in Indonesia, as many as 15 learners (5.62%), had courses 2 of learners (0.75%), and self-learning as many as 5 learners (1.87%). Those who had never studied Indonesian at all were 180 learners (67.42%). The data can be visualized in Table 4.

From the level of competency, the learners could be classified at the beginning level as many as 159 learners (59.55%), intermediate level as many as 79 learners (29.59%), and advanced level as many as 29 learners (10.86%). Based on the condition of BIPA learners, BIPA materials should be distinguished in several categories,

Table 4

The learning experiences of BIPA learners

No	Learning Experiences	Sum of Students	Percentage
1	Have been staying in Indonesian	15	5.62%
2	Learn Indonesian in their own college	64	24.34%
3	Had courses	2	0.75%
4	Self-Learning	5	1.87%
5	Never study Bahasa Indonesia yet	180	67.42%

Table 5
Entry level competence of BIPA learners

No	Level of Competence	Sum of Students	Percentage
1	Beginning	159	59.55%
2	Intermediate	79	29.59%
3	Advanced	29	10.86%

namely (1) BIPA for beginners, (2) BIPA for intermediate learners, and (3) BIPA for BIPA for advanced learners. The data can be visualized in Table 5.

In line with the above facts, in BIPA learning, BIPA teachers need to make a selection of BIPA teaching materials that are more varied. The diversity of materials is intended to facilitate and expedite BIPA learners in mastering BIPA teaching materials. The material requirements of BIPA as stated in the above conditions invite the book authors to develop BIPA teaching materials. Sudiroatmadja (1993) noted there were several authors of books, both foreign authors and Indonesian writers who wrote Indonesian for foreigners. One goal they wanted to achieve was to make it easier for learners to master the Indonesian language. However, there are many variations found in both approaches, teaching techniques, teaching materials and sequences.

There are several inter-related conceptual issues related to goals as levels, standards, or outcomes. First, there is the conceptualization issue of construction, with various labels as the ability of communicative language, competence, language knowledge, abilities, and so on. The existence of a large number of terms itself signifies a variety of views. This always results in further conceptual and descriptive categories, which were then used to describe the nature and scope of language learning. An example of this phenomenon is the 'five Cs' National Standards for Foreign Language Education (American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages [ACTFL], 2006): communication, culture, connection, comparison, and society. These five concepts (five Cs) represent different areas of discrete purpose. The value of this formula is that the purpose of the language learning is seen as more than 'communication'. As with all such categorizations, however, there is a question of basic theory for each of these key concepts, how they may be interconnected or working together in a view of language and cultural use and learning, and how these terms are actually understood by different users at different times.[1]

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1   (See Kramsch (2014), for a discussion of the sense changes from this concept from the modernist to the postmodern perspective, see Byrnes (2008), for a particular discussion on cultural standards, and see Magnan et al. (2014), for an in-depth study of understanding and the priorities of the five concepts in this section of language graduate learners in the United States).

Learning Materials for the Needs of BIPA Learners

Based on the description above, the development of BIPA learning materials is focused to develop the competence of BIPA learners, specifically communication literacy. BIPA learners need to be practiced in using the Indonesian language in the real communication. Therefore, the scope of BIPA learning materials includes Indonesian language skills and Indonesian cultures.

Indonesian Language Skills Materials for BIPA Learners

In accordance with the level of BIPA learner competence, learning the Indonesian language skills for beginner level students are directed to achieve ability to use Indonesian for daily communication. Through listening skills, learners are expected to be able to seek important information, know the family tree, understand the principles of mutual assistance, and understand the words in the sale and purchase transactions. By learning speaking skills, learners are able to communicate the genealogies of their respective families, social activity interviews, know the phrases with the derivation word, tell the game seen, and tell the daily activities. By learning reading skills, learners are able to know the proposition, recognize the sentence structure, understand the social life in Indonesia, recognize personal letters, know the simple grammar, know the vocabulary in the activity, know various comparisons, know word connections, know various words, know Indonesian names, know how

bargaining, and identify adjectives in buying and selling. Competencies achieved through writing skills are to make sentences, write simple texts, change sentences structures, sort words and phrases randomly, complete sentences, write personal letters, play games by using affixes, write sentences with comparative words in buying and selling, and create sentences about Indonesian food. The four language skills, developed in units with the theme of my family, daily activities, shopping, the beauty of Indonesian culture, and Indonesian politics.

Language skills for intermediate level are intended to reach the student's ability for formal communication. Competencies achieved through listening skills are to be familiar with and acknowledge adverbs, employed verbs, names of foods, names of transport, names of vegetables, names of fruits, animal names, bargaining activities in markets, and conversations. Competencies achieved through speaking skills are to use the Indonesian language for formal and no formal conversation, introduce others, ask for help, greet, accept and reject offers, invite others, offer something to others, present papers, conduct role-playing, interviews, bargain in the market, conduct deliberations in the classroom, and express opinions. Competencies achieved through reading skills are to understand a language in text and the content of text they read. They are able to know the word raw correctly incorrectly, the word question (for sale and purchase transactions and offer something), the word command, adjective words in the sentences, comparative words, the

places of the public, the types of texts, the essential subjects of various texts, the time markers, the Indonesian currency, traditional foods, the ways of traditional and modern shopping, community organizations, the traditions of Indonesian ceremonies, the tradition of marriage in various regions in Indonesia, the topic of the text, the symbol of the Indonesian state, the Indonesian government system, the process of deliberation, the deliberative activities, and to summarize texts. Competencies achieved through writing skills are to write biodata, a conversation, daily activities in the form of paragraphs, opinions, experiences, narrative text, descriptive text, sentences with adding the sentence according to the structure of S + P + O, the description of Indonesian food, text from pictures. The substance of the material taught in the four aspects of the above skills includes manners, daily activities, buying and selling (economy), Indonesian diversity, and Indonesian democracy.

Language skills for advanced level are intended to reach the student's ability in advanced communication. Competencies achieved through listening are answering questions, finding key points of text they listen to, and understand puppet show art through description text. Competence achieved through speaking skills is to have a conversation on a predetermined topic and to conduct an interview. Competence achieved through reading is to know the tourist attraction in Indonesia, understand how to bargain, know and understand the offer letter, know and understand

the greetings in Indonesia, know and understand the job application letter, and know and understand how to write a resume. Competencies achieved through writing skills are to create sentences with predetermined vocabulary, write sentences with newly discovered vocabulary, and write conversations text about Indonesian culture on a given topic. The substance of the taught material includes vacations, bargaining, popular articles, scientific texts, job applications, and grammar.

In learning language, BIPA students are expected to master the oral and written language skills. For that, they learn four aspects of language skills. Students of BIPA are said to have mastered the Indonesian language ideally if they have mastered the four aspects of language skills well. Implicitly, Cook (2008) revealed that in communicating, language learners must have multicompetence in using the language. However, in reality learning activities, teachers face many problems related to student mastery of the language they learn. There are many learners who are able to speak Indonesian fluently, but are weak in reading or writing. Conversely, there are learners who are able to read the text and rewrite the contents of the text correctly, but they have difficulty in giving their opinions verbally. To overcome these problems, BIPA learning needs to tackle the four aspects of language proficiency proportionally in accordance with the needs of its learners.

Based on the material diversity presented above, it can be argued that the development

and arrangement of the material need to be tailored to the needs and levels of the learner's abilities. Basically, BIPA learning should be able to meet the learner's need to communicate naturally, both for now and for the future and communication (Slattery, 2003). The direction and orientation of the material and the range of learning materials of BIPA which is expressed in line with Suyitno's explanation (2017), which was about the factors that needed to be considered in the management of BIPA learning materials.

In learning BIPA, the grammatical materials become an integral part of language learning. The introduction of grammatical material is important in order to develop the BIPA learner's ability to use correct and acceptable language. Ghabool et al. (2012) explained that the difficulties of foreign learners in language learning, especially in writing, related to the correct use of grammar, which included grammar, punctuation, capitalization, spelling, and some other basic aspects of writing. The results of research conducted by Khojasteh et al. (2017) revealed that in communicating there were some discrepancies in the frequency of models used by native speakers and the ones used by advanced EFL learners. Therefore, the introduction of Indonesian grammar to BIPA learners provides significant benefits for improving the language of learners as well as providing supplies and convenience to learners in understanding the text in Indonesian scientific books.

BIPA learning depends on the learning objectives of BIPA learners. To meet these objectives, BIPA learning needs to involve formal learning activities in the classroom and in real communication in the community. Through diverse learning activities, BIPA learners can gain a more complex language experience. BIPA learners not only master the knowledge of Indonesian language but also able to transfer their language knowledge in real communication in the community. The multilingual development is manifested as trans language (García & Wei, 2014) or by 'translingual practice' (Canagarajah, 2013).

Teaching Material of Indonesian Cultures

The learning materials of Indonesian culture required in BIPA learning include (a) cultural behavioural, (b) visiting ways (hours of visiting, greetings), (d) acknowledgment of accepting and rejecting solicitation, (e) traditional means of transportation, (f) traditional games, (f) crafts (batik, shadow puppets, traditional house of tongkonan, *angklung* musical instrument) (j) traditional dance, (i) traditional ceremony , and (k) typical Indonesian food.

In BIPA learning, the development of cultural material is directed to the introduction and enrichment of Indonesian cultural insight to foreign learners so that they can use it in their daily life in Indonesian society. The subjects of cultural materials that need to be introduced to BIPA learners are cultural objects. The principle in providing this cultural material is to equip BIPA learners to be able to speak Indonesian in accordance with the

situation and conditions. In addition, it also introduces Indonesian culture to BIPA learners so that it can foster a positive attitude of BIPA learners to Indonesian culture (Lantolf, 2015).

Cultural behaviour that should be introduced to foreign learners, among others, is a way of living in family, friendship, community, and politeness in the association. Learning and recognition of cultural behaviour can be done through the placement of foreign learners individually on Indonesian families. In the life of the Indonesian family, learners often discuss with family members and communities in the neighbourhood, at least they will recognize the Indonesian family's way of life. Other activities that can be done in learning cultural behaviour is the activities of family visits, visits to a friend's house, or a visit to the homes of village or community leaders. Through this activities, learners can gain a meaningful experience in establishing friendly relations and the application of politeness in the association.

In learning BIPA, culture can be taught through literary works because the literary work is the result of the author's thought based on the author's self-contact, whether consciously or not, with social reality and cultural patterns. Through literary works can be taught a local culture that plays a role in shaping a universal culture. BIPA learners should not only learn the universal culture but also learn the local culture (Seelye, 1994). Included in the cultural teaching materials in the form of literary works is folklore. Folklore is a material that inherits a tradition, both through words and customs and habits that can be people's songs, folklore, proverbs, or other material presented in words. Folklore can also be traditional tools and physical objects such as traditional ornaments, traditional symbols, and so on.

