

Jurnal Pengguna Malaysia Malaysian Journal of Consumer



Jilid 18

Jun 2012

ISSN 1511 - 998x

Tahap Pengetahuan Penggunaan Lestari Dalam
Kalangan Remaja Di Selangor

Naimah Mohd Salleh
Nurizan Yahaya
Mumtazah Othman
Siti Balkis Bari
Nurul Fardini Zakaria

Factors Affecting Consumer Complaint
Behaviour

Azmi Mat
Aini Mat Said

Sustainable Housing Practices Towards
Consumers' Well Being

Zuroni Md Jusoh
Elistina Abu Bakar
Husniyah Abd Rahim
Askiah Jamaluddin
Roziyah Mohd Rasdi
Norzalika Md Zaini

Comparison of Adoption of Energy Efficient
Household Appliances Between Malaysian and
Japanese Consumers

Daisaku Morinaga
Aini Mat Said

Permintaan Terhadap Alat Ganti Kereta
Tempatan dan Implikasi Terhadap Peluang
Perniagaan Alat Ganti Kereta

Doris Padmini Selvaratnam
Norlaila Abu Bakar
Mastura Nongman

A Review of Luxury Consumption on Fashion
Products

Nur Liana Kori
Aini Mat Said

Pengambilan Daging Ayam Alternatif Oleh
Pelajar Pusat Pengajian Pendidikan Jarak Jauh
(PPPJJ), Universiti Sains Malaysia

Jamilah Ismail
Norsuhana Abdul Hamid
Marina Abd Manaf

Aktiviti masa lapang Dalam Kalangan Remaja

Siti Balkis Bari
Naimah Mohd Salleh

Jurnal Pengguna Malaysia

Jilid 18, Jun 2012

Jurnal
Pengguna Malaysia





PENYUMBANG ARTIKEL

Aini Mat Said Askiah Jamaluddin Azmi Mat Azmi Mat Daisaku Moringa Doris Padmini Selvaratnam Elisrina Abu Bakar Husniyah Abd Rahim Jamilah Ismail Marina Abd Manaf Mastura Nongman Mumtazah Othman Naimah Mohd Salleh Norlaila Abu Bakar Norsuhana Abdul Hamid Norzalika Md Zaini Nurizan Yahya Nur Liana Kori Nurul Fardini Zakaria Roziyah Mohd Rasdi Siti Balkis Bari Zuroni Md Jusoh	<i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Putra Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Putra Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Putra Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Putra Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekonomi dan Pengurusan, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Putra Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Putra Malaysia</i> <i>Pusat Pengajian Sains Kesihatan, Kampus Kesihatan, Universiti Sains Malaysia</i> <i>Pusat Pengajian Sains Kesihatan, Kampus Kesihatan, Universiti Sains Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekonomi dan Pengurusan, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Putra Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Putra Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Putra Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia</i> <i>Pusat Pengajian Sains Kesihatan, Kampus Kesihatan, Universiti Sains Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Putra Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia</i> <i>Pusat Pengajian Sains Kesihatan, Kampus Kesihatan, Universiti Sains Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Putra Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Putra Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Putra Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Putra Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Putra Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Putra Malaysia</i> <i>Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Putra Malaysia</i>	16 16 38 50 68 88 108 131
Tahap Pengetahuan Penggunaan Lestari Dalam Kalangan Remaja Di Selangor Naimah Mohd Salleh, Nurizan Yahya, Mumtazah Othman, Siti Balkis Bari dan Nurul Fardini Zakaria		1
Factors Affecting Consumer Complaint Behaviour Azmi Mat dan Aini Mat Said		16
Sustainable Housing Practices Towards Consumers' Well Being Zuroni Md Jusoh, Elisrina Abu Bakar, Husniyah Abd Rahim, Askiah Jamaluddin, Roziyah Mohd Rasdi dan Norzalika Md Zaini		38
Comparison of Adoption of Energy Efficient Household Appliances Between Malaysian and Japanese Consumers Daisaku Moringa dan Aini Mat Said		50
Permintaan Terhadap Alat Ganti Kereta Tempatan dan Implikasi Terhadap Peluang Perniagaan Alat Ganti Kereta Doris Padmini Selvaratnam, Norlaila Abu Bakar dan Mastura Nongman		68
A Review of Luxury Consumption on Fashion Products Nur Liana Kori dan Aini Mat Said		88
Pengambilan Daging Ayam Alternatif Oleh Pelajar Pusat Pengajian Pendidikan Jarak Jauh (PPPJJ), Universiti Sains Malaysia Jamilah Ismail, Norsuhana Abdul Hamid dan Marina Abd Manaf		108
Aktiviti masa lapang Dalam Kalangan Remaja Siti Balkis Bari dan Naimah Mohd Salleh		131

TAHAP PENGETAHUAN PENGGUNAAN LESTARI DALAM KALANGAN REMAJA DI SELANGOR

Naimah Mohd Salleh, Nurizan Yahaya, Mumtazah Othman
Siti Balkis Bari dan Nurul Fardini
Jabatan Pengurusan Sumber dan Pengajian Pengguna
Fakulti Ekologi Manusia
Universiti Putra Malaysia

