Message from the editor-in-chief

The Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Sciences (MOJES) strives to provide a national and international academic forum to meet the professional interests of individuals in various educational disciplines. It is a professional refereed journal in the interdisciplinary fields sponsored by the Faculty of Education, University of Malaya. This journal serves as a platform for presenting and discussing a wide range of topics in Educational Sciences. It is committed to providing access to quality researches ranging from original research, theoretical articles and concept papers in educational sciences.

In order to produce a high quality journal, extensive effort has been put into selecting valuable researches that contributed to the journal. I would like to take this opportunity to express my appreciation to the editorial board, reviewers and researchers for their valuable contributions to make this journal a reality.

Professor Dr. Saedah Siraj
July 2013
Editor in chief

Message from the editor

The Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Sciences (MOJES) seeks to serve as an academic platform to researchers from the vast domains of Educational Sciences. The journal is published electronically four times a year.

This journal welcomes original and qualified researches on all aspects of Educational Sciences. Topics may include, but not limited to: pedagogy and educational sciences, adult education, education and curriculum, educational psychology, special education, sociology of education, Social Science Education, Art Education, Language Education, educational management, teacher education, distance education, interdisciplinary approaches, and scientific events.

Being the editor of this journal, it is a great pleasure to see the success of the journal. On behalf of the editorial team of the Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Science (MOJES), we would like to thank to all the authors and editors for their contribution to the development of this journal.

Dr. Zaharah Hussin
July 2013
Editor
Editor-in-Chief
Professor Dr. Saedah Siraj, University of Malaya, Malaysia

Editor
Dr. Zaharah Hussin, University of Malaya, Malaysia

Associate Editors
Professor Dr. Omar Abdull Kareem, Sultan Idris University of Education, Malaysia
Associate Prof. Dr. Ibrahem Narongsakhet, Prince of Songkla University, Thailand
Associate Prof. Dr. Mohd Yahya Mohamed Arifin, Islamic Science University of Malaysia
Associate Prof. Dr. Norani Mohd Salleh, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Associate Prof. Dr. Wan Hasmah Wan Mamat, University of Malaya, Malaysia

Advisory Board
Emeritus Professor Dr. Tian Po Oei, University of Queensland, Australia
Professor Dr. Fatimah Hashim, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Professor Dr. Jinwoong Song, Seoul National University, Korea
Professor Dr. H. Mohammad Ali, M.Pd, M.A., Indonesian University of Education, Indonesia
Professor Dr. Moses Samuel, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Professor Dr. Nik Azis Nik Pa, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Professor Dr. Richard Kiely, the University College of St. Mark and St. John, United Kingdom
Professor Dr. Sufean Hussin, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Zawawi Bin Ismail, University of Malaya, Malaysia

Editorial Board
Emeritus Professor Dr. Rahim Md. Sail, University Putra of Malaysia, Malaysia
Professor Dr. Abdul Rashid Mohamed, University of Science, Malaysia
Professor Dr. Ananda Kumar Palaniappan, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Professor Dr. Bakhtiar Shabani Varaki, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran.
Professor Dr. H. Iskandar Wiryokusumo M.Sc, PGRI ADI Buana University, Surabaya, Indonesia
Professor Dr. Ramlee B. Mustapha, Sultan Idris University of Education, Malaysia
Professor Dr. Tamby Subahan Bin Mohd. Meerah, National University of Malaysia, Malaysia
Associate Professor Datin Dr. Sharifah Norul Akmar Syed Zamri, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Associate Professor Dato’ Dr. Ab Halim Bin Tamuri, National University of Malaysia, Malaysia
Associate Professor Dr. Abdul Jalil Bin Othman, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Associate Professor Dr. Ajmain Bin Safar, University of Technology, Malaysia
Associate Professor Dr. Habib Bin Mat Som, Sultan Idris Education University, Malaysia
Associate Professor Dr. Hj. Izaham Shah Bin Ismail, Mara University of Technology, Malaysia
Associate Professor Dr. Jas Laile Suzana Binti Jaafar, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Associate Professor Dr. Juliana Othman, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Associate Professor Dr. Loh Sau Cheong, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Associate Professor Dr. Mariani Binti Md Nor, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Associate Professor Dr. Mohamad Bin Bilal Ali, University of Technology, Malaysia
Associate Professor Dr. Norazah Mohd Nordin, National University of Malaysia, Malaysia
Associate Professor Dr. Rohaida Mohd Saat, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Associate Professor Dr. Syed Farid Alatas, National University of Singapore, Singapore
Datuk Dr. Hussein Hj Ahmad, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Datuk Dr. Abdul Rahman Idris, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Datin Dr. Rahimah Binti Hj Ahmad, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Abu Talib Bin Putih, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Abd Razak Bin Zakaria, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Adelina Binti Asmawi, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Ahmad Zabidi Abdul Razak, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Chew Fong Peng, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Diana Lea Baranovich, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Fatanah Binti Mohamed, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Ghazali Bin Darusalam, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Haslee Sharil Lim Bin Abdullah, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Husaina Banu Binti Kenayathulla, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Kazi Enamul Hoque, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Latifah Binti Ismail, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Lau Poh Li, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Leong Kwan Eu, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Madhyazhagan Ganesan, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Megat Ahmad Kamaluddin Megat Daud, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Melati Binti Sumari, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Mohammed Sani Bin Ibrahim, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Mohd Rashid Mohd Saad, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Muhammad Azhar Bin Zailaini, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Muhammad Faizal Bin A. Ghani, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Nabeel Abdallah Adedalaziz, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Norlidah Binti Alias, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Pradip Kumar Mishra, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Rafidah Binti Aga Mohd Jaladin, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Rahmad Sukor Bin Ab Samad, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Renuka V. Sathasivam, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Rose Amnah Bt Abd Rauf, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Selva Ranee Subramaniam, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Sit Shabeshan Rengasamy, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Shahrir Bin Jamaluddin, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Suzieeleez Syrene Abdul Rahim, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Syed Kamaruzaman Syed Ali, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Vishalache Balakrishnan, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Wail Muin (Al-Haj Sa’id) Ismail, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Wong Seet Leng, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Zahari Bin Ishak, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Zahra Naimie, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Dr. Zanaton Ikhsan, National University of Malaysia, Malaysia
Cik Umi Kalsum Binti Mohd Salleh, University of Malaya, Malaysia
En. Mohd Faisal Bin Mohamed, University of Malaya, Malaysia
En. Norjoharuddeen Mohd Nor, University of Malaya, Malaysia
En. Rahimi Md Saad, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Pn. Alina A. Ranee, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Pn. Azni Yati Kamaruddin, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Pn. Fatiha Senom, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Pn. Fonny Dameaty Hutagalung, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Pn. Foziah Binti Mahmood, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Pn. Hamidah Binti Sulaiman, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Pn. Huzaina Binti Abdul Halim, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Pn. Ida Hartina Ahmed Tharbe, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Pn. Norini Abas, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Pn. Roselina Johari Binti Md Khir, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Pn. Shanina Sharatol Ahmad Shah, University of Malaya, Malaysia

Pn. Zuwati Binti Hashim, University of Malaya, Malaysia
# Table of Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CAPACITY LEVELS OF ACADEMIC STAFF IN A MALAYSIAN PUBLIC UNIVERSITY: STUDENTS’ PERSPECTIVE</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muhammad Jawad Tajuddin, Muhammad Faizal A. Ghani, Saedah Siraj, Mohd Helmi Firdaus Saifuldin, Husaina Banu Kenayatulla, Faisol Elham</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAREER GUIDANCE, PARTICIPATION OF STUDENTS AND ITS IMPLICATION FOR KANO, NIGERIA</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isa Ado Abubakar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FINANCIAL DECENTRALIZATION IN MALAYSIAN SCHOOLS: STRATEGIES FOR EFFECTIVE IMPLEMENTATION</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norfariza Mohd Radzi, Muhammad Faizal A. Ghani, Saedah Siraj, Mojgan Afshari</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEARNING STRATEGIES AND MOTIVATION BY USING STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELING APPROACH</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mohamad Azrien Mohamed Adnan, Mohd Sahari Nordin, Mohd Burhan Ibrahim</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESEARCH AND TRENDS IN THE STUDIES OF SCHOOL-BASED ORAL ENGLISH ASSESSMENT FROM 2003 TO 2011: A REVIEW OF SELECTED JOURNALS</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nur Diana Mohd Kamal, Saedah Siraj, Norlidah Alias, Mohammad Attaran</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Capacity Levels of Academic Staff in a Malaysian Public University: Students’ Perspective
Muhammad Jawad Tajuddin [1], Muhammad Faizal A. Ghani [2], Saedah Siraj [3], Mohd Helmi Firdaus Saifuldin [4], Husaina Banu Kenayatulla [5], Faisol Elham [6]

ABSTRACT

This research aims to develop a competency model for staff of higher education institutions in Malaysia. The model involves the listing of the main features and implementation strategy for the development of academic competence. Specifically, this research aims to achieve the following research objectives: a) to identify if there is any significant difference between locally and internationally educated staff in terms of capacities, b) to identify if there is any significant correlation between the following demographics and levels of capacity, i.e., teaching experience, and ii. academic position; and c) to identify the level of capacity effectiveness among staff? This research applies a quantitative methodology through survey research. The sample includes 120 students in a public university evaluating 10 staff; 5 locally educated & 5 international. The instruments involves a modified questionnaire from an original instrument by Tengku Noorainun Tengku Shahdan (2011). The data analysis will use both statistical descriptive analysis – mean and standard deviation – and statistical inference analysis – Spearman’s r correlation and Mann-Whitney U. This research found that there is no significant difference between locally and internationally educated faculties in terms of capacities when \( p = 0.267 \) (\( p > 0.05 \)). For the second research question, this research found that there is no significant correlation between teaching experience with capacity level when \( p=0.314 \). On the other hand, there is a significant correlation between academic position with capacity level when \( p=0.032 \). For the third research question, this research found that both locally and internationally educated staff have a high level of effectiveness and satisfactory when the overall mean score is more than 3.80. The implication of this research is staff must pay more attention to developing themselves through scholarly works.

Keywords: Comparison, capacity, locally educated faculty members, internationally educated faculty members, public university

INTRODUCTION

After the Industrial Revolution in the 1900’s, an organization is evaluated based on its performance. One major contributing factor towards high performance is manpower with capacity. This matter is mentioned by Asling (2002) that many studies found that there is a correlation between the effectiveness of an organization with the high capacity of its manpower. Moreover, employers tend to look at end product rather than at the process that includes capacities (Townsend, 2001).

In Malaysia, research on manpower is still limited. Marzuki (2004) portrayed the statement by arguing that research on manpower is only limited to university students doing their masters and doctorates which only involve a small sample size. The same goes to research on capacities, in which most scholars tend to prefer capacities of private university faculties over public ones (Tengku Shahdan, 2011).

Based on the above phenomenon, this research aims to evaluate capacities among public university faculties in enhancing manpower performance. The result of this study will benefit policymakers in setting up professional
development programs.

**Problem Statement**

In recent years, output is assumed as a better indicator of an organization’s success rather than the process that was implemented to achieve the success. Mahmod (2008) agrees with the statement by adding that organizations that are task-oriented overlook the process that includes the welfare of their employees. In fact, they put higher priority on achieving the objectives through the output standard that was set up (Abdullah, 2007).

Since the focus was on output rather than on the process, the welfare of staff are pushed more to the side. The implication of this situation is that the performance of organizations decline. This echoes the statement made by Nordin (2011) in which he argued that government investment in education achieved lower than targeted goals in terms of producing staff with high capacities. The staff in turn is demotivated from attending professional development programs (Abdullah, 2007).

Moreover, the phenomenon becomes more serious when universities promote faculty based on capacity levels rather than teaching experience. This situation discourages staff from excelling (Hussin, 2004) and decreases the performance of universities (Nordin, 2011). To take an example, capacity levels of staff are low because public universities stress on publications and researches instead of professional development (Siraj, 2003). In other words, universities only look at output of staff and neglecting their process in performing their tasks.