CONCLUSIONS

The diversity of competence, culture, goals, and needs of learners in learning Indonesian has implications for the selection and determination of Indonesian language teaching materials. BIPA teaching materials are more oriented to meet the needs of learners than the interests of the BIPA organizer program. Efforts to make the learners able and to smoothly communicate in the target language is a top priority. Therefore, learning materials of language skills and the introduction of Indonesian culture are the main subjects that need to be taught and trained to them. In essence, the development of communication literacy teaching materials will be able to meet the needs of BIPA learners if the teaching materials are developed based on cultural characteristics, initial abilities, and learner objectives.

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Does Academic Self-concept Moderate Academic Achievement and Career Adaptability? A Study of Indonesian Junior High Students

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to reveal the moderating effects of academic self-concept on the relationship between academic achievement and career adaptability among junior high school students in Depok City, West Java, Indonesia. With a sample of 662 students, career adaptability was measured using the modified Career Adapt-Abilities Scale, academic achievement with students' average fifth-semester grades, and academic self-concept using the modified Academic Self-Concept for Adolescence Scale. The results showed no significant moderating effect of academic self-concept on academic achievement and career adaptability. It means the strength of the relationship between academic achievement and career adaptability was not affected by student's academic self-concept either positive or not. Based on this study, regardless of their academic achievement and academic self-concept, junior high school students need the optimal available career development preparation to develop their career adaptability.

Keywords: Academic achievement, academic self-concept, career adaptability, career preparation, junior high school

INTRODUCTION

Career preparation is a major developmental task in adolescence (Skorikov, 2007), and as a process, career preparation can determine adults' subsequent career success. Roenkae and Pulkkinen (1995) explained that a lack of career preparation could have indirect effects on adjustment, either by causing vocational problems or in facilitating a

successful career, which all contributed to an adult's social functioning. The ability to adjust is also known as "adaptivity," and in career developmental theory, the adaptivity concept is usually used in terms of career adaptability (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

Career adaptability was defined by Savickas (1976) as the readiness to cope with the predictable tasks of preparing for and participating in the work role and with the unpredictable adjustments prompted by changes in work and working conditions. Additionally, career adaptability consists of four dimensions called the 4 Cs (Hirschi, 2009; Savickas, 2005; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012): (1) concern - thinking about one's career throughout life; (2) control - taking responsibility for one's chosen career; (3) curiosity - being inquisitive about work and seeking work availability information; and (4) confidence - self-efficacy beliefs about one's ability to choose a career. Career adaptability determines individual success when facing critical phases in career development, including career transition. In the educational setting, the first career transition usually occurs when students must choose a type of school and a major.

In Indonesia, students must choose their schools and their majors before they enroll in high school, based on Indonesian Government Rules in *Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan Republik Indonesia No. 69 Tahun 2013* (Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan Republik Indonesia, 2013) which states that tenth-grade students must already have chosen their type of high school and their major

(e.g., social, science, language, vocational). This new government rule has changed Indonesian schools' system of majors. Previously, students were asked to choose a major when they were in the eleventh grade. This rule means, of course, that the career transition phase now comes earlier, and, in turn, the career preparation process must also come earlier.

To determine whether the preparation process is actually occurring earlier, this study interviewed 12 ninth grade students in Jakarta and Depok City, Indonesia about this process. Their responses indicated that students had, indeed, not yet undergone the maximum career preparation process, for example they did not choose their next study program by evaluating their own strengths and weaknesses. They reported that they had never received career development advice.

Therefore, this study was conducted to discover any moderating role of academic self-concept in the relationship between academic achievement and career adaptability. Basically, this study advances research by Negru-Subtirica and Pop (2016), who found that academic achievement had a positive and significant correlation with career adaptability. Academic achievement describes individual academic performance in the form of results that indicate how successful an individual student is in specific academic areas. Generally, students' grades reflect their academic achievement (Poropat, 2009)

In fact, academic achievement can validate personal competencies, strengthen pre-existing career goals, and guide planning

of new vocational paths (Negru-Subtirica & Pop, 2016). Students with positive academic achievement find it easier to know their strengths in specific areas, and by knowing their strengths, they find it easier to choose a future career. They also tend to become more involved in career preparation activities, which, indirectly, improve students' awareness about the importance of preparing for a future career (career concern), encourage self-regulation toward a career goal (career control), and heighten curiosity about a career (career curiosity).

However, preliminary studies have found that some students with high academic achievement have not subsequently maximized their career preparation. Moreover, the existing literature has revealed that, in real life, students with good levels of academic achievement in middle school have poor levels of academic achievement in high school. This situation is usually associated with students' failure when choosing a school major, and such failure affects students' ability to adapt to the new educational environment. This raises the question of whether any variable impacts the relationship between academic achievement and students' ability to adapt to an academic area. Thus, discovering whether academic self-concept moderates the relationship between academic achievement and career adaptability is important.

Achievement experiences predispose individuals' perception of their ability, that is, their self-concept (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003). In academic areas, students' self-concept involves their perception and evaluation of their academic abilities (Marsh & Craven, 2002). Students with a positive academic self-concept have confidence about their academic competencies (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003), and they can develop and execute strategies to overcome obstacles (Gonzales-Pineda et al. as cited in Ordaz-Villegas et al., 2013). In junior high school students, the ability to develop strategies facilitates their academic performance, and with high academic performance, students can confirm and reinforce their academic self-concept.

More specifically, a student's academic self-concept consists of four factors (Ordaz-Villegas et al., 2013): (1) self-regulation - a positive attitude toward the acquisition of knowledge and the learning process; (2) general intellectual abilities - the ability to process and use information effectively in a specific situation; (3) motivation - attraction to a particular task or objective, that encourages a strategy search and the analysis required to satisfy that attraction within an established program; and (4) creativity - a process that generates a sensibility toward problems and difficulties in knowledge, finds solutions, and makes strategic decisions. Additionally, a student's academic self-concept is developed based on individual interaction with the wider social environment (Kelley, 1973). Thus, adolescents tend to build their academic self-concept through comparing their academic capability to that of their peers. The more capable a student perceives herself or himself to be, the more easily a person can plan and gain confidence in her/his career.

In this study, researchers assumed that, in adolescence, academic self-concept moderates academic achievement and career adaptability. When adolescents have a higher level of positive academic self-concept, their academic achievement will strengthen career adaptability to help them face a form of career transition, such as choosing a high school major that leads to a career. In fact, academic achievement has been shown to correlate positively with career adaptability (Havenga, 2011; Negru-Subtirica & Pop, 2016), but in fact, the preliminary study indicates that not all adolescents with good academic achievement have high career adaptability. So this study hypothesized that academic self-concept has a moderated effect on academic achievement and career adaptability.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Participants

To discover factors that impact the relationship between academic achievement and career adaptability, this study used a nonprobability sampling technique by deploying convenience sampling to recruit ninth grade students as participants. A total of 662 participants who joined in the study belonged to two public junior high schools (SMPN 3 and SMPN 8) located in Depok City, West Java, Indonesia. All participants were in ninth grade, aged between 13 and 16 years old and in general, the participants had good academic achievement (M = 79.68, from minimum score = 20 and maximum score = 100). The profiles of the two public schools (SMPN 3 and SMPN 8), informed us that they did not have any careers program, nor indeed a careers guidance teacher.

Instruments and Measurement

Career adaptability. In this study, career adaptability was measured using the adapted form of the Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS) (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), which identifies levels of career adaptability. CAAS consists of 24 items that measure four dimensions of career adaptability through the 4Cs—concern, control, curiosity, and confidence—with 5-point Likert-type responses, ranging from 1 (highly disagree) to 5 (highly agree). On the basis of researchers' reliability and validity tests, CAAS showed a reliability coefficient of 0.899 and the r^{it} ranging from 0.194 to 0.756, with no negative correlation.

Academic achievement. Academic achievement was measured by participants' fifth-semester average grades. The researchers classified grades into 10 ranges on the basis of the grade conversion standard *by Peraturan Bersama Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Dasar dan Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Menengah Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan No. 5496/C/ KR/2014 and 7915/D/KP/2014* (Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan Republik Indonesia, 2014). Then, the researchers scored grade ranges from 100 (Curriculum 2006: 9.63–100 / Curriculum 2013: 3.85–4.00) to 10 (Curriculum 2006: 2.50–2.94 / Curriculum 2013: 1.00–1.17).

Academic self-concept. Academic self-concept was measured using the adapted form of the Academic Self-Concept for Adolescents Scale (ASCA) (Ordaz-Villegas et al., 2013), which consists of 16 items from the four factors of academic self-concept—self-regulation, general intellectual abilities, motivation, and creativity—with 5-point Likert-type responses, ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Always). The scale measures the self-concept of adolescents (14–18 years.) on a positive–negative range. This scale's reliability coefficient was 0.861, and the r^{it} ranged from 0.244–0.685.

Procedure

After preparations and pilot study, questionnaires were distributed to students during their classes. Prior to this, students were provided with information about the study and consent form. Once they had indicated that they understood the study and had consented to participate, instructions were provided, and each participant completed a set of questionnaires in three parts. The first was asked for demographic information including a question on academic achievement (grades), the second was the CAAS, and third was the ASCA. An instructor stayed behind with each class to distribute, supervise, crosscheck, and collect questionnaires. The average time taken by participants to complete the questionnaires was 45 minutes.

RESULTS

The Hayes' regression process was used to test this study's hypothesis. Based on statistical testing, the researchers found no significant interaction between academic achievement and academic self-concept toward students' career adaptability (p = 0.250, sig = 0.05). Furthermore, academic self-concept had no moderating role between academic achievement and career adaptability among junior high students in Depok City. Table 1 shows the result.

Table 1

Summary of regression analysis for career adaptability (N = 662)

Variables	koef	*se*	*t*	*Sig. (p)*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
constant	11.53	25.30	0.46	0.65	−38.15	61.21
Academic self-concept	1.38	0.46	2.98	0.003	0.47	2.28
Academic achievement	0.43	0.32	1.34	0.18	−0.20	1.05
Interaction	−0.01	0.01	−1.15	0.25	−0.02	0.004
Gender	−1.32	0.60	−2.22	0.03	−2.49	−0.15

Note. R-sq = 0.42

The regression analysis also revealed no positive significance between academic achievement and career adaptability ($p = 0.18$, sig = 0.05), suggesting that academic achievement did not significantly affect participants' career adaptability. It means that changed academic achievement is not followed by changed career adaptability. The three variables have significant correlation to each other but they do not have an interaction effect. Table 2 shows the result.