Pengenalan

Penggunaan pengguna pada hari ini mempunyai kaitan langsung dengan kesejahteraan alam sekitar pada masa akan datang. Penggunaan yang berhemah akan menyelamatkan bumi dan sumber bumi daripada lenyap akibat penggunaan sumber yang tidak terkawal. Penggunaan lestari bermaksud penggunaan barangan dan perkhidmatan bagi mencapai hidup yang berkualiti, namun pada masa yang sama meminimumkan penggunaan sumber asli, pelepasan sisa toksik ke udara dan tidak merosakkan alam sekitar untuk generasi akan datang (Magrabi, Chung, Cha & Yang, 1991). Dasar Pengguna Negara terhadap penggunaan lestari ialah meningkatkan usaha ke arah amalan penggunaan lestari dalam kalangan peruncit, pembekal dan pengilang bagi menjamin kesejahteraan dan kebajikan pengguna dalam era globalisasi dan liberalisasi perdagangan.

Krisis ekonomi, pemanasan global, penipisan ozon, kebuluran, kekurangan tenaga dan tsunami yang berlaku pada hari ini adalah antara kesan daripada penggunaan yang tidak lestari (Princen, 2010). Manusia merupakan makhluk yang dipertanggungjawabkan dalam kemusnahan alam dan penyusutan sumber alam (Gardner & Stern, 2002). Perkara-perkara ini boleh dielakkan sekiranya pengguna, khususnya remaja memahami konsep penggunaan lestari. Hal ini kerana golongan ini merupakan generasi pewaris yang akan mengambil alih tampuk pemerintahan daripada pemerintah sekarang. Oleh itu, pengetahuan lestari yang ada pada sebuah pemerintahan akan diterjemahkan kepada pembangunan yang mapan dan seimbang dalam segala aspek. Pengetahuan lestari dikaitkan dengan gaya hidup atau amalan penggunaan lestari dalam kehidupan seharian. Pengetahuan lestari yang ada pada seseorang individu akan menggalakkan individu tersebut mengamalkan gaya hidup lestari (Kagawa, 2007). Konsep gaya hidup lestari melibatkan amalan penggunaan lestari yang menfokuskan kepada kesedaran dan sikap

terhadap penggunaan lestari. Penggunaan beretika, kepenggunaan, perubahan gaya hidup, pelaksanaan pelabelan mesra alam dan pendidikan pengguna tentang kesan penggunaan terhadap persekitaran boleh mengubah tingkah laku pengguna ke arah pengguna yang efisien (Douglas & Graig, 1997). Pendidikan pengguna perlu bagi melahirkan sikap dan kesedaran kepada penggunaan lestari. Pendidikan pengguna berperanan sebagai satu alat untuk melahirkan pengguna yang bijak dan bersikap rasional dalam menggunakan barangan dan perkhidmatan seharian.

Gaya hidup penggunaan lestari ini mudah dipraktikkan sekiranya golongan pengguna khususnya remaja mempunyai pengetahuan yang tinggi tentang penggunaan lestari. Selain itu, kesedaran berkenaan penjagaan alam sekitar hari ini akan menjamin kesejahteraan hidup untuk generasi akan datang dan menggalakkan golongan remaja mengamalkan gaya hidup yang lestari dalam kehidupannya. Antara ciri gaya hidup penggunaan lestari ialah berbelanja secara berhemah, penjimatan penggunaan sumber yang tidak boleh diperbaharu seperti air, tenaga dan bahan bakar fosil, menggunakan bahan-bahan yang tidak memberi kesan negatif kepada persekitaran seperti merokok, dan menggunakan teknologi yang bersih dan mesra alam.

Pengetahuan penggunaan lestari dan gaya hidup remaja masa kini adalah saling berkaitan. Remaja hari ini lebih gemar menjalankan gaya hidup moden di bandar besar seperti di Kuala Lumpur dan Johor Bahru berbanding dengan hidup secara tradisional di kampung. Kewujudan facebook pada abad ini menyebabkan golongan remaja mempraktikkan makna sebenar dunia tanpa sempadan dalam kehidupan sehariannya. Secara tidak langsung, penggunaan tenaga elektrik untuk sektor perumahan dalam kalangan golongan ini lebih tinggi jika dibandingkan dengan golongan umur yang lain (Hanssen, 2005). Selain itu, kehidupan suka berhibur dalam kalangan remaja menimbulkan aktiviti yang tidak sihat seperti merokok, berlumba haram, minum minuman keras dan melepak di kelab-kelab malam. Aktiviti ini boleh menjurus ke arah gaya hidup penggunaan yang tidak lestari dalam kalangan remaja (Fien, Neil & Bentley, 2008).

Remaja juga terkenal dengan sikap suka berbelanja. Tambahan, remaja ialah golongan pengguna yang mempunyai sifat pembelian secara gerak hati (*impulsive buying*) (Makela & Peters, 2004). Oleh yang demikian, penekanan terhadap penggunaan lestari perlu difokuskan kepada remaja kerana golongan inilah yang akan menjadi pewaris dan penyambung kepada penjagaan alam sekitar pada masa akan datang. Golongan ini perlu dididik ke arah penggunaan lestari agar kesejahteraan kehidupan dan alam sekitar pada masa hadapan dapat dikekalkan.