Based on the above phenomenon, there is a need to do a research that stresses the importance of capacity among staff in public universities. The results of this research can benefit universities to change their current policy to focus on both task and human-oriented.

**Theoretical Framework**

Mulder, Gulikers, Biemans and Wesselink (2009) in their research argue that the concept of competency is always used in education. They said that competency consists of a set of capability integration, knowledge collection, skills, task performance, able to solve problems, and effective competency to a certain standard. Diagram 1 shows in diagram the discussion above.

---

**Figure 1. Relationship between competency and competent with performance**


**Research Purpose**

This research aims to develop a competency model for staff of higher education institutions in Malaysia. The model involves the listing of the main features and implementation strategy for the development of academic competence.
Research Objective

This research is to achieve the following objectives.

a) To identify whether there is any significant difference between locally and internationally educated staff in terms of capacities;

b) To identify whether there is any significant correlation between the following demographics and levels of capacity:
   (i) Teaching experience;
   (ii) Academic position, and

c) To identify the level of capacity effectiveness among staff.

Literature Review

The field of comparative education on national level, at least in Malaysia, deals primarily with the notion of capacity building. Only by understanding the different types of capacity building available will one be able to go through the different models promoted by different scholars that will ultimately help one to understand the education policies especially in Malaysia. There are several types of capacity building, with each giving a slightly different name in front of the word capacity.

Definitions of Capacity

The first definition is Innovation Capacity which can be summarized as innovation being flexible new ideas for product or service advance with improved features. Then, the word capacity can refer to the dimensions of innovation on a time line. Thus, innovation capacity refers to “a continuous improvement of the overall capability of firms to generate innovation for developing new products to meet market needs” (Szeto, 2000). What this means is that a few seminars will not be sufficient for one to develop capacity in innovation because there is a need to do follow-up on the beginning step until one is able to reach the next level where the needs of the market, or in the context of this paper, the students.

Along similar lines, Sullivan proposes his idea of Collaborative Capacity which involves ‘Theories of change’ where one form of the theory-driven approach is used to evaluate complex public policies. This ‘theories of change’ requires education policies to explain the collaborative nature of the ‘process–outcome’ interactions within a ‘whole systems’ approach to education. The theory focuses attention both on the means available to “realize the partnership activities and the appropriateness of the organizational framework to support collaborative activity” (Sullivan, 2002). By linking both Innovation and Collaborative Capacity, one will find that both suggests changes to occur within the people involved so that they will produce better students that satisfy the needs of each specific audience.

However, one may need to be reminded that the phrase capacity-building may have become so “all-encompassing a term as to be ‘useless’ from an analytical and practical point of view” (Potter, 2004). For this very purpose, this paper tries to be very precise on what capacity-building should mean. This paper agrees with Potter’s recommendation through his own Systemic Capacity which emphasizes the creation or reinforcing of capacity for program implementation independent of the durability of an institution. Systemic Capacity refers to the creation, expansion or progression of a stock of wanted qualities and features called capabilities that could be frequently drawn upon over time. The focus of capacity building therefore tends to be on refining the stock rather than on handling whatever is available (Potter, 2004).

This definition of capacity building is supported by United Nations which adds that this kind of capacity building needs to be addressed at three inter-related levels: individual, institutional and societal. What it means is that it could also be described as being integrative across levels instead of independent of each other.

Researcher Rehman et al (1988) called capacity building as Competency Validation in his 1988 research. This paper has a questionnaire that used the keyword competency instead of capacity because most Malaysian scholars of capacity building uses the keyword competency to better suit Malaysian customs of understanding capacity as a horizontal measure rather than vertical. Competency (Capacity) Validation is the process of forming the need or lack of
need of a specific competency. Validation can be done by those who have appropriate insight to be able to judge the relevance and need of a competency in a professional perspective, at the moment or in the future. According to Rehman et al (1988), validation can be performed by in-depth content analysis or by a brief investigation conducted by experts. The validation process identifies specific competencies as acceptable norms for future direction.

Now that the definition of capacity-building has been agreed upon for the purpose of this paper, we now turn to look at some aspects of Malaysian education in both lower and higher institution to see the connection between the two in terms of native and foreign languages before going through several different models that has been suggested and will be used in this paper.

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

A research design is a precise planning for data collection and data analysis (Zikmund 2003). According to Sekaran (2000), research design involves the process of decision and selection based on research objective, research location, unit of analysis, sampling method, data collection and analysis. In short, research method is used to answer the research questions.

This research uses an edited version of an original questionnaire that has been validated and certified. Questionnaire is chosen as the main method because through administration, unbiased student evaluation can be obtained. Further elaboration is available in the Data Collection. Besides that, it is the easiest method to obtain data from a large sample size (Othman 2002; Barbie 2000; Gay & Airasian 2000); Mitchell & Jolley 2004; Frankel & Wallen 2006).

Research Subject

Research subjects are chosen based on the topic and research questions set by the researcher during planning. However, the main component of choosing them adheres to the research ethics that are based on their willingness to participate in this research. Frankel & Wallen (2006), Gay & Airasian (2000) and Patton (2002) all agree with the mentioned component which is their willingness of participate. On top of that, both Patton (2002) and Van Dalen (2001) suggest that researcher also consider the following; (a) research scope, (b) amount of data to be collected and analyzed, (c) interpretation and inference of collected data, and (d) time, expenses and energy used to complete collection and analysis. Therefore, the researcher has decided on the research subjects based upon the following:

Location

A specific public university is chosen as the location for this research that is easily accessible through contact persons since the researcher is not in Malaysia at the time of research. This aligns with the opinion of Spradley (1980) and Taylor & Bogdon (2000) which explains that the researcher has his own reason for choosing that particular location. Furthermore, Marshall & Rossman (2001) suggest seven aspects as guide on deciding a location for research sampling; easily accessible, has an environment that is full of process (related with research issue), subject characteristics, conducive organizational environment, organizational structure that is preferred by the researcher, quality and reliability is maintained and close relationship between the researcher and research subjects.

For that reason, this research chooses a specific public university because the researcher has contacts inside the university that allows data collection without interruption since the researcher does not need to enter the environment. Besides that, the researcher also takes into consideration Snelbecker’s opinion (1974) in which he stated that the implication of choosing a good location will provide a good model and able to become a reference in the future.

Population and Sample

Research population consists of students from two classes that are taught by the researcher’s contact person inside the public university. The two classes are “Early Childhood Leadership and Management” (60 students) and “Societies, Career and Education” (60 students). Students are chosen as research respondents because they are considered as the people who receive direct input by the staff members. Besides that, students can give an accurate picture of the capacity levels of the staff members (McNulty et al. 2005).

To decide the number of needed samples, Krejcie & Morgan (1970) and Sekaran (2003) is referred to as guidance. According to Sekaran (2003), a sample size between 30 to 500 people is enough to make an observation. Therefore, 94 students are enough to represent the whole department if not the university. Meanwhile, Haase & Nilson (1998) which is quoted by Baharom (2004) argues that the sample size needs to be more than the minimum to get
significant findings. A higher number of students will lead to a more accurate finding.

Research Instrument

Data regarding research instrument is a very important component in determining a research design for the purpose of collecting data (Cresswell 1994). A research instrument will be able to help the researcher to collect the data needed in order to answer the proposed research questions. One can build it oneself, use an already existing instrument, or edit and combine the already existing one (Cresswell 1994).

This research uses a questionnaire that is modified from a questionnaire by Tengku Noorainun Tengku Shahdan (2011) because it is as follows a) based on Malaysian context; and b) developed by 15 experts in the higher educational field. Questionnaire is used because of its quantitative nature and involves a big sample. The instrument for this questionnaire has two parts. The first part is the demographics of the evaluated faculty members which has four items; gender, years of teaching in university, highest academic achievement, and position within department. The second part has three types of capacity levels; self-development, academic knowledge, and institutional ethics. Student perception of faculty members’ capacity levels is evaluated using a 5-point Likert scale as follows; (1) Never, (2) Seldom, (3) Sometimes, (4) Often, and (5) Very Often.

Then, the reliability of this instrument is 0.92 according to the Cronbach score while its content validity is evaluated by three experts in this field of organizational management. Specifically, each of the three capacity dimensions is in Table 1.

Data Collection Procedure

Before field work is done, the researcher gets permission from many parties. At the first level, the researcher asks for permission through email from the dean of the department that supervises the students who are the respondents. After receiving the dean’s permission, the researcher asks permission from a contact person who is teaching the students in the two classes to distribute the questionnaires during class.

The contact person gives the students 30 minutes to complete the survey and hand it in. On the first day, students evaluate locally educated staff members. The 84 students were divided into 5 groups and were assigned 5 different staff members. On the next day, the same procedure is repeated for internationally educated staff members. To make assorting easier, the front page of questionnaires for locally educated faculty members are colored blue while for the internationally educated ones are colored green.

Data Analysis Procedure

The data analysis will use both statistical descriptive analysis and statistical inference analysis. According to Fink (1995), to test the data, the type of data needs to be identified first whether it is nominal, ordinal, range, or ratio. Accordingly, this research uses ordinal data because of the Likert scale from 1 to 5.

Statistical Descriptive Analysis

Statistical descriptive analysis involves a comprehensive explanation about the different demographics. In this research, demographics include gender, years of teaching in university, highest academic achievement, and position within department. In answering the first research question, mean score analysis is used. To evaluate levels of mean scores, the researcher follows the interpretation as provided by Nunally & Bernstein (1994); 1.00 to 2.00 indicates a very low mean score, 2.00 to 3.00 shows a low mean score, 3.00 to 4.00 illustrates a high mean score, and 4.00 to 5.00 demonstrates a very high mean score. To evaluate the level of effectiveness and its interpretation, this research uses Gay’s suggestion for determining the level of effectiveness and its interpretation as shown in Table 1.

| Table 1 Interpretation of mean score for capacity effectiveness level |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Mean Score | Effectiveness Level | Interpretation |
| 1.00 to 2.49 | Low | Less Satisfactory |
| 2.50 to 3.79 | Average | Average |
| 3.80 to 5.00 | High | Satisfactory |

**Statistical Inference Analysis**

Statistical inference analysis is used to find any significant correlation between the demographics of the staff members and the evaluation of their three dimensions of capacity levels (self-development, academic knowledge, and institutional ethics). Before testing out the hypothesis, the data needs to be determined whether it has a normal bell curve or not. Tan Soo Yin (1999) quotes Cohen & Cohen (1993) by arguing that if the data is not normal, then a transformation should be done to only use median ranges of 25 percent to 75 percent. The researcher discovers that there are no abnormal data being collected. For that reason, two statistical inference analyses are used to answer the remaining research questions; Spearman’s r and Mann-Whitney U test.

**Spearman’s r**

According to Hair et al. (1998), Spearman’s r is used to test the difference in mean scores between two ordinal sample groups. Since this research has ordinal groups, Spearman’s r is best to be used. Mohd Majid (1990) and Tabachnik & Fidell (2001) argue that Spearman’s r can be used if the variables have two categories. For that reason, this research uses Spearman’s r to analyze the difference in mean scores of capacity levels between locally and internationally educated staff members. To evaluate the power of correlation, this research uses Gay’s suggestion for determining the power as shown in Table 2.

**Table 2 Power of r correlation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>r correlation size</th>
<th>Correlation power</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.91 to 1.00 or -0.91 to -1.00</td>
<td>Very Strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.71 to 0.90 or -0.71 to -0.90</td>
<td>Strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.51 to 0.70 or -0.51 to -0.70</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.31 to 0.50 or -0.31 to -0.50</td>
<td>Weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.01 to 0.30 or -0.01 to -0.30</td>
<td>Very Weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>No correlation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**Mann-Whitney U**

Mann-Whitney U is a non-parametric test to analyze the difference between two groups that use ordinal scales. This test is used in this research to determine the correlation between capacity levels of locally and internationally educated faculty members. According to Chua (2008), a normal t-Test is not suitable to be used in this type of research because it does not use a mean score with a range or ratio score.