Table 2

Standard deviation and correlation between variables

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3
1. Academic Achievement	79.68	7.30	-		
2. Academic Self-Concept	54.97	7.51	0.19**	-	
3. Career Adaptability	90.04	10.04	0.16**	0.65**	-

DISCUSSION

This study shows that academic achievement does not significantly affect career adaptability. The result contradicts the study by Negru-Subtirica and Pop (2016), who found a positive significant correlation between academic achievement and career adaptability. According to our study, students with high academic achievement did not necessarily have strong career adaptability. Academic achievement was found to have no direct effect on students' career adaptability.

From this study, researchers also found that academic self-concept did not moderate the relationship between academic achievement and career adaptability. Academic self-concept was described as individual self-perceptions about academic competencies (Marsh & Craven, 2002). Adolescents usually form this perception when they compare themselves with their peers (Kelley, 1973), thus forming a frame of reference for defining their level of academic competency. The extent to which such a frame of reference is formed determines students' achievement in their social environment, and how well the frame of reference is formed also affects individuals' academic self-concept.

Academic self-concept depends on four factors (Ordaz-Villegas et al., 2013). One factor is general intellectual ability, also known as intelligence. Previous studies have claimed that intelligence has a strong relationship with academic achievement (Soares et al., 2015). That being said, students with high intelligence usually have higher academic achievement, compared to those with average or low intelligence. An analysis conducted in 26 countries found that students in selective schools with high average achievement tended to have lower academic self-concept than students in non-

selective schools (Marsh & Hau, 2003). However, researchers found that people with high IQ scores do not automatically perform well in academic settings because the actualization of individual intelligence is relative. Thus, it is certainly not easy to predict students' academic self-concept, as several facets of self-concept contribute to a general individual's self-concept (Ireson & Hallam, 2009). This situation may explain why the effect of interaction between academic self-concept and academic achievement on career adaptability was not significant. However, based on this study, regardless of their academic achievement and academic self-concept, junior high school students need the maximum career development process to develop their career adaptability.

Additionally, this study has several possible limitations. First, academic self-concept does not impact on the strength of the relationship between academic achievement and career adaptability, because it is only part of a general self-concept (Byrne & Shavelson, 1986; Ireson & Hallam, 2009; Marsh et al., 1988). Together with social, emotional, and physical self-concepts, the academic self-concept comprises students' general self-concept. Other research involving the general self-concept may produce a different result from the interactions examined here.

This study involved participants in an early stage of adolescence. In this developmental stage, adolescents are still developing their academic self-concept, based on environmental feedback (Sebastian et al., 2008). In other words, their academic self-concept is not yet stable. If future research involves participants in a later developmental stage, with a more stable academic self-concept, results from the interaction between variables may be quite different.

Furthermore, failure to find a moderating effect of academic self-concept on the relationship between academic achievement and career adaptability might have occurred because the academic achievement variable was measured using fifth-semester average grades, grouped into several range options. Students' average grades in the fifth-semester may not reflect their actual academic achievement, possibly due to the authenticity of grade information self-reported by students or fallibility in grade coding.

This research's data collection was conducted simultaneously with two other studies in the same school. Each participant was asked to participate in all studies at the same time. Unfortunately, this study's questionnaires were administered at the end of the session. This situation may have overly tasked participants, so that their physical and psychological conditions negatively affected the quality of information they provided, and thus, the study's results.

For ease of accessibility, this study was conducted only within Depok City, West Java. However, from the school profiles, none of the public school have any career development program, or even a careers guidance teacher, and the study area's limitations may have affected research

results. In addition, the study accessed only public schools, a condition that might also have limited the results' veracity

CONCLUSIONS

The results from this study showed that academic achievement had no significant effect on career adaptability, contradicting the previous study of Negru-Subtirica and Pop (2016). Additionally, this study failed to show that academic self-concept had a significant effect on the relationship between academic achievement and career adaptability. Further research is needed to find other variables that may affect the relationship between academic achievement and career adaptability, and to test the same hypothesis with more mature participants or with a broader geographical scope. In the future, more demographic data as control variables will enrich research results.

In future studies, academic achievement variables should be measured by actual grades, not ranges of grades, to minimize measurement error. The future studies should also be conducted independently of other studies, to avoid over-tasking participants and causing any resultant errors. Finally, this study indicates that, regardless of their academic achievement and academic self-concept, junior high school students need the maximum available career development preparation to develop their career adaptability. The preparations include exploring students' strengths and weaknesses, create better plans to set and reach the goals, and finally learn to make decisions about their career.

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Perceived Teachers' Meaning Support in Learning and College Student Engagement: The Mediation Role of Basic Psychological Needs Satisfaction

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ABSTRACT

Previous research has shown that support from learning environment relates positively to student engagement. Self-determination theory, a theory of human motivation, asserts that an individual has three innate: (1) basic psychological needs; (2) autonomy, competence, and relatedness; and (3) that student engagement is an outcome of the satisfaction of these basic needs. Teachers, who play an important role as agents in the learning environment, heavily influence student engagement. In the learning process, to engage students, teachers should make learning meaningful. Therefore, this study's hypothesis is that basic psychological needs satisfaction mediates perceived teachers' meaning support in learning and college student engagement. Participants in this study were 736 freshmen from Jakarta State University. The Engagement Learning Index was used to measure college student engagement, Personal Meaning Profile B to measure perceived teachers' meaning support in learning, and the Basic Psychological Needs Satisfaction Scale to collect data of basic psychological needs satisfaction. The PROCESS macro by Hayes for SPSS was used to test the mediation variable. The results indicated that basic psychological needs satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between perceived teachers' meaning support in learning and college students' engagement. The results suggest that teachers should consider supporting students to have meaning in learning to make them intrinsically motivated and promote a quality student engagement.

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INTRODUCTION

Entering college or university generally brings changes to students' lives. New students face challenges and, possibly, stress since campus life greatly differs from high school (Abdullah et al., 2009). Furthermore, according to Directorate General of Higher Education, Ministry of National Education, Indonesia in 2003, campus life offers many interesting activities which many students may not have previously engaged in, and this new situation may confused and stressed them to the point they have difficulty attending to the learning process (Directorate General of Higher Education Ministry of National Education Republic of Indonesia, 2003). First-year college students might find the classroom learning process uninteresting, unmotivating, and/or boring, possibly leading to student disengagement (Christenson et al., 2012). Especially at this early stage, college students may experience changes in their learning needs due to their interests, goals, and need for actualization (Primana, 2015). However, to succeed in higher education, college students should earn good grades and have good self-regulation, focus, and engagement in the learning process. Student engagement is crucial since it influences not only students' success, but also their optimal development, psychological well-being, and, from a more practical perspective, can prevent dropping out of college (Carini et al., 2006; Ferguson et al., 2010; Kuh et al., 2008).

As a psychological investment, student engagement, which means being actively engaged in the learning process, indicates their motivation. Engagement also strongly predicts learning outcomes, achievement of test scores or grades, and graduation (Christenson et al., 2012; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Student engagement is often understood as motivation; in college, student motivation can be observed through engagement in learning process (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Student motivation energizes students to participate and persist in activities. Furthermore, students who have positive energy or enthusiasm and goals, and enjoy doing assignments engage in classroom activities (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). On the other hand, students who are sluggish, do not show interest in learning, and do not have learning goals are seen as disengaged from classroom activities.

Student engagement originated through student involvement theory, first proposed by Astin (1984), who defined student involvement as a form of behavioral involvement of the amount of physical and psychological energy used by learners to participate in organizations, interact with the environment and peers, attend activities, and budget enough time for study. As more research into student engagement was conducted, the concept developed into a multi-dimensional construct, including behavioral, emotional, and cognitive engagement (Fredricks et al., 2004; Skinner & Belmont, 1993).

Behavioral engagement is students' observable behavior: attendance and enthusiastic engagement during the learning process and when completing assignments. Engaged students behave with persistent effort, concentration, attention, and questions to broaden their knowledge. Cognitive engagement is the student's learning strategy and effort in the thinking process when they make learning experiences valuable and meaningful by connecting their current learning with prior knowledge, to build new knowledge. Emotional engagement involves students' feelings during the learning process, for instance, bored, interested, happy, and anxious.

In higher education, Schreiner and Louis (2006) used a three-dimensional student engagement concept which are cognitive, behavioral, and affective. In other words, students' positive energy in a meaningful learning process allows them to focus their attention and participate in learning activities. In cognitive engagement, college students perceive their learning process as meaningful if new information relates to previously taught material and is applicable to their personal lives. Behavioral engagement involves active participation indicated by contributions to class discussions or other classroom activities. Affective engagement takes place when students focus their attention and express their curiosity during class (Schreiner & Louis, 2006).

The learning environment is one important factor that can affect students' engagement (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012),

which is marked by a dialectical relationship between teachers and students. Interaction patterns from several studies have been shown to assist and encourage increased student engagement (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Student engagement's importance involves how it allows teachers and students to participate and interact actively in the classroom (Turner et al., 2014). However, student engagement quality can be enhanced by linking it to the concept of meaningfulness (Peterson et al., 2005). For one, students who understand reasons for learning activities tend to become more actively engaged in them. Knowing their personal goals, they attempt to create congruence between those goals and their present existence (Reker & Wong, 1988). Student engagement represents efforts to find meaning and value voluntarily so that enjoyment and interest in learning compensate for the energy spent on study (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). Thus, student engagement refers not just too learning behavior, but also to internal psychological processes, because psychological engagement connects positively to academic achievement, and meaning becomes positively associated with engagement (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2003).

Each individual develops a meaning of life, and a personal meaning pattern is the foundation of an individual's philosophy of life, including goals, core values, and a mindset for addressing problems (Wong, 2012). This applies to many aspects of a human being's life, including education. In the learning process, individuals seek

meaning to make learning valuable (Crick & Goldspink, 2014). Wong (2012) collected sources of meaning universally considered important by individuals. Based on results of several studies related to meaning of life, sources included achievement, relationship, religion, self-acceptance, self-transcendence, intimacy, and fair treatment. Since these seem to be universal, presumably, all individuals share them.