Remaja perlu sedar bahawa bencana alam seperti tanah runtuh yang berlaku di Bukit Antarabangsa pada awal tahun 2009 merupakan kesan penggunaan yang tidak lestari. Ketidakperihatinan kepada penggunaan lestari menyebabkan manusia menjadi tamak akan harta yang akhirnya membawa kemusnahan kepada alam sekitar dan manusia itu sendiri. Kemungkinan besar, salah satu faktor terjadinya kejadian tsunami di Jepun pada tahun 2011, merupakan kesan hasil kerja tangan manusia yang tidak mengendahkan penggunaan lestari (Crespellani, Madiari & Vannucchi, 1998). Oleh itu, bagi menjamin kejadian bencana yang begitu dahsyat tidak berulang kembali, penekanan nilai-nilai murni dari segi gaya hidup penggunaan lestari seperti amalan berjimat cermat, menyimpan, bertanggungjawab kepada diri, keluarga, masyarakat dan alam sekeliling perlu diterapkan dalam minda, jiwa dan sanubari remaja.

Oleh itu, kajian ini dilakukan bagi mendedahkan remaja kepada penggunaan lestari. Remaja di bandar dipilih dalam kajian ini kerana golongan ini mudah terdedah dengan peralatan moden dan berteknologi tinggi. Selain itu, mereka juga mempunyai kuasa beli yang tinggi berbanding dengan remaja di luar bandar. Tambahan, persekitaran tempat tinggal yang kurang tanah dan tiada haiwan ternakan seperti ayam dan itik menyebabkan remaja bandar kurang terdedah dengan penggunaan lestari. Pengharapan yang tinggi diberikan kepada remaja dalam proses pembangunan negara dan tahap pengetahuan penggunaan lestari mereka digambarkan melalui gaya hidup yang dipraktikkan. Pengetahuan penggunaan lestari yang tinggi dalam kalangan generasi akan datang berupaya memacu ke arah pembangunan negara yang pesat dengan penggunaan sumber alam yang lestari.

Objektif kajian

Secara umumnya kajian ini bertujuan untuk mengkaji tahap pengetahuan lestari dalam kalangan remaja di Selangor.

Tinjauan literatur

Penggunaan lestari

Penggunaan lestari bermaksud menggunakan sesuatu barangan atau perkhidmatan tanpa merosakkan alam sekitar dan masyarakat (United Nation Decade, 2005-2014). Penggunaan lestari juga mempunyai hubungan dengan penggunaan sumber alam semula jadi dalam pengeluaran dan pelupusan semasa menggunakan produk dan perkhidmatan (Jackson, 2004). Hal ini bermakna pengeluar boleh mempengaruhi penggunaan melalui reka bentuk produk dan pemasaran kerana ia akan memberikan pilihan kepada pengguna.

Penggunaan lestari mempunyai kaitan dengan pengurangan kemiskinan dalam kalangan penduduk di Malaysia, peningkatan ekonomi negara, peningkatan kesihatan penduduk dan pemeliharaan alam sekitar. Oleh itu, empat prinsip gaya hidup penggunaan lestari iaitu berdasarkan pemilihan, mengurangkan, memaksimumkan dan pengasingan bahan buangan perlu diamalkan dalam penggunaan bagi mendapatkan hidup yang berkualiti pada masa kini dan akan datang (Janikowski, 2000).

Mengubah pola penggunaan pengguna, khususnya remaja daripada penggunaan tidak lestari kepada penggunaan lestari memerlukan sokongan banyak pihak. Walau bagaimanapun, perubahan pola penggunaan yang berlaku kepada individu, isi rumah dan komuniti tidak mencukupi untuk mencapai penggunaan lestari sekiranya tiada tindakan dan sokongan daripada kerajaan. Sokongan kerajaan dari segi penyediaan polisi alam sekitar serta kod-kod alam sekitar yang wajib dipatuhi perlu bagi mencapai matlamat ini (Fien *et al.*, 2008).

Kerajaan Selangor menyokong amalan penggunaan lestari dengan mengadakan Program Hari Tanpa Beg Plastik yang diadakan pada setiap hari Sabtu. Program ini dapat mengurangkan penggunaan beg plastik dan menggalakkan penggunaan beg yang boleh dikitar semula dan mesra alam. Autio dan Heinonen (2004) berpendapat bahawa, aktiviti kitar semula, menggunakan produk mesra alam dan menguruskan pembuangan sisa dengan mengasingkan bahan dan penggunaan yang terhad merupakan pengamalan penggunaan barangan yang mesra alam. Selain itu, program Hari Bumi (*Earth Hour*) yang dilancarkan di Malaysia yang bermula pada Mac 2009 dan diteruskan sehingga sekarang sekurang-kurangnya mampu mengurangkan penggunaan tenaga elektrik dan bahan bakar fosil yang semakin hari semakin susut. Program ini mendapat sambutan daripada warga kota dan desa. Walau bagaimanapun, pengamalan penggunaan lestari tidak hanya diterjemahkan kepada kelakuan penggunaan kelestarian yang dianjurkan, malahan, ia lebih kepada sikap dan tabiat seharian seseorang itu dalam mengamalkan penggunaan yang lestari (Thogersen, 2001). Oleh yang demikian, tanggungjawab dan perhatian pengguna, khususnya remaja terhadap penggunaan lestari penting bagi membentuk suasana persekitaran yang baik dan lestari.