**FINDINGS**

**Respondent Profile**

Information for the respondents is as follows:

**Student Profile**

Information for the students is shown in Table 3.

**Table 3 Student information that comprises gender, ethnicity, and age**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td>Malay</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>77.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>&lt;20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20-21</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>≥21</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 shows that seventy-two (72) male students were involved and 48 female students. This number represents 60 percent for males and females (40%). Next, in terms of ethnicity, there are 93 Malays that represents 77.5 percent of the total respondents. Chinese (15 respondents, 12.5%), Indians (9 respondents, 7.5%), and others (3 respondents, 2.5%). Then, in terms of age, all of them are of 21 years old and above that represents 100 percent.

**Faculty Profile**

Information for the staff is shown in Table 4.

### Table 4 Faculty information that comprises gender, teaching experience, and academic position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching experience</td>
<td>&lt;10 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11-25 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26-35 years</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;36 years</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic position</td>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Associate Professor</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tutor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows that there are four male staff and six female staff. This number represents 40 percent for males and females (60%). Next, in terms of teaching experience, 1 staff has less than 10 years, which represents 10 percent of the total staff being evaluated. 11-25 years (3 staff, 30%), 26-35 years (4 staff, 40%), and over 36 years (1 staff, 10%). Then, in terms of academic position, 4 staff are professors which represent 40 percent of the total. Associate professors (2 staff, 20%), senior lecturers (2 staff, 20%), lecturer (1 staff, 10%), and tutor (1 staff, 10%).

**Difference of Capacity between Locally and Internationally Educated Staff**

This part is to answer the first research question. To answer the question, data was collected among 120 students to evaluate 4 male staff (2 local and 2 international) and six female staff (3 local and 3 international). The data was analyzed using Mann-Whitney U at a confidence interval of 0.05 or 5 percent. Overall findings are shown in Table 5.

### Table 5 Overall findings for locally and internationally educated staff

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overall</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Ranking Mean</th>
<th>z value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Competency</td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>41.26</td>
<td>-1.459</td>
<td>p=0.267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International</td>
<td>45.46</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Note: * = significant at confidence interval p<0.05 two tails)

Table 5 shows that there is no significant difference between locally and internationally educated staff in terms of capacities when p = 0.267 (p > 0.05). However, capacity levels of internationally educated staff are higher than that of locally educated when mean score for international is 45.46 and local is 41.26. Detailed findings of the difference between locally and internationally educated staff in terms of capacities are shown in Table 6.

### Table 6 Detailed findings for locally and internationally educated staff
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension &amp; Element</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>z value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-development Competency</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Self-control</td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>41.26</td>
<td>-1.639</td>
<td>p=0.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International</td>
<td>49.93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Internal emotion</td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>41.80</td>
<td>-1.819</td>
<td>p=0.231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International</td>
<td>49.37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Psychological influence</td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>42.35</td>
<td>-1.427</td>
<td>p=0.278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International</td>
<td>48.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Academic Competency</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill</td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>40.60</td>
<td>-2.638</td>
<td>*p=0.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International</td>
<td>50.62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>42.22</td>
<td>-1.831</td>
<td>p=0.232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International</td>
<td>48.94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding</td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>43.89</td>
<td>-0.854</td>
<td>p=0.523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International</td>
<td>47.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Competency</td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>33.99</td>
<td>-4.367</td>
<td>*p=0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International</td>
<td>57.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Institutional Competency</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision</td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>43.60</td>
<td>-0.699</td>
<td>p=0.485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International</td>
<td>47.38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional culture</td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>42.04</td>
<td>-1.165</td>
<td>p=0.291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International</td>
<td>49.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordination</td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>43.44</td>
<td>-1.176</td>
<td>p=0.502</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International</td>
<td>47.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Note: * = significant at confidence interval p<0.05 two tails)

Table 6 shows each dimension of the competencies. For the first element of self-development competency, self-control, there is no significant difference between locally and internationally educated staff when $p = 0.110$ ($p > 0.05$). However, capacity levels of internationally educated staff are higher than that of locally educated when mean score for local is 41.26 and international is 49.93. For the second element of self-development competency, internal emotion, there is no significant difference between locally and internationally educated staff when $p = 0.231$ ($p > 0.05$). However, capacity levels of internationally educated staff are higher than that of locally educated when mean score for local is 41.80 and international is 49.37. For the third element of self-development competency, psychological influence, there is no significant difference between locally and internationally educated staff when $p = 0.278$ ($p > 0.05$). However, capacity levels of internationally educated staff are higher than that of locally educated when mean score for local is 42.35 and international is 50.62.

For the first element of academic competency, skill, there is a significant difference between locally and internationally educated staff when $p = 0.049$ ($p < 0.05$). However, capacity levels of internationally educated staff are higher than that of locally educated when mean score for local is 40.60 and international is 49.93. For the second element of academic competency, knowledge, there is no significant difference between locally and internationally educated staff when $p = 0.232$ ($p > 0.05$). However, capacity levels of internationally educated staff are higher than that of locally educated when mean score for local is 42.22 and international is 48.94. For the third element of academic competency, understanding, there is no significant difference between locally and internationally educated staff when $p = 0.523$ ($p > 0.05$). However, capacity levels of internationally educated staff are higher than that of locally educated when mean score for local is 43.89 and international is 47.18. For the fourth element of academic competency, English, there is a significant difference between locally and internationally educated staff when $p = 0.000$ ($p < 0.05$). However, capacity levels of internationally educated staff are higher than that of locally educated when mean score for local is 33.99 and international is 57.94.

For the first element of workplace competency, vision, there is no significant difference between locally and internationally educated staff when $p = 0.485$ ($p > 0.05$). However, capacity levels of internationally educated staff are higher than that of locally educated when mean score for local is 43.60 and international is 47.38. For the second element of academic competency, institutional culture, there is no significant difference between locally and internationally educated staff when $p = 0.291$ ($p > 0.05$). However, capacity levels of internationally educated staff are higher than that of locally educated when mean score for local is 42.94 and international is 49.11. For the third element of academic competency, coordination, there is no significant difference between locally and internationally educated...
staff when $p = 0.502$ ($p > 0.05$). However, capacity levels of internationally educated staff are higher than that of locally educated when mean score for local is 43.44 and international is 47.65.

To conclude the above findings, the majority of elements from the three dimensions have no significant difference between locally and internationally educated staff when $p > 0.05$. There are self-control ($p = 0.110$), internal emotion ($p = 0.231$), psychological influence ($p = 0.278$), knowledge ($p = 0.232$), understanding ($p = 0.523$), vision ($p = 0.485$), institutional culture ($p = 0.291$), and coordination ($p = 0.502$). Meanwhile, there are two elements that have a significant difference between locally and internationally educated staff when $p < 0.05$. There are skill ($p = 0.049$) and English competency ($p = 0.000$).

**Correlation between Teaching Experience and Academic Position with Capacity Levels**

This part is to answer the second research question. To answer the question, data was collected among 120 students to evaluate 4 male staff (2 local and 2 international) and six female staff (3 local and 3 international). The data was analyzed using statistical inferential analysis Spearman’s $r$ Correlation at a confidence interval of 0.05 or 5 percent. The research findings are explained with regards to the related demographics as follows and are shown in Table 7.

| Table 7 Correlation between teaching experience and academic position with capacity level |
|-------------------------------|-------------------|---------------|
| **Item**                      | **Capacity**      |               |
| Teaching Experience           | $r = 0.101$       | $p = 0.314$   | Very Weak |
| Academic Position             | $r = -0.160$      | $p = 0.032$   | Very Weak |

(Note: * = significant at confidence interval $p < 0.05$ two tails)

Table 7 explains as follows:

a) Teaching experience

There is no significant correlation between teaching experience with capacity level when $p = 0.314$ ($p > 0.05$). However, its power is very weak.

b) Academic position

There is a significant correlation between academic position with capacity level when $p = 0.032$ ($p < 0.05$). However, its power is very weak.

In conclusion, there is no significant correlation between teaching experience with capacity level when $p = 0.314$. On the other hand, there is a significant correlation between academic position with capacity level when $p = 0.032$.

**Level of Capacity Effectiveness among Staff**

This part is to answer the third research question. To answer the question, data was collected among 120 students to evaluate 4 male staff (2 local and 2 international) and six female staff (3 local and 3 international). The data was analyzed using statistical descriptive analysis which is mean and standard deviation. Overall findings for the level of effectiveness and its interpretation are presented with regards to the staff's educational background as follows.

**Locally Educated Staff**

Overall findings for the level of effectiveness and its interpretation are shown in Table 8.
Table 8 shows that all of the capacity dimensions have a high level of effectiveness and satisfactory when the overall mean score is 4.13 and its standard deviation is 0.68. Based on each dimension, personal competency dimension has a high level of effectiveness and satisfactory when the overall mean score is 4.21 and its standard deviation is 0.66. Next, academic competency dimension has a high level of effectiveness and satisfactory when the overall mean score is 3.96 and its standard deviation is 0.71. Likewise, workplace competency dimension has a high level of effectiveness and satisfactory when the overall mean score is 4.21 and its standard deviation is 0.66.

**Internationally Educated Staff**

Overall findings for the level of effectiveness and its interpretation are shown in Table 9.

Table 9 Interpretation of mean score for capacity effectiveness level for internationally educated faculty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competency</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workplace</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9 shows that all of the capacity dimensions have a high level of effectiveness and satisfactory when the overall mean score is 4.37 and its standard deviation is 0.65. Based on each dimension, personal competency dimension has a high level of effectiveness and satisfactory when the overall mean score is 4.42 and its standard deviation is 0.63. Next, academic competency dimension has a high level of effectiveness and satisfactory when the overall mean score is 4.34 and its standard deviation is 0.67. Likewise, workplace competency dimension has a high level of effectiveness and satisfactory when the overall mean score is 4.34 and its standard deviation is 0.65.

To recap, both locally and internationally educated staff have a high level of effectiveness and satisfactory when the overall mean score is more than 3.80.

**DISCUSSION**

National revenue emanates from income taxes which consist of individual and company taxes. If a company has higher revenue, it can make a larger contribution through tax charges. However, higher revenue can only be achieved when its manpower has high level of capacity effectiveness (OECD 2000). This statement agrees with the models created by Mulder, Gulikers, Biemans and Wesselink (2009) and Olawale (2010). Their models stress the importance of capacity in order to create a good product.

This research found that there is no significant difference between locally and internationally educated staff in terms of capacities. This finding has its connection with the recruitment policy being adopted by most public universities in Malaysia. The policy requires applicants who wish to become a faculty in universities to have a high academic performance in both undergraduate and graduate levels. Sullivan et al. (2002) portrayed the statement through faculty recruitment policy as not just looking at academic performance; it also takes into consideration personal criteria and previous working experience. The implication of this policy is that an organization’s productivity increases with employees’ higher capacity level (Horowitz, 1989).

From the discussion of recruitment policies as above, university is successful in earning high performance faculties. Therefore, the process of promotion for staff is also based on their capacity levels (Szeto, 2000). By comparing some of the demographics, this research found that teaching experience has no significant correlation with capacity levels while academic position has. This finding contradicts with Abdullah’s opinion (2007) which states that teaching experience has a correlation with capacity levels in educational institutions. This contradiction meets with Baharom (2004) which argues that capacity level increases with teaching experience because of facing different challenges throughout those years. However, this research is based on student perspectives towards their faculties compared to Abdullah (2007) and Baharom’s (2004) opinion which are from the perspectives of the faculties.
Despite the significantly different demographics between faculties, this research found that both locally and internationally educated staff has high level of capacity effectiveness which is satisfactory. A sound reason for this situation is that high performance staff are attracted to incentives made by universities in terms of academic position and financial support. This statement is supported by data from Ministry of Education in 2007 that reports at least 11 school teachers transferring into universities after earning their doctorates throughout Malaysia (MOE, 2007). The implication of this situation is that schools lose their best teachers by mobilizing into universities with attractive incentives (Mahmod, 2008).