Religion generally teaches that human existence must be filled with some meaning and noble purpose (Wong, 2012). "Religion," frequently used interchangeably with "spirituality," can influence an individual's life beliefs, hopes, and goals, in this case, college students and their learning engagement (Turi, 2012). In learning, for example, students should have goals that give them useful, meaningful knowledge to apply in their daily lives (Wigfield & Cambria, 2010), thus focusing on the search for real meaning. Individuals must know what they really want in relationships and whether the relationships are meaningful and important to their lives. In fact, to have meaningful relationships, individuals should have remarkable and extraordinary relationships (Wang et al., 2015; Wong, 2012), which are supposed to connect their actions and their understanding; to do so requires cognitive activity.

In short, positive relationships with teachers facilitate college students' engagement (Zepke & Leach, 2010) and influence their decisions to complete or leave their studies (Wilcox et al., 2005). The dimension of achievement refers to the extent to which students feel supported by their environment, in this case, their teachers, to achieve their goals (Wigfield & Cambria, 2010). The dimension of self-transcendence refers to the role of the teacher in allowing students freedom (Wong, 2012). Another dimension of personal meaning is self-acceptance; this is important in the face of negative events because it could reduce unnecessary frustration, especially in failure due to individual limitations. Intimacy describes more emotional relationships between people, and in the learning context, students perceive the teacher's role in influencing the meaning of their learning. Lastly, fair treatment refers to the teacher's role in treating all students justly, equitably, and professionally (Wong, 2012).

Connecting meaningfulness in the learning process highly contributes to students' sensitivity toward achieving their academic goals (Macdonald et al., 2012). According to Seligman et al., (2009), meaningful purpose can improve the quality of student engagement: students are happy conducting learning activities. Individuals' with positive emotions and knowledge of meaning in their lives perform activities willingly and well. In addition, further positive emotions can result from meaningful learning experiences. In other words, the cycle is positive; not only is life's purpose meaningful, the process of achieving one's goals is also meaningful. Students who have not realized the meaning of learning might give up easily, whereas students who already assume the meaning of learning can regulate themselves to find

alternative methods of problem-solution and persist (Wong, 2012).

A sense of meaning emerges when personal needs are met, and the meaning relates to expectations and goals (Macdonald et al., 2012). Indeed, students who feel that the learning process is meaningful have higher quality of learning, can regulate their learning motivation, and have deeper learning experiences (Greenway, 2006; Schreiner & Louis, 2011; Tagg, 2003). Depth of understanding can help students enjoy the learning process when their perception of meaningfulness relates to their personal interests and values (Biggs & Tang, 2011).

In the classroom setting, finding the teacher's role in supporting students' meaning in the learning process is still rare (Bean, 2005; Greenway, 2006). Since research on the role of teachers' learning meaning support is limited, more empirical data is needed to express student engagement in terms of meaning (Greenway, 2006). Teachers' meaning support in learning can help students develop deeper understanding (Schreiner & Louis, 2006). Thus, teachers' support should be relatively more focused on students' meaningful interests and personal values, and also relevant to everyday experiences (Brophy, 2008).

The student engagement construct has a dialectical relationship with the self as an individual, the internal system, and the external learning environment (Crick, 2012). According to the Self Determination Theory (SDT), human beings universally have three innate basic psychological needs, regardless of gender, culture, or era (Deci & Vansteenkiste, 2004): needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Autonomy refers to self-endorsing behavior and freedom to make choices about one's desires. Competence is the feeling of being capable of achieving success and facing daily challenges. This need can be fulfilled by experiences of effective outcomes and attaining planned goals. Relatedness is the need to build close relationships with others; it can function as emotional security if satisfied by significant others such as teachers (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Satisfaction and/or thwarting of these needs affects individuals' psychological development (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Fulfillment of the three psychological needs leads to positive psychological development, which affects motivation and engagement in learning (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012) and is essential for psychological growth, integrity, and wellness (Deci & Ryan, 2000). On the contrary, if basic psychological needs are unfulfilled or undermined, psychological development is affected negatively, possibly by low interest in learning and by development of negative outcomes such as compensatory activity or need substitutes, non-self-determined regulatory styles, and rigid behavior (Gunnell et al., 2013).

In the SDT framework, basic psychological needs are an internal system that requires the fulfillment of environmental and interactional needs. In other words, basic psychological needs cannot be satisfied without the support of the environment. In

classroom learning activities, teachers can be one agent of support for students' basic psychological needs satisfaction. When students' needs are satisfied during the learning process, they experience optimal functioning, have meaningful experiences, and build their engagement in learning (Macdonald, et al., 2012; Vansteenkiste et al., 2010). Moreover, students who perceive their teachers providing meaning support in learning and fulfilling their basic psychological needs experience learning as enjoyable, interesting, and worthwhile and

thus engage positively in learning activities. Teachers' meaning supports in learning, as it consists of hope and future goals and relates to needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, influences student engagement (Macdonald et al., 2012). Based on the explanation above and previous studies on college students' engagement, this study proposed the hypothesis that basic psychological needs satisfaction mediates perceived teachers' meaning support in learning and college students' engagement (Figure 1).
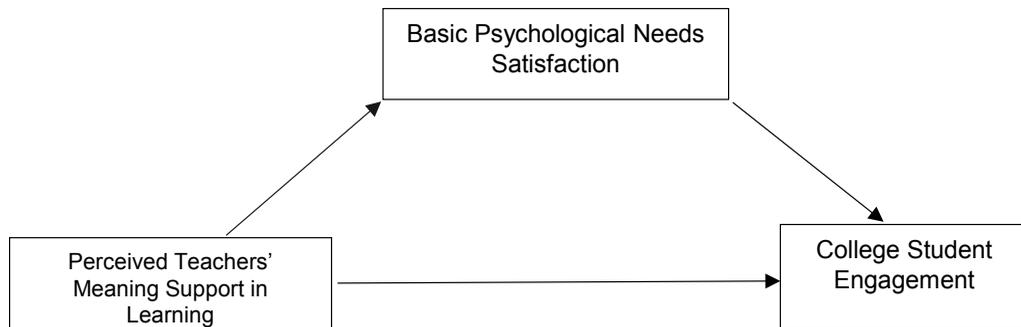
Figure 1. Hypothesized model

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Research Design

This study had been conducted based on the correlational design. According to Creswell (2012), correlational designs are used in order to study relationships between two or more variables. The relationships among perceived teacher's meaning support (predicting variable), basic psychological needs satisfaction (mediator), and college student engagement (outcome variable) were the research variables that were tested via mediation method and evaluated.

Participants

Sample-size determination was based on Krejcie and Morgan's formula (1970), which is a commonly used method. The formula approximately gives a maximum sample size of any defined population with unknown variance. With 95% confidence level and 5% margin of error 385 participants is sufficient to represent the population. Participants in this study were 736 Jakarta State University students enrolled in the Technical Education Department (N = 261), the Department of Education and the non-education Faculty

of Mathematics and Natural Sciences (N = 264), and from the Department of Education and non-education Faculty of Social Sciences (N = 211). Most were female (56.7%), and their average ages ranged from 19–20 years (56.8%).

Instruments

The Engagement Learning Index (ELI), developed by Schreiner and Louis (2011), was used to measure college student engagement. ELI consists of 10 items, with three dimensions: the meaning process (5 items), active participation (2 items), and focus attention (3 items). These scales use six-point Likert-type responses ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree" (1–6). Cronbach's alpha coefficient reliability of ELI is 0.72. The following items are examples from each dimension of engagement:

Meaning process: "I can apply what I learned in class to my life."

Active participation: "I actively participate in every classroom's discussion."

Focus attention: "During the course, I connected the material presented in my classroom with prior knowledge."

The Personal Meaning Profile B (PMP-B), developed by Wong (2012), was used to measure perceived teachers' meaning support in learning. PMP-B was chosen because it represents perception of personal meaning (Wong, 2012), and sources of meaning can come from personal growth and achievement (Westerhof et al., 2004). In this study, students' perception of meaningful learning was obtained from how

they perceived teachers' meaning support in learning.

The PMP-B has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.92 for coefficient reliability and uses a six-point Likert-type scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree" (1–6). The PMP-B consists of seven dimensions with three items for each dimension: achievement, relationship, religion, self-transcendence, self-acceptance, intimacy, and fair treatment. The following items are examples from each dimension of the PMP-B:

1. Achievement: "The teacher encouraged me to take action to complete the learning task."

2. Relationship: "My teachers trust that I am able to learn well."

3. Religion: "The teacher supports my understanding that I can have a personal relationship with God."

4. Self-transcendence: "The teacher assures me that learning will help me realize my goals."

5. Self-acceptance: "The teacher taught me to accept my limitations."

6. Intimacy: "The teacher taught me with understanding."

7. Fair treatment: "The teacher treated my classmates and me fairly while we were studying."

The Basic Psychological Needs Scale (BPNS), developed by Deci and Ryan (2000), was used to measure fulfillment of basic psychological needs. The BPNS has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.80 for coefficient reliability. It consists of 21 items and includes three dimensions of

basic psychological needs: for autonomy (7 items), for competence (6 items), and for relatedness (8 items). The scale uses 6-point Likert-type responses ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree" (1–6). Examples for each of the three basic needs are:

Need for autonomy: "In learning, I feel free to share my ideas."

Need for competence: "People who know me recognize that I can do well."

Need for relatedness: "My teacher cares about me."

Experts in educational psychology conducted scale adaptation, that is, translation into Indonesian and back-translation to English. From the original authors of the PMP-B and ELI scales, researchers gained permission to adjust the scales to the Indonesian context. All items were provided in Indonesian Language.

Procedures

With permission from the university board, the researcher gathered potential participants in a classroom after classes had ended. Prior to data collection, participants signed an informed consent to join the study. The researcher then provided instructions on how to complete the questionnaire.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics and Pearson correlation coefficients were used in data analysis. Hypothesis was analyzed by statistical significance of the mediation effects examined through the software developed by Hayes (2008). The statistical significance of the mediating variable was examined over 10000 bootstrap samples. Significance level in the current research was set as 0.05 and IBM SPSS 22.0 software package was used to analyze the research data.

RESULTS

Table 1 displays descriptive statistics for participant responses and correlation among research variables. The mean score of 4.19 for college student engagement means that most participants agreed that they felt engaged in learning activities. Since they value learning as meaningful, they focused their attention and actively engaged in the learning process.

Table 1

Descriptive statistics and correlation among the variables

No.	Variables	Mean	SD	1	2
1	College student engagement	4.19	0.69		
2	Perceived teachers' meaning support in learning	4.18	0.74	0.53**	
3	Basic psychological needs satisfaction	4.37	0.55	0.45**	0.44**

Data analysis also shows that most college students (M = 4.18) who participated in this study agreed that their teachers supported meaning in the learning process for six dimensions: relationship, religion, self-transcendence, self-acceptance, intimacy, and fair treatment. In other words, participants viewed learning activities as meaningful and as matching their purpose and life goals.