Remaja dan penggunaan lestari

Remaja merupakan golongan yang mengalami tempoh transisi antara zaman kanak-kanak dan zaman dewasa. Secara umumnya, golongan remaja merujuk kepada individu yang berumur antara 15 tahun hingga 25 tahun. Remaja dikenali sebagai golongan yang suka mengamalkan hidup yang popular dan moden (Fien *et al.*, 2008). Pada masa ini golongan remaja suka akan hiburan.

Golongan ini juga lebih gemar memilih duduk di hadapan komputer berjam-jam sebagai hobi berbanding dengan melibatkan diri dalam aktiviti lain seperti bercucuk tanam. Setiap minggu, remaja Australia menghabiskan masa mereka selama enam jam menonton iklan perdagangan di televisyen (Information Australia, 2001). Remaja di Hong Kong pula mengambil masa selama satu hingga dua jam menonton televisyen dalam masa satu hari (Kerajaan Hong Kong, 2002). Golongan remaja perlu diberi penekanan terhadap penggunaan lestari. Hal ini kerana remaja merupakan golongan yang berpotensi memberi kesan kepada produk dan perkhidmatan yang ditawarkan di pasaran. Giges's (1991), mendapati bahawa pengetahuan dan tabiat penggunaan golongan yang berumur 14 hingga 34 tahun di dunia, terutama penggunaan minuman ringan, minuman keras dan kasut adalah pada tahap yang sama. Golongan ini juga mempunyai pengaruh yang kuat terhadap penggunaan dan perbelanjaan isi rumah. Oleh itu, golongan ini perlu dididik ke arah penggunaan yang lestari bagi melahirkan pengguna yang bijak pada masa hadapan dan seterusnya menjadi pewaris kepimpinan pada masa akan datang.

Tahap pengetahuan penggunaan lestari yang berbeza dalam kalangan jantina akan mempengaruhi pola penggunaan golongan tersebut (Fien *et al.*, 2008). Penggunaan lestari adalah berbeza antara remaja lelaki dan remaja perempuan. Didapati remaja perempuan lebih bertanggungjawab terhadap alam sekitar dan lebih gemar terlibat dengan aktiviti-aktiviti untuk menjaga alam sekitar berbanding dengan remaja lelaki (Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmich, Sinkorics & Bohlen, 2003). Kajian lepas juga mendapati terdapat perbezaan antara sikap remaja lelaki dengan perempuan terhadap tanggungjawab menjaga alam sekitar. Didapati remaja lelaki mempunyai sikap yang negatif terhadap alam sekitar berbanding dengan remaja perempuan (Tikka *et al.*, 2000). Remaja perempuan juga menunjukkan perhatian yang lebih kepada alam sekitar dengan membeli produk hijau kerana mereka percaya bahawa produk tersebut lebih baik untuk persekitaran (Benton, 1994). Namun begitu, terdapat juga kajian lain yang dijalankan di Malaysia mendapati tiada perbezaan dalam penggunaan lestari antara remaja lelaki dan remaja perempuan (Tan & Lau, 2009; Aini, Nurizan & Fakhru'l-Razi, 2007). Namun begitu, penemuan hasil kajian di Malaysia ini masih tidak boleh menggambarkan situasi sebenar tahap penggunaan lestari antara jantina di kawasan ini (Tan & Lau, 2009). Kajian yang selanjutnya perlu dijalankan bagi mendapatkan gambaran yang tepat berkenaan dengan penggunaan lestari dalam kalangan jantina di Malaysia.

Metodologi

Kajian dijalankan dalam kalangan remaja di Sekolah Menengah Kebangsaan (SMK) Rahman Putra, Sungai Buluh, SMK Bukit Sentosa, SMK Jeram,

Kuala Selangor, SMK Rantau Panjang dan SMK Rawang yang terletak di negeri Selangor. Lokasi dan persampelan kajian ditunjukkan dalam Jadual 1.

Jadual 1: Lokasi Persampelan

Sekolah	Bil.Responden
SMK Bukit Rahman Putra, Sungai Buluh	105
SMK Bukit Sentosa	243
SMK Jeram Kuala Selangor	115
SMK Rantau Panjang	121
SMK Rawang	131

Sampel kajian terdiri daripada pelajar tingkatan dua, tiga, empat dan lima yang dipilih secara rawak mudah berlapis. Pelajar terlibat mewakili kelas aliran sains tulen, sains tulen agama, sastera, teknik dan vokasional, agama dan perakaunan.