To sum up, this research found that capacity levels of staff are important to increase the performance of organizations. Therefore, to ensure that capacity levels are of high priority for the staff, universities make it as an indicator for promotions such as academic positions.

CONCLUSION

To recap, the objectives of this research were to find any significant differences between capacity levels of locally and internationally educated staff, to find any significant correlation between capacity levels with both teaching experience and academic position, and find the level of capacity effectiveness among staff. It turns out that there is no significant difference between locally and internationally educated staff. Although there is no significant correlation between capacity levels and teaching experience, but there is a significant correlation between capacity levels and academic position. Both locally and internationally educated staff have high and satisfactory level of capacity effectiveness.

REFERENCE


Career Guidance, Participation of Students and its Implication for Kano, Nigeria
Isa Ado Abubakar [1]

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to examine students’ participation in career guidance activities as mechanism through which young adults are developed into productive, responsible personalities well equipped for life and work in today’s technology based society. The study focused on career information search, career exploration and assessment aspects of participation. Thus, the findings would help the stakeholders, policy makers and educators in improving the career guidance in schools for effective delivery. Data were collected on 387 participants through 4 Likert scale questionnaires and descriptive statistic, independent t-tests and multiple regression analysis were performed. The results revealed that participation in career guidance activities is generally low and no significant difference existed in the pattern of participation among genders. The predictors were determined and implications of the study are discussed.

Keywords: Career Guidance, Participation, Career Development, Career Information, Exploration, Assessment

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of education is to explore and develop potentials of individuals and to do so inform career choice must be made in the student’s life. Students need career guidance to explore and plan for future career endeavors based on their individual interests, skills and values. Participation in career guidance enhances linkage of academic and career experiences and thus, improves career preparation and management.

Guidance service is assistance given to student in school in order to increase the quality of the individual’s potentials. Adolescents in school require what Baker (2000) described as “transition enhancement assistance” aimed at preparing them for further education, training or employment. Therefore, a school guidance programme is to provide an array of services that cater for the developmental and career development needs of these young people. As summarized by Rosemary (2002): “acquiring knowledge self knowledge, developing specific career and educational goal, adjusting to changing conditions, planning career and educational programme to achieve goals, developing problem-solving and decision making skills, coping with the outcome of decisions, and enhancing social, emotional and cognitive skills”.

The paper examines the role of participation experience as it helps students become more aware of career options and interests. The analysis was carried out on career information search, career exploration and assessment to match self and ideal environment.

Career Development

Career choice is a portrayal of oneself into the world of work having identified the specific occupation that one could perform best in relation to one’s existing personality traits. It involves the person’s creation of a career pattern, decision-making style, integration of life roles, values expression, and life-role self concepts (Herr & Cramer, 1996).
Holland’s theory maintains that in choosing a career, people search for environments that will let them use their skills and abilities, and express their attitudes and values. Behaviour is determined by an interaction between personality and environment. This approach suggests that people are attracted to a given career that has similar qualities to their peculiar personalities and other background variables (Holland, 1992). Holland’s perspective accentuates the accuracy of self-knowledge and career information as necessary prerequisites for career decision making. The individual’s interest paves way to the understanding of how individuals differ in personality, interest, and behaviors (Spokane, 1996). Interests are multifarious in nature and express our personality, style, preferences, values and self-efficacy. Hence, people perform better when these variables are consistent with that of the chosen working environment.

Students and Career Guidance Participation

Participation in career guidance activities in school provides students with necessary awareness, knowledge and skills required in the world of work. It is a strategy for providing occupational orientation to students to become aware of what is contained and required in the career of one’s choice that match interest and abilities. Occupational orientation is viewed as an important aspect of the career development process; adolescents must identify their interests and abilities, balance them with labour market opportunities and gradually develop an occupational preference (Super, Savickas, & Super 1996). The importance of providing “transition enhancement” assistance has been emphasized in the further education, training or employment of students (Baker 2000). Career guidance participation will help students acquire the knowledge, skills and awareness necessary for effective career development (Herr, Cramer, & Niles, 2004)

The relevance of vocational guidance and counselling programmes in satisfying the vocational needs of the students by helping them to explore the range and structure of occupation in the local, state and national levels cannot be underestimated (Manuel & Asuquo, 2009). Students are involved in career guidance for better self-understanding (Hiebert, Collins, & Robinson 2001). The inclusion of students’ responses is a result of recognition that adolescents may be the best source for identifying their own needs and that including the student’s perception could increase the accuracy of the assessment results.

Career Information

Success is more likely when individuals make decisions about what they are to learn in a well-informed manner; link what they learned to their interests, capacities, aspirations, and are then informed about the existing opportunities to which the learning can guide. Holland’s theory emphasises the accuracy of self-knowledge and career information necessary for career decision making (Zunker, 1994).

Good quality career information is a crucial factor for first-rate career decision making. Career information should include relevant information about education and training opportunities, occupations and their characteristics; labour market supply and demand. Similarly, career information should contain occupational implications of educational decisions, and on the learning pathways that lead to particular occupational destinations. Career information is necessary, but not sufficient for good-quality career decision making unless students have access to the information they need, understand the information, relate it to their personal needs and situation, and then convert it into personal action, with help of professional counselors and participation in career guidance related activities provided in schools.

Exploration

Career exploration has been recognized by the Parson (1908) and Holland (1992) theories in order to match individual qualities and that of the workplace environment. Participation in career guidance enables students to achieve social modeling which Bandura (1995) described as the second domain through which individuals develop self efficacy. Various studies have been conducted in many countries to examine the level of participation in career exploration as an integral part of the career development process.

Rashid et al. (2009) have examined career development invention in high school in Terengganu, Malaysia and found out that there is adequate participation in the career guidance activities provided. Song and Werbel (2007) have examined the role of social networks in the process of career exploration in a longitudinal study among US and Chinese
graduating students. The findings indicate that social networks in job search have greater effects on job search intensity in the USA sample than in the Chinese due to moderation effects.

Assessment

Assessment is a tool of the trait-and-factor approach that began with the three-step career choice process by Frank Parsons (1908). Various assessment tools have been used to assess students aimed at helping them to make better career choice.

The research inventory focused on students’ participation in manual and computer assessment in the process of career choice and decision.

METHOD

Participants

Participants were 387 secondary school students (186 boys, 201 girls) from three education zones in Kano metropolis. The sample was good enough to represent secondary school students in the state and they cut across all the levels of senior secondary education (SS1-3) with mean age of 17.73 years and SD 1.75. The participants were selected based on convenience sampling from 21 randomly selected schools.

Instrument

A self developed career participation inventory was used to measure students’ participation in three areas of career development activities that include career information search, career exploration and assessment. These career participation subscales were selected to measure the degree to which students participate in searching for career information, exploration of the careers and match self personality and that of occupational environment through assessment. The questionnaire contained 15 items with internal consistency of .65. The inventory uses a 4-point Likert type scale (1 = never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, and 4 = always).

Procedure and Data Analysis

All the respondents completed the inventory that has personally been administered in group session in each of the schools. Instructions were clear enough and standard testing procedure was observed. The data collected were then analyzed using descriptive statistics to examine the difference in career participation subscales. A regression analysis was later applied to examine the predictability of gender, level of study, goal selection and exploration on career participation.

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career information</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>10.47</td>
<td>2.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>9.24</td>
<td>3.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>10.80</td>
<td>3.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The means and standard deviation of the students’ participation in the career activities is presented in Table 1. The result depicts that career information seeking \( (M = 10.47; \ SD = 2.89) \) and participation in assessment exercise \( (M = 10.80; \ SD = 3.54) \) have high means score over career exploration \( (M = 9.24; \ SD = 3.01) \) indicating that students’ participation in career information search and assessment is high while participation of students in career exploration is low among students.
Table 2 Mean, Standard Deviation, t-Values for Gender Participation in Career Guidance Activities’ Subscale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career Information</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>10.06</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>10.85</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>9.03</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.861</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>9.43</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>11.06</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.252</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 387, *p < .005

The independent t-test in Table 2 shows participation in career guidance activities among genders. No significant difference was found (t (385) = -2.68, p > .05), (t (385) = -3.2, p > .05) and (t (385) = -1.49, p > .05) indicating that the level of participation in career guidance in terms of career information search, exploration and assessment is the same among different genders.

**Regression Analysis for students’ participation**

Regression analysis was conducted to investigate the contribution of gender, level of study, goal selection and exploration in predicting career participation among students.

In the regression model predicting students’ participation in career guidance activities, career exploration and goal selection accounted for 57.9% of the variance explained indicating that career exploration and goal selection are the significant predictors of participation in career guidance activities among students; this also indicates that desire to explore career information based on set goals influence students to participate. This shows that much needs to be done to make career guidance activities more attractive to improve the participation level among students.

Table 2 Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis predicting Students’ participation in career guidance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>1.715</td>
<td>.718</td>
<td>20.66</td>
<td>.579</td>
<td>131.593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal selection</td>
<td>.387</td>
<td>.146</td>
<td>4.258</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Measured by Career Participation inventory; Durbin Watson =1.48, R=.761, Tolerance 9.11 & .937, ; VIF 1.09 & .06 *p < .005

**DISCUSSION**

The findings have contributed to the literature involving career guidance activities among secondary school students particularly from developing countries such as Nigeria. It is clear that the pattern of participation among genders remains the same which is consistent with Rashid et al. (2009). Students’ exploration on career opportunities is very much consistent with one of the Donald Super’s stages of developmental tasks that characterized the stage as ‘Trying out’ through classes, work experience, hobbies, tentative choice and related skill development.

Vocationally, the explorative tendency exhibit within the age of 14-25 years is regarded by Super (1990) as a period of developing and planning a tentative vocational goal, and solidifying goals for training and employment.

The implications of poor participation in career guidance activities could have both short and long run effects on
the students’ career decision on one hand and on the quality of labor to be produced through the process on the other. In the short run, low participation in career guidance prevents students from making considered career decisions based on personality variables such as skills, values and aptitude and so forth, hence resulting in competency mismatch.

Low participation in school career guidance activities particularly in the assessment aspect indicates the level of inadequate preparedness of students and their incapability to match personality with occupational environment thereby utilizing potentials maximally to attain higher productivity. The 21st century demands for competency and productivity which are obtainable when informed career decision is made through assessment, career information search and exploration.

Career guidance in schools remains the only vehicle that can connect students with right opportunities based on personal assets thereby exploring and putting potentials into judicious use in today’s competitive environment.

The implication for the state being under the federal system of government is that it cannot supply adequate labor for federal service as well as to other organizations due to the high demand for competencies and skills in such jobs; hence the state will remain incapable of filling its quota especially at federal government level and its agencies. Similarly, in terms of pursuing higher education, there will be uneven distribution of students across careers, thereby creating unnecessary congestion in some areas and educational institutions. Careers that relate to sciences, mathematics and engineering will continue to have scanty number of students which will not help the state in its efforts towards utilizing its teeming population optimally as well as in fulfilling all its quota in federal government, its agencies and other organizations while careers involving human sciences and languages will continue to absorb large quantity of students beyond the existing capacities, which obviously leads to unemployment problems.

In addition, poor participation in career guidance activities leads to under utilization of potentials and existing opportunities. Reardon, Lenz, Sampson, and Peterson (2000) maintain that “the basic nature of working is changing. Gone are those days when one began his or her life at a company or organisation and remained there as a loyal employee until retirement”. The trend of participation depicts that students underutilize the opportunity to identify their skills, values and aptitude adequately; nor do they explore the existing careers relevant to respective personalities, which are fundamental for survival in the 21st century. Identification of skills and their application will certainly reduce heavy dependence on government and promotes economic self reliance among the youth.

However, going by the Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT), participation in career guidance is likely to reduce the degree to which perceived career barriers affect career development as it limits translation of interests into goals and goals into actions (Brown & Lent, 1996).