In this study, most participants felt satisfied in their basic psychological needs, including autonomy, competence, and relatedness (M = 4.37). Of the three basic psychological needs, relatedness had the highest mean score (M = 4.72), indicating that students felt their teachers abundantly facilitated their needs for relatedness.

From Table 1, we can see that all research variables correlate positively and significantly. Perceived teachers' meaning support in learning and college student engagement shows the strongest correlation (r = 0.53, p = 0.00). The correlation between basic psychological needs satisfaction and college student engagement had lower correlation as was the correlation between perceived teachers' meaning support in learning and basic psychological needs satisfaction (r = 45; r = 0.44; p <0.00).

The SPSS PROCESS macro design by Preacher and Hayes (2008) was conducted as mediation analysis, and the result shows that basic psychological needs satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between perceived teachers' meaning support in learning and college student engagement (Figure 2).

Based on Figure 2 below, in line with the proposed hypotheses, perceived teachers' meaning support in learning was significantly associated with both college students' engagement (β_c = 0.53, SE = 0.011, p < 0.05) and basic psychological satisfaction (βa = 0.30, SE = 0.022, p < 0.05). Furthermore, when basic psychological needs satisfaction was included in the model, the direct relationship between perceived teachers' meaning support in learning and college student engagement was lessened ($\beta_{c'}$ = 0.15, SE = 0.012, p < 0.05). It means that basic psychological needs satisfaction has a role in mediating perceived teachers' meaning support in learning and college student engagement. Therefore, the proposed research hypothesis was accepted.
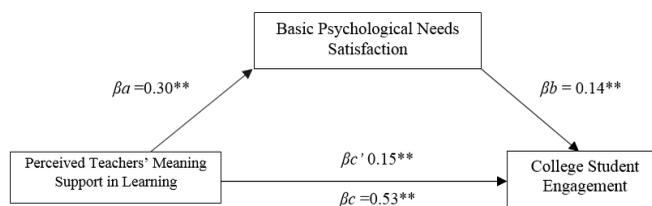
Figure 2. Regression coefficients of basic psychological needs satisfaction as a mediator between perceived teachers' meaning support in learning and college student engagement

This mediational statistical result suggests that the positive relationship of perceived teachers' meaning support in learning and college student engagement is partly caused by basic psychological needs satisfaction. Thus, teachers may promote students' engagement by facilitating their basic psychological needs satisfaction.

DISCUSSION

The research hypothesis that basic psychological needs satisfaction mediates teachers' meaning support in learning and college student engagement, was supported. Decreases of the B value exposed the basic psychological need satisfaction transmit the influence of perceived teachers' meaning support in learning to college students' engagement (MacKinnon et al., 2007). From this study, satisfaction of basic psychological needs partly influenced the relationships between perceived teachers meaning support in learning and students' engagement. It is understandable that in psychological phenomenon there are no such single cause factors (MacKinnon et al., 2007).

This study's finding supported a previous similar study by Schreiner and Louis (2006). In other words, freshmen of Jakarta State University who participated in this study felt engaged in the learning process through satisfaction of basic psychological needs sustained by teachers' meaning support in learning.

Another research finding on the association between basic psychological needs satisfaction and student engagement

also supported previous studies that found that basic psychological needs satisfaction promotes learning engagement (Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Gagnon, 2008; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). From the SDT framework, in terms of the learning process, the satisfaction of basic psychological needs facilitated by teachers stimulates autonomous learning so that students feel free to choose how they perform their classroom activities (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Feelings of being respected and having opportunities to express their ideas freely and intrinsically motivates students. Teachers' meaning support in the learning variable, consisting of seven dimensions which are achievement, religion, relationship, self-transcendence, self-acceptance, intimacy, and fair treatment may share components with the three basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. From the SDT perspective, when students learn in an environment that supports their needs and have an autonomy-supportive teacher, they have a greater chance to engage in learning activities, develop inner motivational resources (Reeve & Halusic, 2009), and be more creative and be better adjusted (Núñez & León, 2015). These teacher - student interaction outcomes represent a social relationship that provides students with chances to find meaning (Lambert et al., 2013). It also shows the existence of social support, in this case, perceived teachers' meaning support in learning, which contributes to students' meaning of life (Krause & Coates, 2008). Thus,

that perceived teachers' meaning support in learning has a strong relationship with basic psychological needs satisfaction is understandable.

Strengthening meaning in learning through perception of teachers' meaning support can lead to students' intrinsic motivation. Since meaning is owned universally, but also by every individual, teachers need only to direct or emphasize meaning through learning materials. For example, the method of integrating learning materials with students' source of meaning is especially effective with first-year college students as they still highly depend on their teachers. Dependence of new college students on teachers has also been shown to have a significant relationship with student engagement. This can be explained by Primana (2015), who stated that new students still regarded their teacher as the authority and source of information. Possibly, teachers' role in shaping the meaning of learning with first-level and next-level college students differs.

Further research should consider several things. First, since this study sample involved only first-year college students experiencing the transition from high school to higher education, future research might include higher-level students to investigate similarities and differences. Another suggestion is to analyze overlapping components of teachers' meaning support and basic psychological needs to discover other potential mediating psychological variables—possibly, learning strategies, self-disclosure, and learning anxiety—

to provide more information about the relationship between meaning support in learning and student engagement.

CONCLUSIONS

Data analysis shows that the fulfillment of basic psychological needs significantly but partially mediates perceived teacher's meaning support in learning and college student engagement. This finding may contribute to further studies in student engagement, particularly in Indonesia, where the high number of college dropouts needs to be reduced. Research trends in student engagement should focus more on understanding learning approach strategy, so the expected linking of student engagement with perceived teachers' meaning support in learning can provide other alternatives for enhancing the quality of student engagement.

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Efforts Toward Child Scavengers' Educational Welfare at the *Pusat Kegiatan Belajar Masyarakat* School, Indonesia

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ABSTRACT

This article discusses efforts toward child scavengers' educational welfare at Community Learning Centre (CLC), a school in the scavenger community in the dump site area at Sumur Batu Bantar Gebang Bekasi West Java. This is a qualitative study with a descriptive approach where the informants were the principal and teachers at CLC as well as child scavengers and their parents. In this report, conditions and problems associated with child scavengers' education, the objectives and efforts of CLC to date, and the changes that are seen in child scavengers after they received some education are observed and recorded. The child scavenger education problems for example many children are not attending school or have dropped out of school due to the economic conditions of their families, which motivate child scavengers to work either scavenging garbage or at home. The main objectives are to describe and analyse whether the presence of CLC actually helps improve the welfare of children in the scavenger community, especially with regard to the fulfillment of their educational needs.

Keywords: Child welfare, child scavenger, education, poverty alleviation

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INTRODUCTION

Efforts toward child welfare are certainly related to the fulfillment of basic needs. The basic needs approach as explained by Djoke et al. (2010) states that every individual should be able to meet his or her basic needs as a means of support in working to achieve a better quality of life. These basic needs include education, health, hygiene, sanitation, drinking water, housing, and

access to basic infrastructure. From this perspective, education becomes a matter of concern for child welfare.

Most of the residents in the Bantar Gebang dumpsite area on the Indonesian island of Java engage in "mulung," that is, garbage picking, as their main livelihood. Most scavengers are unskilled migrants and workers who collect garbage such as aluminum cans, bottles, and plastic cups and then sell them. Scavengers who are also parents often encourage their children to be scavengers as well, so that their education is rather neglected (Baines, 2013).

It is necessary to pay attention to child scavengers' education in order to realize their welfare. Research has found that the education of child scavengers is affected primarily by their poverty and the attitudes of their parents toward education. Poverty often causes scavengers to prefer collecting garbage to pursuing education because of their severe need for the money they can earn. Accordingly, education is a lower priority in this situation. Many children are eventually forced to drop out of school altogether because of the poverty of their families.

Education as something that must be achieved in order to realize that child welfare was also discussed by Lehman and Smeeding (1997), who assessed child welfare in terms of cognitive, social, intellectual, educational, and other measures in child development. It can be seen that child welfare is closely connected to child development and that education becomes a way to promote good development .

The link between child welfare and child development was also discussed by Webb (2009), Harden (2004), and Newton et al. (2000), who discussed child welfare more broadly as the set of conditions necessary to support the whole person rather than just the child's physical function. Security and stability are also related to child well-being, functional development, and mental health. Further studies on child development with specific attention to child functioning have revealed the importance of health or physical function along with academic/cognitive and emotional/social development, as mentioned by Webb (2009).

RESEARCH PROBLEMS

Children who live in poverty face many problems that form a barrier to their learning (Santrock, 2010). Like their parents, children in dire economic conditions are at high risk of facing mental health problems (McLoyd et al. as cited in Santrock, 2010) including depression, lack of confidence, conflicts with friends and conflicts with the law, and experience these crises more frequently compared to children from economically stable families.

This confirms that promoting education among children from low-income families should be a top priority. Not only parents but also society and the government play a role in providing children with education. Kabubo-Mariara et al. (2010) mentioned that government intervention was expected to open access to education that could effectively prepare children from poor families to seize the opportunity to escape

from poverty. The community can also play an encouraging role in child education.

For children who do not seek formal education, the support from the community for education at the community level can come in the form of informal education through Community Learning Center (CLC). CLC is a community development institution established by the community under the guidance of Indonesia's Department of Education. All forms of learning activities are based on, by, and for the community. This is a program-based activity, particularly, linked to poverty alleviation programs and education (Direktorat Pembinaan Pendidikan Masyarakat, 2014). To resolve children's education problems, especially those of impoverished children, the field of community school services strives to respond to children's educational needs. As Rose (2006) had mentioned, the concept of the community school was essentially comprehensive, as it included early intervention, access to healthcare and mental health treatment, family resources, support centers, and community involvement.

One form of support available to the community of scavengers at the Sumur Batu dump site is the informal educational institution known as CLC. CLC is present in the scavenging community as a system promoting the welfare of children with regard to education and healthy living from outside the family. As mentioned in the study by Annisah (2014), such external resources can become a source of family strength in the fulfillment of child welfare, especially with regard to education. The

ongoing efforts to promote child scavengers' welfare in the scavenger community at the Sumur Batu dump site are fascinating and are the object of this research. The question is whether the presence of PKBM/CLC actually helps improve the welfare of children in the scavenger community, especially with regard to the fulfillment of their educational needs.