Borang soal selidik telah digunakan sebagai instrumen kajian. Borang soal selidik ini terdiri daripada latar belakang responden dan keluarga serta pengetahuan yang berkaitan dengan penggunaan lestari. Terdapat 20 pernyataan pengetahuan penggunaan lestari yang perlu dijawab sama ada “Ya” atau “Tidak” oleh responden. Maklumat dikumpul secara mengedarkan borang soal selidik yang diisi sendiri oleh responden. Pengumpulan data dilakukan pada awal tahun 2009 dan telah dianalisis menggunakan program *Statistical Package for the Social Science* (SPSS). Hasil kajian dibentangkan secara deskriptif.

Pembahagian tahap (tinggi, sederhana dan rendah)

Tahap tinggi, sederhana dan rendah diperoleh dengan mendapat jumlah keseluruhan markah bagi jawapan kepada soalan berkenaan pengetahuan yang ditanya kepada responden kajian. Terdapat 20 soalan yang ditanya dan diberi kod 1= ya dan 0= tidak. Hal ini bermakna jumlah markah ialah 20 dan dibahagi kepada tiga bahagian. Oleh yang demikian, nilai yang diberi untuk tahap rendah ialah kurang atau sama dengan 6, tahap sederhana 7 hingga 12 dan tahap tinggi ialah 13 hingga 20.

Hasil kajian

Seramai 715 orang pelajar sekolah menengah di Selangor terlibat dalam kajian ini. Jadual 2 menunjukkan pelajar yang berumur 14 hingga 17 tahun

telah terlibat dalam kajian ini. Kebanyakan (96.9%) pelajar yang terlibat dalam kajian ini berumur 16 tahun.

Jadual 2: Maklumat Latar Belakang Responden

Latar Belakang Responden	N	Peratus (%)
Umur (Tahun)		
14	1	0.1
15	3	0.4
16	688	96.9
17	18	2.5
Jantina		
Lelaki	281	39.5
Perempuan	431	60.5
Susunan dalam adik-beradik		
Tunggal	30	4.2
Sulung	232	32.9
Tengah	309	43.8
Bongsu	135	19.1
Bilangan Individu yang tinggal secara tetap di rumah (orang)		
1-3	48	6.8
4-6	434	61.9
7 dan ke atas	219	31.2
Jenis Aliran Sekolah		
Sains Tulen	263	40.5
Sains Tulen Agama	7	1.1
Sastera	161	24.8
Teknik dan Vokasional	197	30.3
Agama	20	3.1
Perakaunan	2	0.3
Terlibat dalam aktiviti kokurikulum		
Tidak	131	18.6
Ya	575	81.4

Hal ini berlaku disebabkan kerana pelajar tingkatan empat tidak menduduki peperiksaan besar pada tahun tersebut. Oleh itu, mereka mudah memberi kerjasama dan ia tidak mengganggu masa belajar. Daripada segi jantina, pelajar perempuan (60.5%) lebih ramai berbanding dengan pelajar lelaki (39.52%). Kebanyakan (43.8%) responden merupakan anak tengah dalam keluarga. Seramai 61.9% responden mempunyai bilangan isi rumah di antara 4 hingga 6 orang. Terdapat 40.5% responden merupakan pelajar daripada aliran sains tulen. Sebanyak 81.4% responden terlibat dalam aktiviti kokurikulum.

Pengetahuan terhadap penggunaan lestari

Jadual 3 menunjukkan pengetahuan terhadap penggunaan lestari dalam kalangan responden. Hasil kajian mendapati majoriti responden mempunyai pengetahuan yang baik terhadap semua pernyataan kecuali hanya bagi beberapa pernyataan. Bagi pernyataan “Semua jenis sabun adalah selamat dan tidak mendatangkan kemudaratan kepada alam sekitar” didapati 64.6% responden lelaki dan 75.6% responden perempuan menjawab betul bagi pernyataan ini. Namun, terdapat 35.4% responden lelaki dan 24.4% responden perempuan memberikan jawapan yang salah bagi pernyataan ini. Dapatan ini menunjukkan 1/3 responden lelaki dan 1/4 responden perempuan tidak mempunyai pengetahuan tentang bahaya penggunaan sabun kepada alam sekitar. Hal ini kerana, tidak semua sabun yang berada di pasaran bersifat mesra alam. Secara umumnya, kesan negatif terhadap alam sekitar akan ditinggalkan oleh bahan kimia yang digunakan semasa proses pembuatan sabun.

Bagi pernyataan “Pernahkah anda mendengar istilah penggunaan lestari”, didapati 51.4% responden lelaki dan 47.3% responden perempuan tidak pernah mendengar istilah ini. Hasil kajian yang diperoleh menunjukkan 1/2 responden kajian tidak terdedah dengan istilah ini yang memungkinkan mereka tidak mengambil berat tentang alam sekitar. Walaupun banyak iklan yang berkaitan penggunaan lestari ini diwarwarkan di media massa dan cetak, ia dilihat seakan-akan tidak berjaya kerana didapati masih ramai lagi responden yang tidak pernah mendengar istilah penggunaan lestari. Didapati responden lelaki yang tidak pernah mendengar istilah ini lebih ramai berbanding dengan mereka yang mengetahuinya. Hal ini menunjukkan, remaja hari ini gemar berhibur dan menonton iklan-iklan produk untuk penampilan diri mereka sahaja berbanding dengan menonton iklan-iklan yang berbentuk ilmiah (*World Youth Report, 2003*).