CONCLUSION

The level of students’ participation in career guidance activities indicates that counselors need to improve the mechanism for providing career guidance in schools to encourage student participation. Teachers, school administrators and policy makers as stakeholders need to improve what is expected towards making school guidance programs successful for the benefit of students, society and the country at large. However, the findings portray that collaboration among the stakeholders needs to be improved. Stakeholders must join hands to improve the service collectively so as to assist students to make use of their potentials accordingly.

REFERENCES


ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to examine students’ participation in career guidance activities as mechanism through which young adults are developed into productive, responsible personalities well equipped for life and work in today’s technology based society. The study focused on career information search, career exploration and assessment aspects of participation. Thus, the findings would help the stakeholders, policy makers and educators in improving the career guidance in schools for effective delivery. Data were collected on 387 participants through 4 Likert scale questionnaires and descriptive statistic, independent t-tests and multiple regression analysis were performed. The results revealed that participation in career guidance activities is generally low and no significant difference existed in the pattern of participation among genders. The predictors were determined and implications of the study are discussed.

Keywords: Career Guidance, Participation, Career Development, Career Information, Exploration, Assessment

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of education is to explore and develop potentials of individuals and to do so inform career choice must be made in the student’s life. Students need career guidance to explore and plan for future career endeavors based on their individual interests, skills and values. Participation in career guidance enhances linkage of academic and career experiences and thus, improves career preparation and management.

Guidance service is assistance given to student in school in order to increase the quality of the individual’s potentials. Adolescents in school require what Baker (2000) described as “transition enhancement assistance” aimed at preparing them for further education, training or employment. Therefore, a school guidance programme is to provide an array of services that cater for the developmental and career development needs of these young people. As summarized by Rosemary (2002): “acquiring knowledge self knowledge, developing specific career and educational goal, adjusting to changing conditions, planning career and educational programme to achieve goals, developing problem-solving and decision making skills, coping with the outcome of decisions, and enhancing social, emotional and cognitive skills”.

The paper examines the role of participation experience as it helps students become more aware of career options and interests. The analysis was carried out on career information search, career exploration and assessment to match self and ideal environment.

Career Development

Career choice is a portrayal of oneself into the world of work having identified the specific occupation that one could perform best in relation to one’s existing personality traits. It involves the person’s creation of a career pattern,

Holland’s theory maintains that in choosing a career, people search for environments that will let them use their skills and abilities, and express their attitudes and values. Behaviour is determined by an interaction between personality and environment. This approach suggests that people are attracted to a given career that has similar qualities to their peculiar personalities and other background variables (Holland, 1992). Holland’s perspective accentuates the accuracy of self-knowledge and career information as necessary prerequisites for career decision making. The individual’s interest paves way to the understanding of how individuals differ in personality, interest, and behaviors (Spokane, 1996). Interests are multifarious in nature and express our personality, style, preferences, values and self-efficacy. Hence, people perform better when these variables are consistent with that of the chosen working environment.

Students and Career Guidance Participation

Participation in career guidance activities in school provides students with necessary awareness, knowledge and skills required in the world of work. It is a strategy for providing occupational orientation to students to become aware of what is contained and required in the career of one’s choice that match interest and abilities. Occupational orientation is viewed as an important aspect of the career development process; adolescents must identify their interests and abilities, balance them with labour market opportunities and gradually develop an occupational preference (Super, Savickas, & Super 1996). The importance of providing “transition enhancement” assistance has been emphasized in the further education, training or employment of students (Baker 2000). Career guidance participation will help students acquire the knowledge, skills and awareness necessary for effective career development (Herr, Cramer, & Niles, 2004).

The relevance of vocational guidance and counselling programmes in satisfying the vocational needs of the students by helping them to explore the range and structure of occupation in the local, state and national levels cannot be underestimated (Manuel & Asuquo, 2009). Students are involved in career guidance for better self-understanding (Hiebert, Collins, & Robinson 2001). The inclusion of students’ responses is a result of recognition that adolescents may be the best source for identifying their own needs and that including the student’s perception could increase the accuracy of the assessment results.

Career Information

Success is more likely when individuals make decisions about what they are to learn in a well-informed manner; link what they learned to their interests, capacities, aspirations, and are then informed about the existing opportunities to which the learning can guide. Holland’s theory emphasises the accuracy of self-knowledge and career information necessary for career decision making (Zunker, 1994).

Good quality career information is a crucial factor for first-rate career decision making. Career information should include relevant information about education and training opportunities, occupations and their characteristics; labour market supply and demand. Similarly, career information should contain occupational implications of educational decisions, and on the learning pathways that lead to particular occupational destinations. Career information is necessary, but not sufficient for good-quality career decision making unless students have access to the information they need, understand the information, relate it to their personal needs and situation, and then convert it into personal action, with help of professional counselors and participation in career guidance related activities provided in schools.

Exploration

Career exploration has been recognized by the Parson (1908) and Holland (1992) theories in order to match individual qualities and that of the workplace environment. Participation in career guidance enables students to achieve social modeling which Bandura (1995) described as the second domain through which individuals develop self efficacy. Various studies have been conducted in many countries to examine the level of participation in career exploration as an integral part of the career development process.

Rashid et al. (2009) have examined career development invention in high school in Terengganu, Malaysia and found out that there is adequate participation in the career guidance activities provided. Song and Werbel (2007) have
examined the role of social networks in the process of career exploration in a longitudinal study among US and Chinese graduating students. The findings indicate that social networks in job search have greater effects on job search intensity in the USA sample than in the Chinese due to moderation effects.

Assessment

Assessment is a tool of the trait-and-factor approach that began with the three-step career choice process by Frank Parsons (1908). Various assessment tools have been used to assess students aimed at helping them to make better career choice.

The research inventory focused on students' participation in manual and computer assessment in the process of career choice and decision.

METHOD

Participants

Participants were 387 secondary school students (186 boys, 201 girls) from three education zones in Kano metropolis. The sample was good enough to represent secondary school students in the state and they cut across all the levels of senior secondary education (SS1-3) with mean age of 17.73 years and SD 1.75. The participants were selected based on convenience sampling from 21 randomly selected schools.

Instrument

A self-developed career participation inventory was used to measure students' participation in three areas of career development activities that include career information search, career exploration and assessment. These career participation subscales were selected to measure the degree to which students participate in searching for career information, exploration of the careers and match self personality and that of occupational environment through assessment. The questionnaire contained 15 items with internal consistency of .65. The inventory uses a 4-point Likert type scale (1 = never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, and 4 = always).

Procedure and Data Analysis

All the respondents completed the inventory that has personally been administered in group session in each of the schools. Instructions were clear enough and standard testing procedure was observed. The data collected were then analyzed using descriptive statistics to examine the difference in career participation subscales. A regression analysis was later applied to examine the predictability of gender, level of study, goal selection and exploration on career participation.

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career information</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>10.47</td>
<td>2.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>9.24</td>
<td>3.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>10.80</td>
<td>3.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The means and standard deviation of the students' participation in the career activities is presented in Table 1. The result depicts that career information seeking \( (M = 10.47; SD = 2.89) \) and participation in assessment exercise \( (M = 10.80; SD = 3.54) \) have high means score over career exploration \( (M = 9.24; SD = 3.01) \) indicating that students' participation in career information search and assessment is high while participation of students in career exploration is low among students.
Table 2 Mean, Standard Deviation, t-Values for Gender Participation in Career Guidance Activities’ Subscale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career Information</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>10.06</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>10.85</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>-2.68</td>
<td>.547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>9.03</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>-1.32</td>
<td>.252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>9.43</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>10.52</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>-1.49</td>
<td>.861</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>11.06</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 387, *p < .005

The independent t-test in Table 2 shows participation in career guidance activities among genders. No significant difference was found (t (385) = -2.68, p > .05), (t (385) = -1.32, p > .05) and (t (385) = -1.49, p > .05) indicating that the level of participation in career guidance in terms of career information search, exploration and assessment is the same among different genders.

Regression Analysis for students’ participation

Regression analysis was conducted to investigate the contribution of gender, level of study, goal selection and exploration in predicting career participation among students.

In the regression model predicting students’ participation in career guidance activities, career exploration and goal selection accounted for 57.9% of the variance explained indicating that career exploration and goal selection are the significant predictors of participation in career guidance activities among students; this also indicates that desire to explore career information based on set goals influence students to participate. This shows that much needs to be done to make career guidance activities more attractive to improve the participation level among students.

Table 2 Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis predicting Students’ participation in career guidance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>1.715</td>
<td>.718</td>
<td>20.66</td>
<td>.579</td>
<td>131.593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal selection</td>
<td>.387</td>
<td>.146</td>
<td>4.258</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Measured by Career Participation inventory; Durbin Watson =1.48, R=.761, Tolerance 9.11 & .937, ; VIF 1.09 & .06 *p < .005

DISCUSSION

The findings have contributed to the literature involving career guidance activities among secondary school students particularly from developing countries such as Nigeria. It is clear that the pattern of participation among genders remains the same which is consistent with Rashid et al. (2009). Students’ exploration on career opportunities is very much consistent with one of the Donald Super’s stages of developmental tasks that characterized the stage as ‘Trying out’ through classes, work experience, hobbies, tentative choice and related skill development.

Vocationally, the explorative tendency exhibit within the age of 14-25 years is regarded by Super (1990) as a period of developing and planning a tentative vocational goal, and solidifying goals for training and employment.
The implications of poor participation in career guidance activities could have both short and long run effects on the students’ career decision on one hand and on the quality of labor to be produced through the process on the other. In the short run, low participation in career guidance prevents students from making considered career decisions based on personality variables such as skills, values and aptitude and so forth, hence resulting in competency mismatch.

Low participation in school career guidance activities particularly in the assessment aspect indicates the level of inadequate preparedness of students and their incapability to match personality with occupational environment thereby utilizing potentials maximally to attain higher productivity. The 21st century demands for competency and productivity which are obtainable when informed career decision is made through assessment, career information search and exploration.

Career guidance in schools remains the only vehicle that can connect students with right opportunities based on personal assets thereby exploring and putting potentials into judicious use in today’s competitive environment.

The implication for the state being under the federal system of government is that it cannot supply adequate labor for federal service as well as to other organizations due to the high demand for competencies and skills in such jobs; hence the state will remain incapable of filling its quota especially at federal government level and its agencies. Similarly, in terms of pursuing higher education, there will be uneven distribution of students across careers, thereby creating unnecessary congestion in some areas and educational institutions. Careers that relate to sciences, mathematics and engineering will have scanty number of students which will not help the state in its efforts towards utilizing its teeming population optimally as well as in fulfilling all its quota in federal government, its agencies and other organizations while careers involving human sciences and languages will continue to absorb large quantity of students beyond the existing capacities, which obviously leads to unemployment problems.

In addition, poor participation in career guidance activities leads to under utilization of potentials and existing opportunities. Reardon, Lenz, Sampson, and Peterson (2000) maintain that “the basic nature of working is changing. Gone are those days when one began his or her life at a company or organisation and remained there as a loyal employee until retirement”. The trend of participation depicts that students underutilize the opportunity to identify their skills, values and aptitude adequately; nor do they explore the existing careers relevant to respective personalities, which are fundamental for survival in the 21st century. Identification of skills and their application will certainly reduce heavy dependence on government and promotes economic self reliance among the youth.

However, going by the Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT), participation in career guidance is likely to reduce the degree to which perceived career barriers affect career development as it limits translation of interests into goals and goals into actions (Brown & Lent, 1996).

CONCLUSION

The level of students’ participation in career guidance activities indicates that counselors need to improve the mechanism for providing career guidance in schools to encourage student participation. Teachers, school administrators and policy makers as stakeholders need to improve what is expected towards making school guidance programs successful for the benefit of students, society and the country at large. However, the findings portray that collaboration among the stakeholders needs to be improved. Stakeholders must join hands to improve the service collectively so as to assist students to make use of their potentials accordingly.