The objective of this research is to describe and analyse whether the presence of PKBM/CLC actually helps improve the welfare of children in the scavenger community, especially with regard to the fulfillment of their educational needs.

METHODS

This study used a qualitative method with a descriptive approach in that it attempted to explain and describe the efforts toward fulfillment of child welfare through CLC. The location of the study was the region around the Sumur Batu dump site at Sumur Batu, Bantar Gebang, Bekasi, West Java. Data were collected through in-depth interviews first with principals and teachers at the CLC, an informal school located in the community of scavengers, and later with child scavengers and their parents.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Here, we report our fieldwork findings about the fulfillment of child scavengers' educational welfare, incorporating the scavengers' educational problems, the efforts undertaken at the CLC, the CLC's goals with regard to the educational needs of child scavengers and the changes that are

seen in child scavengers after they receive some education at the CLC.

Child Scavengers' Education Problems

The fulfillment of child scavengers' education in Sumur Batu Bantar Gebang Bekasi is obstructed by various problems. Many children are not attending school or have dropped out of school due to the economic conditions of their families, which motivate child scavengers to work either scavenging garbage or at home. The mindset of most scavengers is of a material and financial nature; this is evident from observing the many parents who encourage their children to scavenge garbage to earn money, as garbage scavenging is thought to be an easy way to earn money. Another problem is due to the economic conditions and backgrounds of parents, which influence their parenting and their attitudes toward education. Various problems can affect a child's education for academic and social/emotional or developmental reasons.

The majority of child scavengers are from families who lack local identity cards. As local teacher Mrs. Ty put it, many children are "dropping out of school… because most of them have no identity, [so] they can't have education in formal school" (Personal Communication, March 1, 2017). There are also children whose parents had been married before, then had divorced before marrying again; there are even some children whose parents are not officially married, which profoundly affects the child, as conveyed by Mr. Hk: "Most children here are settled foreigners who do not have ID cards because they were lost; there are also some whose parents have not got a marriage certificate; their marriage was not through civil records, so the children here are affected by many factors related to their parents, many of whom married divorced partners" (Personal communication, March 1, 2017). This is one reason why many scavengers cannot go to public schools, and why many children drop out of school.

Another problem that causes child scavengers to quit school is the condition of the family. To meet their daily needs, whole scavenger families have to go to the dumpsite to collect garbage that can be sold. Conditions of poverty make child scavengers want to help their parents earn money and ultimately to leave school in order to do this, as revealed by Mr. Fr: "there is also [the desire to] help their parents; they say [they feel] sorry for [their] parents and want to help. This usually happens among children who are already teenagers" (Personal communication, March 1, 2017)

Efforts Toward Fulfillment of Educational Needs

Efforts toward fulfillment of child scavengers' educational needs come from citizen awareness and concern for these children's rights, as they are just as entitled to education as any other children are. As stated previously, the majority of child scavengers cannot attend formal school because their parents do not have a local identity, but failure to pursue education can

also be due to the background and present conditions of a scavenger family.

To fulfill the child scavengers' educational needs, there are several activities undertaken at CLC. Some of these activities are undertaken to call attention to the synergy between teachers, children, and parents. First, some of the daily activities at school focus on the practice of daily worship. These activities are aimed at religious growth and the improvement of the children's characters. Every day a morning pledge is read and each child's worship on the previous day is evaluated; after this, learning activities are conducted in the classroom. For preschool classes, there are grades 1–3 learning activities until half past eleven; for grades 4, 5, and 6 and Paket B, learning activities go until noon, followed by dzuhur praying and school dismissal. For class C, school starts at 1 pm and is only in session on Monday, Wednesday, and Thursday. This is reflected in the following excerpt: "The activities generate synergy between parents, teachers and children by holding regular meetings with parents and teachers in schools on how to control our children's activities at home. Every morning there is an activity to check whether the five daily prayers were completed, though students usually say that they were completed; if the prayers were not completed, it is likely that the learning activities were also not completed. This occurs about 40 percent of the time" (Personal communication, March 1, 2017).

Objectives Related to Fulfilling Educational Needs

The objectives related to fulfilling the educational needs of child scavengers at CLC are different from those at a more typical school. CLC, being located in a scavenger area and thus serving primarily scavenger children, places more emphasis on character and behavior improvement, worship, and cognitive or academic development. We observed that the current goals at PKBM consist of social/emotional developmental milestones such as character improvement, worship and moral improvement, increased self-confidence, increased motivation to learn, improved insight, and finally better education for scavengers and a lower dropout rate.

Social/emotional development objectives are the preferred achievements in education at CLC. This is because of the child scavengers' conditions, which result in behavioral problems being a greater concern than cognitive and academic development. In the aspect of social/emotional development, common goals are improvement of character, increased respect for the elderly, awareness of courteous behavior, and ability to speak politely. It is also hoped that every program or activity undertaken will improve their worship and religious knowledge, as this can be the basis for them to choose right over wrong deeds. These ideas were expressed by two teachers as follows: "For the child scavengers' education, the first priority is character and the second is academics, because we are now focused on character, as academically

they are far behind the standard. Some are more advanced than others, but these are rare" (Personal communication, March 1, 2017); furthermore, "every program or agenda that we propose is aimed at three achievements: worship, that is, the desire to pray and the ability to review whether their morals are the same as those of their teachers and parents, knowing how to say greetings, and knowing how to talk and get along" (Personal communication, March 1, 2017).

Furthermore, child scavengers are encouraged to be more confident, as they are still able to learn regardless of their conditions, and can even continue their education until higher education. They also encouraged to attend school regularly, be confident, and socialize well with others when outside the scavenger environment. These ideas were summarized as follows: "The first goal is for the children to keep learning and to have dreams, so that the child scavengers will continue to learn and progress to better schools, so that they can have a future and can proceed with their development and not be embarrassed, and so that ambitious goals can help them learn and have an education; they also need to mingle with others and to be confident" (Personal communication, March 1, 2017).

In terms of their cognitive/academic development, child scavengers are expected to acquire the basic skills of reading and writing and an open-minded approach to the outside world. Child scavengers can become more confident as they gain more knowledge, as expressed by an interview subject: "The third academic priority is that

they know the latest science. They also need to know that they are social beings and that life at Sumur Batu is not the only kind of life. At this point, they will begin to grow confident as they realize their similarity to other children in formal education. They may have born into a disadvantaged situation but they have a lot of ability. The main thing is that they develop insight and also more confidence" (Personal communication, March 1, 2017).

The importance of CLC's objectives with regard to the cognitive and academic development aspects of child scavengers cannot be overemphasized, because the cognitive and academic ability of the average child scavenger is limited due to their lack of stimulation in the pre-school years. Some children have above-average ability, however, because they have perseverance in learning. It is expected that an education at CLC can enable a child to continue to higher schooling, so that they can improve their living standards by getting access to opportunities other than scavenging.

Changes in Child Scavengers Related to the Fulfillment of their Educational Needs

Educational attainment for scavengers leads to improved development after learning at CLC. As mentioned above, educational attainment at CLC is aimed at emotional/social development such as character and behavior. Cognitive-academic development follows, and eventually change is achieved when child scavengers who have succeeded in pursuing higher education return to their

former environment and become agents of change.

The first changes seen are typically related to social and emotional development, which is of primary concern at CLC. These include changes in character as revealed by the behavior of children who previously spoke and behaved roughly; the frequency of fights diminishes, and their way of speaking to the teachers improves, as reported by an informant: "Changes in child scavengers include more prayer, better character, and better ways of speaking to the same teachers" (Personal communication, March 1, 2017). One of the child scavengers who attended PKBM reported that he had often felt angry before, but he no longer liked to be angry: "I used to like being angry, but after being here, this went away" (Personal communication, March 1, 2017). From this, it is seen that there is an achievement in accordance with the main target of education at CLC, that is, improvements in social/emotional development, and especially character.

Other changes seen in child scavengers after they have participated in CLC include becoming more confident, daring to perform, and not feeling inferior because of their condition. The children receive encouragement from their teachers in order to boost their confidence; for example, a teacher might point out that a student was formerly "not confident [and is] now confident, or formerly could not read the Qur'an [and] now can say 'Alhamdulillah', or used to be shy [and is] now so confident, and can move forward and look forward"

(Personal communication, March 1, 2017). Greater confidence gives a child more motivation to attend higher school, as reported by Mrs. Ty: "Who surely is now more educated, has the motivation to have goals, has the motivation to continue [to] higher school" (Personal communication, March 1, 2017).

As for social and emotional development, which is the main target at CLC, child scavengers can show changes, although there are still students present who have not yet started to show these changes. This is because these improvements in child scavengers cannot be achieved through school-based efforts alone, but must also be influenced by parents, family, and the residential environment where children spend a lot of time.

With regard to academic/cognitive development, child scavengers are at a low level and cannot be compared with children in general. Child scavengers in primary school are expected only to be able to read and write and to have the desire for further study, as the following interview reveals: "from an academic [standpoint, they] can read and can memorize, but basically we're grateful they still want to learn" (Personal communication, March 1, 2017). The academic goals for the child scavengers who attend school at CLC consist of improved ability to read, write, study, and continue studying. This shows that the cognitive-academic development aspect of education is not a priority here because education must be adapted to the child scavengers' condition.

One of the objectives related to the fulfillment of education in child scavengers is the production of agents of change from among the child scavengers themselves. Young people who grew up in the scavenging community are more aware and better understand the conditions that exist in the environment and what will be faced. When they are educated to a college level, they can return to motivate the next generation of child scavengers and their parents that education is very important and beneficial for a better life outside the world of rubbish. One example of this is what happened to Mn, who now often provides motivation to scavengers who are in school or who have not attended school: "Now, Alhamdulillah, I can help provide motivation and understanding of the importance of school" (Personal communication, March 1, 2017). Mn now also teaches scavengers who cannot go to CLC near their homes.

DISCUSSION

Any attempt to improve child scavenger welfare, including their educational welfare, must consider the unique conditions and problems facing child scavengers. Through our fieldwork on the educational needs of child scavengers in the scavengers' community at the Sumur Batu dump site in Bantar Gebang, we found that the main problem affecting child scavengers' education is the large number of children who are not attending school or who have dropped out of school. There are various reasons why so many scavengers are not attending school or dropping out, related to the conditions of their families as well as the environment in which they live.

Around the world, children living in poverty encounter problems that are a barrier to their learning (Mcloyd et al., 2009; Tamis-LeMonda & McFadden, 2010). These problems can come from within the family as well as from the environment; indeed, the characteristics of a child's environment can affect the child profoundly, especially with regard to his education (Connell & Halpern-Felsher, 1997).