Hampir kesemua responden lelaki dan perempuan menjawab kebanyakan pernyataan yang ditanya dengan betul ($\geq 89\%$). Antara pernyataan tersebut ialah “Perubahan cuaca dunia adalah disebabkan pemanasan global”,

“Penebangan pokok boleh menyebabkan hakisan tanah”, “Menggunakan tenaga elektrik dengan cermat mampu menjimatkan penggunaan tenaga”, “Pembukaan tanah tanpa kawalan boleh mengganggu habitat haiwan di hutan” dan “Pembakaran hutan menyumbang kepada pemanasan global”. Hasil dapatan kajian ini, seiring dengan hasil kajian lepas yang mendapati hampir semua responden memberi jawapan betul bagi pernyataan-pernyataan ini (Mumtazah, Nurizan & Naimah, 2009). Hasil kajian ini menunjukkan responden memahami bahawa aktiviti manusia, seperti pembalakan dan penebangan hutan boleh menyumbang kepada kemusnahan alam sekitar dan mengubah cuaca dunia. Sementara, langkah penjimatan penggunaan tenaga elektrik pula dapat membantu mengurangkan penggunaan sumber alam. Selain penjimatan, aktiviti seperti kitar semula dan menggunakan air hujan untuk aktiviti seharian, seperti mencuci dan mandi dapat memupuk sifat sayangkan alam sekitar dan membentuk sikap ke arah penggunaan lestari. Oleh itu, pengetahuan penggunaan lestari tidak hanya diterjemahkan kepada kelakuan penggunaan kelestarian yang dianjurkan, malahan, ia lebih kepada sikap dan tabiat seharian seseorang itu dalam mengamalkan penggunaan yang lestari (Thogersen, 2001).

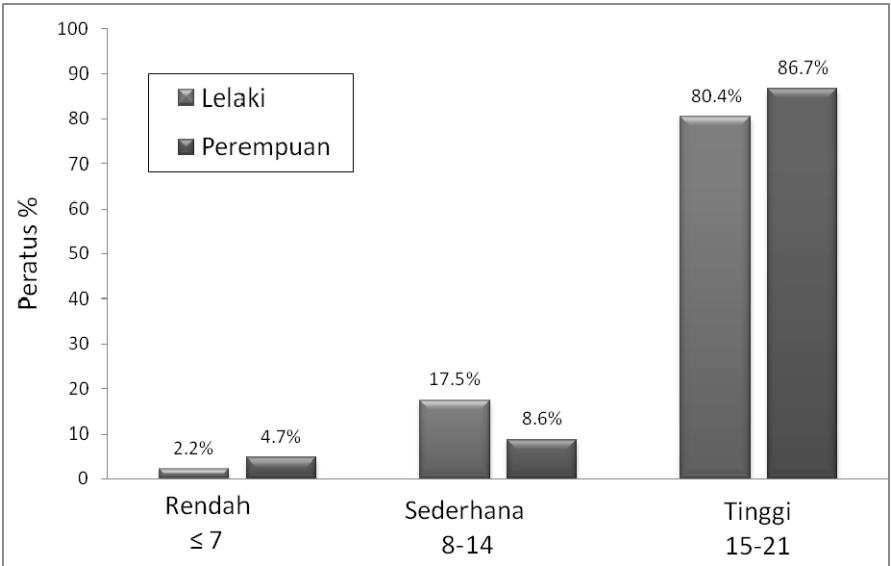
Selain itu, terdapat perbezaan pengetahuan lestari antara pelajar lelaki dan pelajar perempuan berdasarkan penelitian ke atas nilai peratus yang diperoleh. Terdapat perbezaan nilai peratus yang agak banyak antara responden lelaki dan perempuan bagi soalan “Penggunaan lestari ialah penggunaan barangan dan perkhidmatan secara minimum untuk mencapai kesejahteraan hidup tanpa menjejaskan keperluan generasi akan datang”. Didapati responden perempuan lebih berpengetahuan berbanding dengan responden lelaki bagi soalan ini. Terdapat 85.3% responden perempuan menjawab betul iaitu “ya” manakala terdapat 73.3% responden lelaki menjawab betul atau “ya” bagi soalan ini. Dapatan kajian ini disokong dengan pernyataan Diamantopoulos *et al.*, (2003), yang mendapati remaja perempuan lebih bertanggungjawab terhadap alam sekitar dan lebih gemar terlibat dengan aktiviti-aktiviti untuk menjaga alam sekitar berbanding dengan remaja lelaki (Diamantopoulos *et al.*, 2003). Namun begitu, bagi soalan “Biasanya plastik mudah reput” didapati nilai peratus responden lelaki menjawab betul bagi soalan ini melebihi responden perempuan. Nilai yang dicatatkan ialah 76.5% bagi responden lelaki, manakala 72.5% bagi responden perempuan. Bagi soalan “Tumpuan penggunaan lestari adalah untuk mengurangkan kemusnahan alam semulajadi oleh manusia” didapati responden lelaki kurang berpengetahuan untuk menjawab soalan ini berbanding dengan responden perempuan jika diteliti melalui nilai peratus responden lelaki yang menjawab soalan ini dengan betul. Penelitian ini dikukuhkan lagi dengan pernyataan bahawa remaja lelaki lebih bersikap negatif terhadap alam sekitar berbanding dengan remaja perempuan (Tikka *et al.*, 2000).