REFERENCES


Relationship between Learning Strategies and Motivation by using Structural Equation Modeling Approach
Mohamad Azrien Mohamed Adnan [1], Mohd Sahari Nordin [2], Mohd Burhan Ibrahim [3]

ABSTRACT

This paper aimed at examining the learning strategies constructs and to investigate the relationship between learning strategies and motivation in Arabic courses. The study uses a questionnaire as the information-gathering instrument, and the participants comprised students from two public universities in Peninsular Malaysia who are studying Arabic language. A total of 139 students were selected for this study. The questionnaire’s construct validity was tested using confirmatory factor analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis indicated that a model including factors representing the dimensions metacognitive self-regulation, organization and peer learning was the best fit. Significant correlations between motivation and learning strategies subscales (metacognitive self-regulation and organization) provided preliminary evidence of predictive validity of the measure. Metacognitive self-regulation strategy has positive correlation with organization and peer learning strategy. The organization strategy was also positively correlated to peer learning strategy. The metacognitive self-regulation and organization have significant effect on motivation. Contrary to our expectation, peer learning has no significant effect on motivation.

Keywords: Learning strategies, motivation, and structural equation modeling

INTRODUCTION

Learning strategies play an important role in second/foreign language learning and the role of learning strategies in student learning has been explored by many researchers in recent years (Lai, 2009; Li & Chun, 2012; Macaro, 2001; Mohamad Azrien & Shukeri, 2011; Qiufang & Lifei, 2004). It is believed that the use of effective learning strategies is an important factor for successful learning and that students may need a variety of strategies to regulate their own learning (Marsh, Hau, Artelt, Baumert, & Peschar, 2006; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1990).

Researchers have defined learning strategies in various ways. Mayer (2007) explained that a learning strategy refers to the cognitive processes developed by students during learning to improve the quality of learning and help the students achieve their respective goals. Zimmerman (2000) suggested that learning strategies should be incorporated into the framework of self-regulated learning (SRL), which refers to “self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal goals” (p. 14). The use of learning strategies, therefore, can be viewed as a sub-construct of SRL.

Self-regulated students participate proactively in the learning process emotionally, motivationally and cognitively. These students have their intention of self-activated and self-directed efforts in order to gain knowledge and skills by using specific strategies (Nota, Soresi, & Zimmerman, 2004). Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, and McKeachie (1991) have come up with a manual for the use of the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) which categorized self-regulated learning into two main strategies. First is a cognitive and meta-cognitive strategy which includes rehearsal, elaboration, organization, critical thinking and meta-cognitive self-regulation. Second are resource management strategies which include time and study environment, effort regulation, peer learning and help seeking.

Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1986) identified 14 commonly used academic self-regulated learning strategies which include: self-evaluation, organizing and transforming, goal setting and planning, seeking information, keeping
Learning strategy is not enough to improve student achievement. Students should be motivated to use strategies, and organize cognitions and their efforts (Paris, Lipson, & Wixon, 1983). Motivation is the internal power that drives individuals to act in order to satisfy their desire (Yates, 2004). Mohamad Azrien (2006) explored the relationship between motivation components and self-regulated learning components in an Arabic course. In his study, the construct validity was tested using exploratory factor analysis. His findings revealed that most of the factors in the motivation components were significantly correlated with the self-regulated learning components. Therefore, this study aims is aimed at confirming the relationship between learning strategies and motivation in Arabic courses taken by Arabic students of two public universities in Malaysia.

Theoretical Framework and Hypothesis Development

Self-Regulated Learning Theory

According to self-regulated learning theory, self-regulated learning is an integrated learning process, which occurs when individuals attempt to adjust the characteristics of their own behaviour, motivation, and cognition to best suit their own learning. Pintrich (1999) described self-regulated learning as an active, constructive process whereby learners set goals for their learning plan actions and monitor, regulate and control their cognition, motivation and behaviour.

An important aspect of self-regulated learning theory is that student learning and motivation are interdependent. Their learning strategy enables them to be self-aware, knowledgeable, and decisive in implementing their learning strategy. While in terms of motivation, they possess high self-efficacy, self-attribution and intrinsic task interest. Their self-motivation is also evident in their continuing tendency to set higher learning goals for themselves when they achieve the earlier goals (Zimmerman, 1990). In that level, self-regulated learners are not only self-directed but are self-motivated as well.

According to Pintrich et al. (1991), learning strategies can be classified into cognitive, metacognitive, and resource management strategies. In this study, we only used cognitive and metacognitive strategy as our theoretical framework. The cognitive and metacognitive strategies can be further classified into metacognitive self-regulation, organization and peer learning. Paris et al. (1983) suggested that using self-regulated learning strategies promotes students’ motivational beliefs. Therefore, it is expected that metacognitive self-regulation, organization strategy and peer learning strategy have some effects on motivation. Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework of self-regulated learning strategies and motivation.

Figure 2: Conceptual Framework of Self-Regulated Learning Strategies and Motivation

Metacognitive self-regulation

Metacognition refers to the awareness, knowledge and control of cognition (Pintrich et al., 1991). It contains three essential skills, namely planning, monitoring and evaluating. Planning refers to the appropriate selection of strategies and the correct allocation of resources that affect task performance. Monitoring refers to one’s awareness of
comprehension and task performance and evaluating refers to appraising the final product of a task and the efficiency of that task performance. This can include re-evaluating the strategies used. Therefore in this study, it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 1: Metacognitive self-regulation strategy has an effect on motivation

**Organisation strategy**

Organisation strategy is a deeper processing strategy which includes activities such as selecting the main idea from reading text, outlining text or reading material and using a variety of specific techniques for selecting and organising the ideas for example sketching a network and mapping the important ideas (Pintrich, 1999). These activities results in students being actively involved in the task and should result in better performance. In the current study, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 2: Organizational strategy has an effect on motivation

**Peer learning**

Communication and discussion with peers can help a student clarify and elaborate more on reading materials. Peer learning strategy includes activities of collaboration, communication and discussion with peers during the process of learning (Pintrich et al., 1991). The activities can help students to clarify and elaborate more on learning materials. These activities are normally found in cooperative learning as students will interact with their peers within the group. According to Stefanou and Salisbury-Glennon (2002), the use of peer learning indicated significant effects due to involvement in a learning community on motivation. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 3: Peer learning strategy has an effect on motivation

**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

The proposed model and hypotheses were estimated by structural equation modeling (SEM), which is a powerful multivariate technique for analysing causal models. A structural equation modeling composed of a measurement model and a structural model. The measurement model is estimated using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test whether the latent variables possess sufficient construct validity. The structural model is used to present the relations of causal effects among the latent variables. The data analysis proceeded with the two-step approach of the structural equation modeling. In this study, the motivation is the endogenous variables. The exogenous latent variables include metacognitive self-regulation, organization and peer learning.

**Sample description**

The questionnaires was adopted and adapted from the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaires (MSLQ) originally developed by Pintrich et al. (1991). This instrument was one of the most frequently used (see for example Easton & McColl, 1997; Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2006). Each item was measured on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from not at all true of me (1) to very true of me (7). Data were collected from two public universities in Malaysia. The participants in this study were university students who enrolled in undergraduate degree programmes in Arabic language study. The population was sampled by cluster sampling methods. A total of 220 questionnaires were sent and 139 were returned. Respondents who participated in this study consisted of 27 men (19.4%) and 112 women (80.6%). All the subjects had formally studied Arabic for six years in high school. They ranged from the second semester up to the final year.

**Reliability**

To examine the internal consistent reliability of the observed item questionnaire, Cronbach’s alpha was assessed. The resulting alpha values ranged from .650 to .904, which were above the acceptable threshold, as shown in Table 1.
RESULT

Assessment of the Measurement Model

The measurement model was assessed by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). According to Segars and Grover (1993), the measurement model should be evaluated first before generating the best overall model fit. The hypothesized 3-factor measurement model was evaluated using confirmatory factor analysis to assess the factorial validity of the measurement model.

The values for composite reliability (CR) and average variance expected (AVE) were needed in order to obtain the divergent validity. Yates (2004) suggest that the recommended threshold of average variance extracted is 0.5, while Hair Jr, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham (2010) suggest that the recommended threshold of composite reliability should be greater than 0.7. All composite reliabilities measures of constructs exceed the recommended threshold of 0.7. The factor loadings that are smaller than the recommended level of 0.5 should be removed. Discriminant validity can be tested by comparing the square roots of the AVE with the correlations among the constructs. All of the square roots of the AVE by constructs were greater than the correlation among constructs as shown in Table 1, so discriminant validity was supported. In brief, the measurement model assessment, including convergent and discriminate validity measures, was satisfactory.

The overall model fit was assessed in terms of four measures. These indices included: the chi-square/degree of freedom ($\chi^2$/d.f), the traditional chi-square (CMIN), the degree of freedom (DF), the Comparative Fit of Index (CFI) and the Root Mean Square of Error Approximation (RMSEA) (Hair Jr et al., 2010) to obtain a model fit. The CFI value must exceed 0.90 and the RMSEA value must be lower than 0.08 (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004) in order to obtain an acceptable fit with the data. Hayduk (1988) suggests that $\chi^2$/d.f should not exceed 3. Accordingly, all the fitness measures in this research fell into acceptable ranges using CFA. Consequently, the proposed model provided a suitable fit.

Table 1: Estimates of the measurement model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive</td>
<td>Read the task carefully</td>
<td>0.789</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I check again if I made a mistake</td>
<td>0.773</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I try to remember what the lecturer said</td>
<td>0.807</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I try to remember the fact</td>
<td>0.745</td>
<td>0.879</td>
<td>0.909</td>
<td>0.598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I try to put together the information from class</td>
<td>0.750</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I work hard to get good grade</td>
<td>0.618</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>While reading, I stop once in a while</td>
<td>0.844</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>I think what to learn</td>
<td>0.643</td>
<td>0.821</td>
<td>0.825</td>
<td>0.543</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I can concentrate on my course work</td>
<td>0.762</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I reflect all the steps in the procedure of task solving</td>
<td>0.682</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I identify student for help</td>
<td>0.769</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer Learning</td>
<td>I ask another students</td>
<td>0.747</td>
<td>0.807</td>
<td>0.808</td>
<td>0.584</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I try to work with other students</td>
<td>0.776</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
We estimated the proposed model by using structural equation modeling with the maximum likelihood estimation method. The chi-square goodness-of-fit test showed that the model did not fit the data well, \( \chi^2 = 94.533, p < .05 \). Although the model did not fit well by the chi-square test, the baseline comparisons fit indices of CFI were close to or exceeded 0.9 (CFI = 0.959) and the ratio chi-square /d.f. is 1.525. The RMSEA showed a value of 0.066 indicating a good model fit. Accordingly, the recommended thresholds and results of the measurement model fitness indicate a good model fit. Figure 2 shows the results of the measurement model.

Figure 3: The Measurement model of Students’ Learning Strategies
Analysis of Path Coefficient

Based on the good fit of the measurement model, the path coefficients of the structural model were then estimated. Figure 3 shows the results of path coefficient analysis.

![Diagram showing the relationship among learning strategies constructs and motivation](image-url)

**Figure 4: Relationship among learning strategies constructs and motivation**

Empirical Findings

According to the path coefficient, results showed that organization strategy was positively correlated to peer learning strategy and metacognitive self-regulation strategy \( r = 0.63, p < .001 \) and \( r = 0.58, p < .001 \), respectively. The results indicated that students, who had a better organization strategy, would have better peer learning and metacognitive self-regulation strategy. Peer learning strategy was significantly correlated with metacognitive self-regulation strategy \( r = 0.57, p < .001 \). Students who had more strategies in peer learning were found to be using more strategies in metacognitive self-regulation.

Metacognitive self-regulation strategy has direct influence on motivation \( \beta = 0.31, p < .001 \), supporting hypothesis 1. Organizational strategy also has direct influence on motivation \( \beta = 0.33, p < .001 \), supporting hypothesis 2. Contrary to expectation, peer learning strategy has no significant effect on motivation \( \beta = 0.00, p < .998 \), so hypothesis 3 was not supported.