The problems coming from within the family that we identified in our fieldwork include the absence of an official identity, such as birth certificates for the children and identity cards; in the absence of an official identity, scavenger children cannot access the free education that is offered in nearby public schools. Other family problems arise from having divorced parents or single parents. This affects the status and care of the child, as shown by Santrock (2010), because single mothers and parents in difficult economic conditions are more likely to experience stress and less likely to get support. This can certainly have an impact on child development.

The problems originating in the environment include the fact that the community is mostly made up of nomads from outside the Bekasi area. Most also do not have a local identity card. Because of their status and conditions, scavengers are often marginalized and receive no attention from the local people, which means that the scavenger community is isolated. This is in line with previous descriptions of isolated

communities including that of Bowes and Hayes (1999).

Our fieldwork findings confirmed that the basic needs of children such as education and health must be met if they are to achieve a good quality of life (Djoke et al., 2010; Kirst-Asman, 2007). Education is an important tool that can change a child's condition to one of prosperity. Education is also a way to foster child development (Lehman & Smeeding, 1997). The overarching theme of all the CLC's goals is to promote the human development of the scavengers through informal education in the scavengers' community.

CLC exists in the community of scavengers because it was originally intended specifically for child scavengers. However, as it has grown it has also received children from poor families in the surrounding areas who are not scavengers but are in some way unable to attend public schools. CLC cannot truly be considered a community school as defined by Rose (2006) and Agosto (1999), that is, as having grown from and for the community and involving the local community. Although CLC is located within the scavenger community, its funding and support comes from foundations and individuals outside the dump site area who care about child scavengers' education, and furthermore almost the entire teaching staff comes from outside the Sumur Batu area. In practice, however, it is similar to a community school as it aims to develop education, invite family involvement, and provide comprehensive services. In addition, CLC provides education only 3 days per week as an adaptation to the child scavengers' ongoing need to work; this is similar to the steps taken by community schools to embrace the habits and conditions that exist in a particular community.

CLC shares another characteristic of community schools as described by Jones and Stoodley (1999) in that it strives to promote positive values. The community school approach aims to increase students' awareness and to create a school environment that supports each student's character growth. The positive values that are promoted at CLC include religious (worship) growth and the improvement of character.

As for cognitive/academic development, our fieldwork revealed that the child scavengers are expected to learn the basic skills of reading and writing and to acquire an open-minded perspective on the outside world. Aspects of cognitive and academic development are not overly emphasized in child scavengers because their cognitive and academic abilities are typically compromised. As Arnold and Doctoroff (2003) and Duncan et al. (1998) had noted, children living in economically disadvantaged conditions often had poor educational attainment, and poverty in children could eliminate opportunities for high educational attainment. As the economic conditions, family backgrounds and environment of child scavengers has limited their potential for prior educational achievement, the changes that the school aims to promote are primarily focused on social/emotional growth.

In spite of CLC's efforts, not many child scavengers have successfully pursued a university-level education to date. The children who have achieved this have come from the same conditions as most child scavengers, but have nevertheless managed to achieve good results in school; of course, this is also influenced by various sources of support outside the school, especially parents and extended family. Under these conditions, child scavengers can perform well in school. One study found that high-income aspirations among low-income parents were associated with positive educational outcomes at a young age; this is confirmed by the association between children with poor economic backgrounds yet high achievement in school and parents who attempt to provide the kind of living conditions and support that will enable success in school.

CONCLUSIONS

Efforts toward child scavenger welfare, and specifically those related to their educational needs, must start by considering the unique problems and conditions faced by child scavengers. At PKBM/CLC, the main objectives are social/emotional growth followed by academic/cognitive development, based on an understanding of these children's needs. Efforts at PKBM prioritize social/emotional change, that is, improvement of character, rather than academic/cognitive development. These efforts have resulted in improvements in the child scavengers' character, basic skills such as reading and writing, and insight. One of

the main goals of CLC is to enable the rise of former child scavengers as agents of change who return to the scavenger community to invite other child scavengers to pursue an education.

It can be concluded that, through careful observation and adjustments by the staff, the efforts toward child scavengers' educational welfare at CLC are in tune with the particular conditions and needs of scavengers. One remaining weakness of CLC's operations, however, is its inability to appeal to child scavengers who are more interested in garbage scavenging to earn quick money than in going to school.

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SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES

Short Communication

Persistence, Retention and Completion of BS Agriculture Students in the University of the Philippines

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ABSTRACT

The study used correlational research design to identify factors that explained persistence and retention of BS Agriculture students in the University of the Philippines. The findings reveal a significant relationship between persistence and retention. The results of ordinal logistic regression prove that student satisfaction increases student retention. The Nagelkerke's pseudo R^2 value indicates that classroom-related factors explain a large proportion of variation in the student persistence. As persistence goes hand in hand with retention, higher agricultural education can make use of these influential factors by providing the best educational services and learning experiences to students who found the right choice in agriculture.

Keywords: Agriculture education, completion, degree, persistence, Philippines, retention

INTRODUCTION

The Philippines, being an agricultural country continues to depend on agricultural science and agricultural college education for the development of the country's agricultural sector. But the agriculture sector today suffers from a lack of human resources. One reason is that its higher education sector has been experiencing a serious decline in the number of graduates from the field of agriculture since the year 2000 (Commission on Higher Education,

2016). In fact, the number of students attending college continues to grow, but the problems of improving graduation and the completion rates in this field remain a challenge.

Table 1 shows the enrolment and graduates by discipline group in the Philippine higher education. In the Philippines, as presented, agriculture and its related courses lag far behind those of their allied degree programs being offered by the state universities and colleges all over the country.

Several issues point to the role of student persistence and institutional retention in improving graduation and completion rates of the agriculture students in college. But the question is, how do these two major variables really contribute or in particular, which persistence and retention factors are indeed influential to the success of every student in college?

By capturing the experiences of the students who persist and remain in their chosen degree program as well as those who successfully complete the program, this study will uncover factors that explain the persistence and retention of college students in pursuing the Bachelor of Science in Agriculture until the end.

To clarify persistence, it refers to the aspiration of Bachelor of Science in Agriculture (BSA) students to complete the four-year bachelor's degree program in agriculture and one's chosen field of specialization. This student aspiration is supported by items related to personal, academic and career disposition of agriculture students as well as their experiences towards institutional- and classroom-related factors. Retention, on the other hand, refers to agriculture students who are institutionally retained, meaning they remain enrolled at the same institution until graduation.

The study reported in this paper will specifically determine the relationship between persistence and retention; as well as determine which factors really contribute to persistence, retention, and completion of the BS Agriculture program by the students.

Table 1

Higher education enrolment and graduates by discipline group, academic year 2012-13 to 2014-15

Discipline Group	Enrolment			Graduates	
	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15	2012-13	2013-14
Agricultural, Forestry, Fisheries, Vet Med.	81,740	96,164	125,526	13,796	13,986
Arts and Sciences	447,007	482,193	517,725	70,263	72,838
Business Administration and Related	915,191	970,558	990,676	164,541	169,846
Education and Teaching Training	536,854	624,254	725,183	86,903	98,277
Engineering and Technology	811,644	849,559	896,933	132,278	136,515
Medical and Allied	243,285	228,484	224,897	57,427	50,513
Other Disciplines	281,544	312,184	330,786	39,561	43,313
Total	3,317,265	3,563,396	3,811,726	564,769	585,288

Note: *Graduates AY 2014-15 -not available*

Retrieved August 30, 2016, from *http://www.ched.gov.ph/central/page/ched-statistics*

While exploring the factors that explain persistence, retention and completion of agriculture students, this study serves as a step toward understanding the mechanisms through which the university influences, and other factors that affect persistence, retention of college students in pursuing BS Agriculture course towards their degree completion. It further illuminates the ways in which students are supported and challenged in their academic pursuits in BS Agriculture program.

This study likewise serves as an eye-opener to different colleges and universities all over the country so as to gain an understanding of the barriers encountered by students in completing their degree and devise means for addressing those barriers and the unmet needs of this student population. Better understanding of the student body can lead to improved projection of enrollment patterns and overall improvements to the enrollment management. The school administrators, particularly the future implementers of the institution may have a basis in assessing the program and plan for its improvement, which is geared towards funding stability of the institution (i.e., low retention rates negatively impact an institution's budget due to lost revenue (services, tuition, residence etc..); promoting institutional reputation (i.e., low retention rates can negatively impact the institution's reputation); strengthening alumni relations (i.e., fewer graduates = fewer alumni = reduced number of prospective future donors); as well as with the government relations (i.e., funding transfers and accountability: with governments and taxpayers).

The findings will help teachers generate insights that may lead to the enrichment of the teaching materials and techniques to provide better training tools to produce capable agriculture students who will complete the program. The findings will also help parents identify the needs of their children and find ways and means to make them work together with their teachers which in turn facilitate the motivation of college students toward school and consequently increase school attendance and participation leading to degree completion.

Furthermore, this study will help students realize the weight of their education in a number of ways including better use of their time and resources. This realization encourages them to complete their degree program; thus increase their contribution to the economic development of the country. Finally, this study will serve as a springboard for a series of studies directed towards strengthening the agriculture program in the higher education system in the Philippines.

METHODS

Research Design

This study used the correlational research design to address the persistence and retention factors that influenced agriculture students in pursuing their Bachelor of Science in Agriculture program until its completion.

Respondents of the Study

The sample consisting of BS Agriculture students of the academic year 2014-2015 were randomly selected. The study employed the stratified random sampling with proportional allocation of the respondents which represented 47.7% of the total research population. Specifically, the subject was composed of 58 student respondents from second year, 70 from third year and 82 from fourth year levels for a total of 210 student respondents in all. This study identified persistence and retention factors of agriculture students during their first year of college as they moved on to second year, third year and fourth year by the selected demographic characteristics including age, gender, enrolment status and major.

Data Gathering Instrument and Procedure

This study used student's self-administered questionnaire, which received a 100 per cent response rate. Persistence and retention are measured using researcher-made survey questionnaires. Persistence factors are composed of fifteen-item (15) student-related, seventeen- item (17) institution-related, and eighteen-item (18) classroom-related factors, a total of 50 perception statements in all. Retention factors are composed of 20-item survey questionnaire answered by the students in relation to their perception towards institutional issues, characteristics (i.e., programs and curricular offerings), and services as well as their evaluation of the institution's ability to maintain the enrolment by implementing

some student retention "best" practices. This student assessment was measured using a four-point degree scale ranging from "no contribution" (1) to "major contribution to my retention" (4). Both sets of persistence and retention instrument were validated by experts and pilot tested to 10 BS Agriculture students who were not part of the respondents.