Jadual 3: Pengetahuan terhadap Penggunaan Lestari

Pernyataan	Ya				Tidak			
	Lelaki		Perempuan		Lelaki		Perempuan	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Penggunaan lestari ialah penggunaan barangan dan perkhidmatan secara minimum untuk mencapai kesejahteraan hidup tanpa menjejaskan keperluan generasi akan datang.	187	73.3	337	85.3	68	26.7	58	14.7
2. Perubahan cuaca dunia adalah disebabkan oleh pemanasan global.	247	90.8	378	90.9	25	9.2	38	9.1
3. Penipisan lapisan ozon tidak merbahaya kerana bumi ini dipelithara oleh lapisan- lapisan atmosfera yang lain.	40	14.9	41	9.9	229	85.1	372	90.1
4. Biasanya plastik mudah reput.	64	23.5	114	27.5	208	76.5	301	72.5
5. Karbon monoksida dihasilkan oleh asap kenderaan.	235	87.0	348	86.1	35	13.0	56	13.9
6. Racun dan bahan toksik yang meresap ke dalam tanah boleh memberi kesan terhadap tumbuhan dan haiwan.	241	88.6	388	93.9	31	11.4	25	6.1
7. Menggunakan sapu tangan lebih baik daripada menggunakan kertas tisu.	191	70.5	324	77.9	80	29.5	92	22.1
8. Semua jenis sabun adalah selamat dan tidak mendatangkan kemudaratan kepada alam sekitar.	96	35.4	100	24.4	175	64.6	309	75.6
9. Penggunaan lestari menekankan amalan mengurangkan, mengguna semula, mengitar semula, bertangjawab dan bertindak.	214	81.1	378	92.6	50	18.9	30	7.4
10. Penebangan pokok boleh menyebabkan hakisan tanah berlaku.	246	90.4	391	94.2	26	9.6	24	5.8

Jadual 3 (Sambungan)

Pernyataan	Ya				Tidak			
	Lelaki		Perempuan		Lelaki		Perempuan	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
11. Tumpuan penggunaan lestari adalah untuk mengurangkan kemusnahan alam semula jadi oleh manusia.	201	76.4	355	87.2	62	23.6	52	12.8
12. Menggunakan tadahan air hujan untuk membasuh kereta dan menyiram pokok bunga dapat mengurangkan penggunaan air paip di rumah.	236	87.4	377	90.8	34	12.6	38	9.2
13. Saki baki makanan dan air basuhan beras dapat diguna semula untuk dijadikan baja kompos untuk tanaman seperti sayur dan pokok bunga.	198	73.1	321	77.7	73	26.9	92	22.3
14. Amalan untuk mengasingkan bahan-bahan buangan mengikut 3 kumpulan (kertas, plastik, kaca) ialah amalan penggunaan lestari	233	86.9	388	94.6	35	13.1	22	5.4
15. Menggunakan tenaga elektrik dengan cermat mampu menjimatkan penggunaan tenaga tersebut.	242	90.0	397	95.9	27	10.0	17	4.1
16. Mengitar semula kertas dapat mengurangkan penebangan pokok.	240	88.2	378	91.7	32	11.8	34	8.3
17. Pembukaan tanah tanpa kawalan boleh mengganggu habitat haiwan di hutan.	244	89.7	388	93.9	28	10.3	25	6.1
18. Pembakaran hutan menyumbang kepada pemanasan global.	241	88.9	387	93.5	30	11.1	27	6.5
19. Pemanasan global tidak akan menjejaskan Malaysia kerana terletak di kawasan tropika.	38	14.0	40	9.7	233	86.0	373	90.3
20. Pernahkah anda mendengar istilah penggunaan lestari?	118	48.6	207	52.7	125	51.4	186	47.3



Rajah 1 : Tahap Pengetahuan terhadap Penggunaan Lestari Mengikut Jantina

Tahap pengetahuan tentang penggunaan lestari mengikut jantina

Pengetahuan responden berkenaan penggunaan lestari telah dibahagikan kepada tiga tahap iaitu tinggi, sederhana dan rendah. Berdasarkan Rajah 1, didapati remaja perempuan memiliki pengetahuan (86.7%) yang lebih tinggi berbanding dengan remaja lelaki. Namun begitu, hanya 2.2% remaja lelaki yang memiliki tahap pengetahuan yang rendah terhadap penggunaan lestari berbanding dengan remaja perempuan iaitu 4.7%.