DISCUSSION

This study was conducted to assess the reliability and validity of the students’ learning strategies instrument by applying confirmatory factor analysis to a Malaysian case and to examine the relationship between learning strategies constructs and motivation. The results of the CFA provided support for a three-factor model of learning strategies consisting of metacognitive self-regulation, organization and peer learning. Results suggested that the three-factor model was the best overall fit to the data. The metacognitive self-regulation dimension was represented by six indicators related to reading task carefully, reading again, checking task from mistakes, trying to remember what the lecturers said, trying to remember the facts, trying to put together the information, and trying to work hard to get good grade. The organization dimension was represented by four indicators which are stopping once while reading, thinking what to learn, concentrating on the course work, and reflecting all the steps in the procedure of task solving. The peer learning dimension was represented by three indicators namely identifying students, asking friends, and working with other students.

Considering our findings for the structural model, where we examined the relationship between learning strategies constructs and motivation, the results revealed that metacognitive self-regulation and organization were significantly correlated to motivation. The \( R^2 \) of 0.322 suggested that the independent variables accounted for 32.2% of the total variance explained by the independent variable, which indicated a good effect size.
The results of this study have practical implication for language learning strategies. The preliminary predictive validity evidence suggests that the questionnaire may be useful for teachers who wish to identify students who are in need of instruction in how to self-regulate their learning. Language teachers could use the questionnaire at the item or subscale level to help identify particular weaknesses in their students’ learning approaches. Teachers would do well to introduce and implement such strategies as how to formulate and develop a concept, how to create analogies, and how to apply a mnemonic device in order to help their students maintain their learning strategies.

Future Research

This study was conducted in only two public universities involving a small sample size. It is therefore restricted in terms of its generalizability. Thus further research is required to validate the instrument with students from other higher educational institution, and with a bigger sample which would allow generalising of the findings. Also, future studies may examine the causal effect between learning strategies, motivation and achievement.

REFERENCES


Research and Trends in the Studies of School-Based Oral English Assessment from 2003 to 2011: A Review of Selected Journals
Nur Diana Mohd Kamal [1], Saedah Siraj [2], Norlidah Alias [3], Mohammad Attaran [4]

ABSTRACT
Assessing oral proficiency is a real challenge for English language practitioners. Throughout the process of assessing, many features of oral competence are worth paying attention by teachers as the assessors. As such, the Malaysian Ministry of Education has urged for another alternative for oral assessment in 2002 with the intention of revamping and improvising the existing system. This new assessment is none other than School-Based Oral English Assessment (SBOEA). Therefore, this paper intends to review the studies done on the implementation of School-Based Oral English Assessment (SBOEA). Among the 15 articles selected from 2003 to 2011, 7 of them focused on the Malaysian school context. The rest of articles touched on School-Based Assessment in other contexts and speaking test as a whole. Based on this review, it is now possible to postulate that most studies were conducted to investigate respondents' attitude and perception toward this type of assessment. At this juncture, it is also obvious that mixed methods which involve the use of both quantitative and qualitative study are the most preferred method in the studies of School-Based Oral Assessment. Although the use of questionnaire is fairly dominant in these journals articles, it is noted that other instruments such as semi-structured interview, observation and document analysis were also employed for data analysis. In addition, the insight and the data gained from these studies could be beneficial for future reference in reviewing and modifying the implementation of School-Based English Oral Assessment in Malaysia. As such, the findings drawn from the studies can shed some light for better implementation in Malaysia.

Keywords: school-based assessment, studies, review, research purpose, trend

INTRODUCTION
Throughout the years, it is universally acknowledged that assessment has played an integral part in teaching and learning at any learning institution around the world. The word “assessment” itself may have been interpreted distinctively by concerned parties. For example, Gurnam, Chan, and Sarjit (2011) state that five different parties which include policy maker, administrator, teacher, parent and student may hold different perceptions and conceptions on assessment. According to Gurnam et al., policy makers define assessment as standards to monitor the quality of education. Administrators view assessment as a means to monitor the strengths and weaknesses of a program whereas teachers use assessment as a tool for monitoring student progress and performance. By contrast, students perceive assessment as an indicator of their ongoing progress and performance. Instead, parents regard assessment as a kind of feedback on their child’s progress as well as the gauge to indicate the school’s accountability in offering effective teaching and learning. In this sense, the assessment system not only affects teaching and learning but it does affect the society at large. Hence, Mariam and Sabrin (2008) concur that new approaches to assessment are certainly necessary for educational reform.
Traditionally, assessment in Malaysian schools was centralised on national examination. Students were required to sit for three main public examinations as a prerequisite to the next level of education. In Hamzah and Paramasiv (2009), these principal examinations have been generally known to Malaysians as the Primary School Assessment (UPSR), the Lower Secondary Assessment Examination (PMR) and the Malaysian Certificate of Education (SPM). Nevertheless, School-Based Assessment was introduced in 2002 as a move away from traditional teaching to keep abreast with changing trends of assessment. In other words, this initiative was also a directive from our Ministry of Education aimed to suit the global trend of decentralisation of assessment. One of the reasons for this implementation is to help improve students’ communicative competence which is parallel to the learning outcomes outlined in the English Language Syllabus for Malaysian Secondary Schools (Lembaga Peperiksaan Malaysia, 2002). To meet this need, School-Based Oral English Assessment (SBOEA) was integrated for the teachers to promote the improvement of English communication skills.

According to Gurnam, Chan, and Azleena (2011), the rationale for integrating School-Based Oral English Assessment (SBOEA) into the School-Based Assessment component is the power of this alternative assessment as an authentic form in assessing students’ actual speaking activity. In comparison, the conventional Oral English Test administered before 2002 failed to offer true reflection of students’ actual communication skill (Gurnam, Chan et al., 2011). In addition, Zaitun, Arshad, Mazanah, and Malachi (2011) believe that SBOEA mandates both teaching and testing to be integrated in the English classroom. In this respect, these ongoing oral assessments can also promote teaching and learning in the English classroom as they are conducted three times throughout two years of upper Secondary education. In gaining more insightful information on the implementation of SBOEA, a review has been done on selected journals from different educational publications. This review of published articles in academic journals has seen various areas of studies conducted. This variance comprises the perception, perspectives and attitude, similarities and differences, influencing factors, knowledge and understanding and the concerns on the implementation of School-Based Assessment. Therefore, the following sections will discuss the review findings according to research purpose, method, results and discussion, implications and conclusions as well as limitations of the research.

Research purpose


The review of selected journals might outline the research trends and patterns of the articles related to School-Based Oral English Assessment (SBOEA) in recent years. The trend may encompass the methodology used (whether it is qualitative or quantitative) and the instruments used in gathering data. As such, it is hoped that this review can help school administrators, English Head of Panel as well as English teachers in Malaysia to gain some better insight into the publishing trends of School-Based Oral Assessment studies. To a larger extent, this review could be somehow beneficial for the Teacher Education Division (Bahagian Pendidikan Guru) and Malaysian Examination Syndicate (Lembaga Peperiksaan Malaysia) to improve the existing assessment and to promote further study on the subject matter. In addition, the insight offered by this review could be useful for future reference in reviewing and modifying the implementation of School-Based English Oral Assessment especially in Malaysia.

Hence, three research questions were developed to guide this review. They were as follows:

1. Which context shows the highest percentage of conducting studies on School-Based Oral English Assessment?
2. How many categories can be generated based on research topics?
3. What was the trend of the studies conducted on School-Based Oral English Assessment in these eight years?
METHOD

Research papers for review


It is worth noting that this paper only provides a review on selected journal articles. Any other research documents such as book review and unpublished theses are not included for this review. In order to find the related articles, some key terms were used and those terms included “School-Based Oral Assessment”, “School-Based Assessment”, “Oral Assessment” and “Speaking Test”. These journal articles were then selected when the contexts have primarily focused on assessment of English oral production, not other languages than English. As a result, 15 articles were identified to meet these requirements best. Based on the 15 selected journal articles, the review was done by analysing abstracts and other significant sections such as method and data collection in order to determine the publishing trends of School-Based Oral Assessment studies.

Research topic analysis

The purpose of analyzing the research topic is to determine the number of studies which were closely related on School-Based Oral English Assessment. In reviewing 15 selected articles from 13 different educational journals, the research topics were first categorized into seven different categories based on the research topics themselves. In relation to the studies of School-Based Oral English Assessment, these respective categories include: perception, similarities and differences, analysing factors, knowledge and understanding, concerns, washback effects and miscellaneous. Table 1 will further explain the content of the articles based on different categories:

Table 1: Research topic analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>No. of articles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Perception</td>
<td>Articles in this research category generally discuss perceptions, reactions, perspectives and views on School-Based Oral English Assessment from different parties. The data were obtained from different groups of respondents including teachers, students and parents.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Similarities and Differences</td>
<td>This topic of research touches on similarities and differences in teachers' and students' perception on School-Based Oral English Assessment. However, this article is hardly categorised under 'Perception' category because of the absence of such word in the research topic.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Analysing factors</td>
<td>This category explores the influencing factors which are associated with oral performance.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Knowledge and understanding</td>
<td>This topic category generally focuses on teachers’ knowledge and understanding of School-Based Oral English Assessment in Malaysia as a whole.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Concerns</td>
<td>This topic of research includes the concerns expressed by teachers on the implementation of School-Based Oral English Assessment in Malaysia.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Washback effects</td>
<td>This category includes a study which aimed to determine the washback effects of an oral assessment among EFL learners.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>Articles that fall under this category are quite general in</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
nature (somehow related to School-Based Assessment and Oral Assessment) and hardly categorised under aforementioned categories. The following includes the research topic for these articles:

- **School-Based Assessment: Will it really change the Education Scenario in Bangladesh** (Mariam & Sabrin, 2008)
- **Oral Examination Assessment Practices: Effectiveness and Change with a First Year Undergraduate Cohort** (Oakley & Hencken, 2005)
- **Assessing speaking in Japanese junior high schools: Issues for the senior high school entrance examinations** (Akiyama, 2003)
- **Interaction in group oral assessment: A case study of higher and lower scoring students** (Zhendong, 2010)
- **Rating criteria for the three speaking test format: Monologue, dialogue and multilogue** (Nakamura, 2009)

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Percentage for contexts related to the studies of School-Based Oral English Assessment**

By reviewing these 15 journals articles from 2003 to 2011, it is noted that seven of these articles were closely related to the studies of School-Based Oral English Assessment in Malaysia. The analysis can be further explained as presented in Table 2.

**Table 2: Number of articles related to the studies of School-Based Oral English Assessment for different contexts**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contexts</th>
<th>Msia</th>
<th>HK</th>
<th>Japan</th>
<th>Bdes</th>
<th>UK</th>
<th>S'pore</th>
<th>Cbia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Related articles</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

First, the review has identified that 7 of the selected articles were closely related to **Msia** (Malaysia). As for **HK** (Hong Kong) and **Japan**, 2 articles were closely related to each country respectively. By contrast, the review has revealed that only 1 article was related to the following countries: **Bdes** (Bangladesh), **UK**, **S'pore** (Singapore) and **Cbia** (Colombia). Based on the information presented in Table 2, a pie chart was generated to provide a clear picture of percentage for contexts related to the studies of School-Based Oral English Assessment.
Figure 1: Percentage for contexts related to the studies of School-Based Oral English Assessment

From the preceding analysis, it can be seen that almost half (46%) of 15 articles published in 13 educational journals between 2003 and 2011 were related to School-Based Oral English Assessment in Malaysia. As for the Hong Kong and Japan context, the articles analysed represent 13% of the overall percentage. Also, Fig. 1 has proven that other countries such as Bangladesh, UK, Singapore and Colombia only constitute 1% of the percentage of the related articles. Therefore, based on this analysis, it is feasible to conjecture that most studies on School-Based Oral English Assessment have been conducted in Malaysia.