Tools for Data Analysis

The study used the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 16 in analysing the data. This study employed descriptive analysis (i.e., frequencies) in determining persistence and retention factors and chi-square test for independence, also called Pearson's chi-square test in determining significant relationship between two categorical variables (i.e., persistence, retention, and year level).

The study also used Ordinal Logistic Regression (OLR) (often just called 'ordinal regression'), in particular the cumulative odds ordinal regression with proportional odds to predict an ordinal dependent variable given one or more independent variables.

Methods of Analysis

Analysing data using ordinal regression requires passing its four assumptions (https://statistics.laerd.com/spss-tutorials/ordinal-regression-using-spss-statistics.php 15 July 2016), which the study met. In this study the dependent variables (i.e., persistence and retention) were measured at the ordinal levels, whereas, independent variables (student-related, classroom-

related, institution-related factors, student academic performance, year level, and gender) are continuous, ordinal or categorical (including dichotomous) variables. Dummy variables for three categorical variables (i.e., student grade performance were coded "0" for grade range between 1.00–1.49–Excellent, "1" for 1.50–2.00–Very Good, "2" for 2.01-2.49-Good, and "3' for 2.50-3.00-Satisfactory; year levels were coded "1" for 2nd year, "2" for 3rd year, and "3" for 4th year; gender was coded "0" for male and "1" for female) were created. Also, it made use of proportional odds, which is a fundamental assumption of this type of ordinal regression model. The assumption of proportional odds means that each independent variable has an identical effect at each cumulative split of the ordinal dependent variable. All variables were tested at 95% confidence, with r-squares being calculated.

The Nagelkerke pseudo r-square test for strength of association was also employed. All estimates were reported in the form of an odds ratio, a ratio indicating the probability of the occurrence of an event (Rudas, 1998 as cited in Wood & Williams, 2013). In this case, the events of interest were persistence and retention towards degree completion.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents the detailed discussion of results through the data gathered which were organized according to the objectives of the study. Quantified data were tabulated, analyzed and interpreted.

For better understanding, the data were presented in tabular form and generalizations were developed to determine the factors that explain persistence and retention of BS Agriculture students towards degree completion.

Table 2 shows the demographic characteristics of the student respondents in terms of age, gender, major, enrollment status, and self-assessment of academic performance in terms of grade point average.

There were 210 student-respondents in all; 96 or 46% were male and 114 or 54 % female. Majority of these full-time students are between 18 to 20 years of age. Three (3) students or 1.4% were specializing on agricultural systems, 42 or 20% on agronomy, 57 or 27% on animal science, 24 or 11.4% on crop protection and plant pathology, 20 or 10 % on entomology, 32 or 15 % on horticulture and another 27 students or 13 % on soil science. Only 5 students or 2 % belong to other specialization including agricultural extension and weed science.

In terms of college academic performance, 127 students or about 60% of the respondents' grade point average fall on the grade range between 2.01-2.49. This means that most agriculture students have good perception of their academic performance.

Result of chi-square test on Table 3 reveals significant relationship between persistence and retention of BS Agriculture students towards degree completion x^2(6, n=210) = 48.824$_a$, p<0.01. This implies that students' persistence to complete their

Table 2

Demographic characteristics of BS Agriculture students

Age	Year Level			All
	2nd	3rd	4th	Levels
17	6	0	0	6
18	41	7	0	48
19	10	43	10	63
20	0	15	39	54
21	1	2	19	22
22	0	2	7	9
23	0	1	3	4
24 >	0	0	4	4
n	58	70	82	210

Gender	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	29	29	34	36	33	49	96	114
n	58		70		82		210	

Major				
Agricultural Systems	0	2	1	3
Agronomy	5	21	16	42
Animal Science	16	15	26	57
Crop Protection and Plant Pathology	5	10	9	24
Entomology	4	9	7	20
Horticulture	16	6	10	32
Soil Science	12	6	9	27
Others	0	1	4	5
n	58	70	82	210

Enrolment Status				
Full-Time	58	68	77	203
Part-Time	0	2	5	7
n	58	70	82	210

Academic Performance Grade Range				
1.00-1.49	1	1	2	4
1.50-2.00	21	8	18	47
2.01-2.49	28	52	47	127
2.50-3.00	8	9	15	32
n	58	70	82	210

degree changes (either increase or decrease) as the level of institution's retention practices changes. Agriculture students who find their personal attributes, faculty trait and college experiences relevant and meaningful to their chosen degree, and they realize that these persistence factors are supported by the institution's way of implementing the student retention practices in providing better education; are more likely to develop

definite aspiration towards completing the four-year bachelor's degree in the same institution. A significant relationship is also found between year level and persistence x^2 (6, n=210) = 13.643_a, p<0.05. This attests findings from Levy (2009) as cited in Hart (2012), who proposed that college status and graduating term were related factors. That is, the closer to graduation, the more persistent the student. This is being as how prior educational experience may augment confidence through increased familiarity with the environment (Levy, 2007, 2009, as cited in Hart, 2012; Dupin-Bryant, 2004 and Bunn, 2004 [as cited in Hart, 2012]).

In addition to test of association, ordinal logistic regression in particular the cumulative odds ordinal regression with proportional odds was also run to predict an ordinal dependent variable given one or more independent variables in the regression, holding all other variables constant.

Results of the ordinal logistic regression for persistence and retention are reported in Table 4, including the odds-ratio, which is the magnitude of the change in the probability for a 1-unit change in an independent variable. If the odds-ratio is less than 1, an increase (decrease) in the independent variable leads to a decrease (increase) in the probability of student persistence and retention towards degree completion. If the odds-ratio is greater than 1, an increase (decrease) in the independent variable causes the probability of being retained or graduating to increase (decrease). Table 3 provides the significance level, or p-value, for each independent variable. P-values less than 0.05 indicate that the coefficient has a statistically significant impact on the probability of student persistence and retention towards degree completion.

The following section presents the major (statistically significant) results, focusing on the odds-ratio, which is the relative likelihood of a student persisting or being retained compared to not persisting or being retained.

The student-related factors including personal, academic and career disposition have an odds-ratio (1.862) greater than 1, but not significantly different from 0 (p=0.364). This indicates that the odds of being retained grow by 86.2 %for each level increase in the student evaluation of their personal, academic and career disposition, though this pattern was not statistically significant in student retention. On the other hand, the odds-ratio for classroom-related factors (0.016) and institution-related factors (0.019) are less than 1, and both

Table 3

Relationship between paired variables

Variables	X^2-value	p – value
Persistence and Retention	48.824^a (df=6)	0.000*
Persistence and Year Level	13.643^a (df=6)	0.034*

significantly different from 0 (p=0.002; 0.000 respectively) indicates that when agriculture students have increased level of experiences toward institutional processes, academic and co-curricular procedures, as well as faculty and the entire curriculum their odds of being retained decreased by 1.6% to 1.9 % or the students are less likely to be retained. Truly, student satisfaction, particularly with the campus climate, can increase student retention (NASFAA, 2010 as cited in Dela Cruz, 2016).

In terms of student-demographics, only gender is found to be statistically significant in student retention as opposed to academic performance and year level.

The Nagelkerke's pseudo R^2 value indicates that retention accounted for 26.9 % of the variance in the persistence, whereas persistence accounted for 19.1 %of the variance in the retention. Specifically, persistence factors such as student-related accounted for 2.4%, classroom-related accounted for 21.5% and institution-related accounted for 15.3% of the variance in the retention. Conversely, the analysis on each of the persistence factors indicates that it is the classroom-related factors (42.4%) that explain a relatively large proportion of the variation in the student persistence towards degree completion. However, pseudo R^2 values of selected student demographics such as academic performance, gender, and year level suggest a relatively small proportion of the variation in the persistence and retention of agriculture students towards degree completion. This is just as expected because there are numerous student, family and school characteristics that impact on student persistence and retention. Many of which are much more important predictors of persistence and retention than any simple association with student academic performance, gender, and year level.

Table 4

Summary of OLR model for persistence and retention, odds-ratio, p-value, and pseudo R square

	Persistence			Retention		
	Odds Ratio	95%CI	Nagelkerke	Odds Ratio	95%CI	Nagelkerke
Persistence Factors				0.037	0.011-0.127	0.269
				.000**		
Student-Related			0.178	1.862	0.487-7.128	0.024
				0.364		
Classroom-Related			0.424	0.016	0.001-0.198	0.215
				0.001**		

Table 4 *(Continued)*

	Persistence			Retention		
	Odds Ratio	95%CI	Nagelkerke	Odds Ratio	95%CI	Nagelkerke
Institution-Related			0.385	0.019	0.002-0.160	0.153
				0.000**		
Retention	0.000	0.000-0.000				
	0.000**					
Academic Performance	1.155	0.526-2.534	0.017	0.898	0.515-1.566	0.005
	0.720			0.705		
Gender	0.433	0.138-1.358	0.007	3.820	1.659-8.799	0.017
	0.151			0.002**		
Year Level	0.705	0.360-1.379	0.021	1.030	0.644-1.647	0.002
	0.307			0.903		

CONCLUSIONS

The result of this study affirms the significant relationship between student persistence and institutional retention. The way agriculture students aspire to pursue their academic degree still depends on how their educational institution fits to their educational goals and aspirations as well. This points to the classroom-related factors that are indeed crucial to the persistence of the students.

The classroom experiences that start from the quality of teaching to the student engagement or their exposure to active learning sum up their meaningful academic experiences that contribute to student overall satisfaction.

Truly educational institutions play a vital role in improving student persistence. As persistence goes hand in hand with retention, higher agricultural education can really make use of this influential factors that they have and invest by providing the best educational services and learning experiences to students who find the right choice in this field of agriculture. This should therefore be more than just a vision of an educational institution as a whole but a commitment of its constituents. For this is the very essence of agricultural education as an agent of change for the future of coming generation of a distinct population of agricultural practitioners.

Authors' Contributions

RODC, the first and corresponding author, conceived the idea, designed the project and wrote the manuscript. MATQ, the co-author, participated in the design of the study and helped in writing the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Pertanika accepts submission of mainly **four** types of manuscripts for peer-review.

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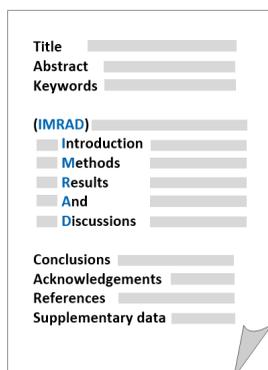
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Short Communication

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