Research purpose analysis

After reviewing 15 selected articles from 13 different educational journals, it is now possible to categorise the articles into six different categories based on various research purposes. These respective categories include: perception, analysing factors, knowledge and understanding, concerns, washback effects and miscellaneous. The rationale of this is to find the most common purpose related to the studies on School-Based Oral English Assessment. The following table will provide further elaboration of the area of studies based on different categories:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>No. of articles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Perception</td>
<td>Articles in this research category generally aim to find out perceptions, reactions, perspectives and views on the following matters: the implementation of SBOEA, challenges and problems arise, its effectiveness as an accurate gauge, impact and consequences of SBOEA. Instead, two articles among these eight focus on the similarities and differences as well as the relationship in perceptions between different parties. Those parties included teachers, students and parents.</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Analysing factors</td>
<td>This topic of research generally hopes to identify factors associated to students’ oral performance. Besides that, study was also done on the relationship between these factors and students’ oral scores.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Knowledge and understanding</td>
<td>This category investigates teachers’ knowledge and understanding of SBOEA in Malaysia. The subject matters comprise of objectives, the implementation (pre, while and post administration) and challenges faced.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Concerns</td>
<td>This topic category investigates the concerns of the teachers on School-Based Assessment at 5 stages using the model from Hall, George, and Rutherford (1977).</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Washback effects</td>
<td>This topic of research was conducted to determine the washback effects of an oral assessment between experimental and comparison group. Articles falling under this category touch on Oral Assessment in general and are still considered to have little connection with School-Based Assessment. These three articles do not share the same purpose.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 6.  | Miscellaneous                    | Zhendong (2010) - identify the interactional features that characterise a group of higher-scoring and lower-scoring students’ participation in group oral assessment  
Nakamura (2009) - Rating criteria for the three speaking test formats: Monologue, Dialogue and Multilogue  
Akiyama (2003) - discuss how high school teachers in Tokyo assess speaking skill | 3               |

As can be seen from Table 3, it is noted that 8 articles fall under the ‘Perception’ category. Articles that fall under this category were written by Gurnam, Chan, and Sarjit (2011), Liying, Andrews, and Ying (2011), Zaitun, Arshad, Mazanah, and Malachi (2011), Norashikin, Mohan, Shashi Kumar, and Emily (2010), Suseela and Sim (2010), Hamzah and Paramasivan (2009), Mariam and Sabrin (2008) and Oakley and Hencken (2005). In comparison, only 1 article can be categorised into these respective groups: Analysing factors (Chan, Gurnam, Norhamimah, & Norazah, 2011), Knowledge and Understanding (Gurnam, Chan, & Azleena, 2011), Concerns (Faizah, 2011) and Washback Effects (Muñoz & Álvarez, 2010). Under ‘Miscellaneous’ category, 3 articles (Akiyama, 2003; Nakamura, 2009; Zhendong, 2010) were considered to fit into this category.
Figure 2: Percentage of research purpose analysis

The published percentage of related purpose in each category for 15 selected journal articles between the years 2003 to 2011 are presented in Fig. 2. Fig. 2 reveals that ‘Perception’ has made up more than half (53%) of the overall percentage. That is to say, “Perception” is the most common category among all. In addition, it is also worth noting that many researchers were interested in studying respondents’ perceptions and views on School-Based Oral English Assessment based on this analysis. This highest percentage is then followed by ‘Miscellaneous’ (20%), Washback effects, Concerns and Knowledge and Understanding which respectively accounted for 7%. It is also interesting to note that ‘Analysing factors’ had 1% less than the second lowest even though they share the same number of articles.

Trends of the studies conducted on School-Based Oral English Assessment in Malaysia

In determining the trend of the studies conducted on School-Based Oral English Assessment for the past eight years (2003 - 2011), it is worth giving attention to the methodology employed and the instruments used in gathering data. In terms of methodology, the articles from selected educational journals can be categorised into three categories: quantitative, qualitative and both quantitative and qualitative. According to Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011), quantitative study involves the prospect of analysing numerical data. By contrast, Cohen et al. define qualitative study as data analysis which involves organising, accounting for and explaining the data and often largely lies on interpretation. The following Tab. 4 summarises the methodology employed and instrument used in the studies of selected journal articles.

Table 4: Trends of the studies conducted on School-Based Oral English Assessment in Malaysia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Methodology</th>
<th>Instrument</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Between the Ideal and Reality: Teacher’s perception of the implementation of School-Based Oral English Assessment (SBOEA)</td>
<td>Hamzah Md Omar and Paramasivan Sinnasamy (2009)</td>
<td>Quantitative study</td>
<td>Self-constructed questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>School-Based Assessment in Malaysian Schools: The Concerns of the English teachers</td>
<td>Faizah A Majid (2011)</td>
<td>Quantitative study</td>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Title</td>
<td>Author(s)</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Instrument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Impact and consequences of School-Based assessment (SBA): Students’ and parents’ views of SBA in Hong Kong</td>
<td>Liying Cheng, Stephen Andrews, and Ying Yu (2011)</td>
<td>Quantitative study</td>
<td>(Questionnaire)-1 for Students (SQ) and 1 for Parents (PQ)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Rating criteria for the three speaking test format: Monologue, Dialogue and Multilogue</td>
<td>Nakamura Yuji (2009)</td>
<td>Quantitative study</td>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Upper Primary Teacher’s perception of PSLE English Oral Assessment</td>
<td>Norashikin Mohamed Noor, Mohan K. Muniandy, Shashi Kumar Shanmugan, and Emily Jothee Mathai (2010)</td>
<td>Qualitative study</td>
<td>Semi-structured interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>The School-Based Oral English Test: Similarities and Differences</td>
<td>Zaitun Abdul Majid, Arshad Abd Samad, Mazanah Muhammad, and Malachi Edwin Vethamani (2011)</td>
<td>Qualitative study</td>
<td>Interview and observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Students’ Reactions to School-Based Oral Assessment: Bridging the Gap in Malaysia</td>
<td>Gurnam Kaur Sidhu, Chan Yuen Fook, Sarjit Kaur Sidhu (2011)</td>
<td>Quantitative and qualitative study</td>
<td>Questionnaire and Focus Group Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Teachers’ Knowledge and Understanding of the Malaysian School-Based Oral English Assessment</td>
<td>Gurnam Kaur Sidhu, Chan Yuen Fook, Azleena Mohamad (2011)</td>
<td>Quantitative and qualitative study</td>
<td>Questionnaire, Semi-structured interviews and document analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>School-Based Assessment: Will</td>
<td>Mariam Begum</td>
<td>Quantitative and qualitative study</td>
<td>Questionnaire,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Title</td>
<td>Author(s)</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Instrument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It Really Change the Education Scenario in Bangladesh</td>
<td>and Sabrin Farooqui (2008)</td>
<td>qualitative study</td>
<td>Interview and document analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Washback of an oral assessment system in the EFL classroom</td>
<td>Ana P. Muñoz and Marta E. Álvarez (2010)</td>
<td>Quantitative and qualitative study</td>
<td>Surveys for students and teachers, class observations and external evaluations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Oral examination Assessment Practices: Effectiveness and Change with a First Year Undergraduate Cohort</td>
<td>Ben Oakley and Clare Hencken (2005)</td>
<td>Quantitative and qualitative study</td>
<td>Questionnaire, observation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

First, the results of this analysis revealed that mixed methods involving both quantitative and qualitative study are the most favoured methodology used for the studies on School-Based Oral Assessment. This may be due to the notion that mixed method can enable rich data to be collected which later affords triangulation of the findings (Cohen et al., 2011). It can be seen that 6 articles out of 15 starting from Article No. 10 to 15 have employed this mixed method. The result is then followed by the use of quantitative study which includes 5 articles starting from No. 1 to 5 and 4 articles on qualitative study starting from No. 6 to 9.

As presented in Tab. 4, it can also be concluded that more than half of the studies (11 articles) have employed questionnaire as a main tool in gathering data. Owen (2002) believes that employing a questionnaire in an educational research is very beneficial as it offers unbiased representation of the population of interest. This claim may somehow explain the highest usage of questionnaire as a primary data collection method. Nonetheless, some other methods were also used in these articles and they involved the use of interview (7 articles), observation (5 articles) and document analysis (3 articles). Although a variety of methods used does exist, the questionnaire remains the most prevalent among all.

**IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS**

As mentioned in the previous section, three research questions were posed as a guide for this review. Hence, this section will elucidate the findings as well as implications derived from each research question. The first research question referred to the percentage for contexts which were related to the studies of School-Based Oral English Assessment. This review has indicated that almost half of 15 journal articles from 2003 to 2011 were closely related to the studies of School-Based Oral English Assessment in Malaysia. For instance, the review has identified that 7 of selected articles were closely related to the Malaysian context.

When the data were analysed into percentage form, it can be seen that 46% of these 15 articles were related to School-Based Oral English Assessment in Malaysia. As such, it is possible to claim that a substantial number of studies had been conducted on the subject matter in Malaysia. This may somehow imply that many different parties in Malaysia were interested in studying the implementation of this School-Based Oral English Assessment as a whole. Nonetheless, it would be interesting if more studies on such subject are also conducted in other countries.

The second research question concerned the research purposes related to School-Based Oral English Assessment which were published in the selected journals over the past 8 years. After reviewing 15 selected articles from 13 different educational journals, it is now possible to categorise the articles into six different categories based on various research purposes. These respective categories include: perception, analysing factors, knowledge and understanding, concerns, washback effects and miscellaneous. The review has shown that 8 out of 15 articles fall under the ‘Perception’ category. In addition, Fig. 2 shows that ‘Perception’ makes up more than half (53%) of the overall percentage. In this respect, there were indications that most of researchers were interested in investigating the respondents’ perceptions, perspectives, views as well as attitudes toward School-Based Oral English Assessment. Therefore, the insight offered by this review which comes in the form of feedback could be beneficial for future reference in reviewing and modifying the implementation of School-Based Oral English Assessment needs assessment for program planning and program development especially in Malaysia. Nevertheless, more in-depth investigation on
other areas which may include teachers’ and students’ readiness, impact and consequences and the future of School-Based Oral English Assessment are also deemed worthy of attention.

Additionally, the third research question investigated the trend of the studies conducted on School-Based Oral English Assessment in these eight years. At this juncture, it is obvious that mixed methods which involve both quantitative and qualitative study are the most preferred method used for the studies on SBOEA. As presented in Tab. 4, it is noted that 6 articles out of 15 have employed mixed method. Besides that, this review has also indicated that the questionnaire appears to be a primary data resource as more than half of the studies (11 articles) have employed questionnaire as a main tool in gathering data. Inadvertently, this paper has disclosed that these two predominant trends are most preferable among recent researches. As such, it can also shed some light on the best selection of method and instrument in extending similar studies.

Limitations of the research

Taking all the results from journals, we have now gained a better insight into the research and trends in the studies of School-Based Oral English Assessment. Nevertheless, it is worth addressing a few limitations of the studies in order to ensure precise interpretation of the findings. First, it is not too much to postulate that a limitation of this content analysis lies in the generalisation of the findings. Although almost half of the articles centred on the Malaysian context (7 articles), it is still hard to determine that most studies on School-Based Oral English Assessment have been conducted in Malaysia. Under such circumstances, the results only offer us a snapshot of the studies in a particular context. As well, the findings offered by each study could not simply be generalised to other countries in the world. The purpose of conducting studies on School-Based Oral English Assessment may vary from one place to another even in the same country, considering many other external factors. Second, it is obvious that the use of mixed method and questionnaire is the most prevalent among recent studies throughout this review. Nevertheless, it is also worth noting that the small number of selected articles (15 articles) can hardly represent the research trend around the globe. As well, it is also recommended that the studies be repeated in the next few years in other different contexts in order to get a precise picture of pattern and trend in the studies of the subject matter.

REFERENCES


Owens, L. K. (2002). Introduction to survey research design. *Seminar Series. SRL Fall (1-18).*