Kesimpulan

Secara umumnya, hasil kajian mendapati responden mempunyai tahap keperihatinan kepada alam sekitar dan perlakuan penggunaan lestari yang tinggi. Didapati responden peka terhadap isu-isu pemanasan global, penipisan lapisan ozon, pemusnahan hutan dan mengetahui hak dan peranan mereka dalam menjaga alam sekitar.

Hasil kajian memberi gambaran, walaupun banyak iklan dan kempen serta usaha kerajaan dalam mengamalkan penggunaan lestari, namun masih lagi ada remaja yang tidak mengambil perhatian terhadap perkara ini. Oleh itu,

penekanan tentang penggunaan lestari perlu difokuskan kepada remaja sekolah menengah agar mereka tidak ketinggalan dalam mengamalkan kehidupan yang lestari. Aktiviti-aktiviti yang menekankan aspek penggunaan lestari perlu dijalankan di sekolah dan penglibatan pelajar secara sepenuhnya perlu digalakkan. Pengamalan penggunaan lestari di sekolah menengah merupakan usaha awal dan bersesuaian dengan saranan Kementerian Belia dan Sukan, iaitu remaja merupakan belia yang akan menjadi tonggak kepada negara. Remaja perlu diterapkan dengan nilai-nilai murni dalam memelihara dan memulihara alam sekitar sejak dibangku sekolah lagi. Dengan ini apabila remaja ini menamatkan alam persekolahan dan berada di dunia sebenar, mereka akan membawanya kepada masyarakat umum dengan membudayakan penggunaan lestari dalam kehidupan seharian.

Penekanan kepada budaya penggunaan lestari dalam kalangan remaja penting kerana golongan ini akan membesar menjadi pengguna dewasa yang bertanggungjawab mempengaruhi orang lain dalam mengamalkan penggunaan lestari. Di samping itu, golongan ini juga akan menjadi pewaris kepimpinan negara pada masa akan datang. Oleh itu, pengamalan penggunaan dan nilai murni perlu dibentuk terlebih dahulu sebelum langkah saintifik dan pengurusan kawalan alam sekitar menyubur dalam minda dan jiwa golongan ini. Sekiranya remaja memahami kesan pengamalan penggunaan yang lestari, secara outomatiknya segala saranan dan aktiviti berkenaan penggunaan lestari yang dianjurkan oleh kerajaan dan agensi-agensi lain akan berjaya menyubur dalam hati dan minda remaja.

Rujukan

Aini, M.S., Nurizan, Y, & Fakhru'l-Razi, A. (2007). Enviromental comprehension and participation of Malaysian secondary school student. *Enviromental Education Research*,13,17-31.

Autio, M. & Heinine, V. (2004). To consume or not consume? Young people's environmentalism in the affluent finnish society. *Young Nordic Journal of Youth Research*.12, 137-153.

Benton, J. R. (1994). Enviromental knowledge and attitudes of undergraduate business studies compared to non-business students. *Business and Society*, 33, 191-211.

Crespellani, T., Madiai, C., & Vannucchi. G. (1998). Earthquake Destructiveness Potential Factor & Slope Stability. *Geotechnique*, 48 (3), 411-419.

Diamantopoulos, A., Schlegelmich, B.B., Sinkorics, R.R., & Bohlen, G.M. (2003). Can socio demographics still play a role in profiling green consumers? A review of evidence and an empirical investigation. *Journal of Business Research*, 56, 465-480.

Douglas, S.P. & Graig, C.S. (1997). The changing dynamic of consumer behavior: implications for cross-culturer research. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 14, 375-395. Dimuat turun dari <http://www.faqs.org/abstracts>.

Fien, J., Neil, C & Bentley, M. (2008). Youth can lead the way sustainable consumption. *Journal of Education For Sustainable Development*, 2(1), 51-60.

Fraj, E. & Martinez, E. (2006). Environmental values and lifestyle as determining factors of ecological consumer behaviour: an empirical analysis. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 23(3),133-144.

Gardner, G.T. & Stern, P.C. (2002). *Environmental Problem and Human Behavior* (2nd ed). Boston MA : Pearson Custom Publishing.

Giges, N. (1991). Global spending pattern emerge. *Advertising Age*, November 11.64.

Hanssen, K.G. (2005). Teenage consumption of information and communication technology. *Proceeding of The 2005 European Council For an Energy Efficient Economy*.

Hong Kong Government. (2002). *Youth Media Survey Result*. Hong Kong Government.

Information Australia. (2001). *Eye on Australia: 10 Years of Consumer Trends*. Melborne:Brown Prior Anderson.

Jackson, T. (2004). *Earthscan Reader in Sustainable Consumption*. London: Earthscan.

Janikowski, R. (2000). *Imperative of a Sustainable Consumer: Principles of a Sustainable Consumption*, in U.Pretterhofer (Ed). Strategies of a Sustainable Policy. Graz Austria: IFF/IFZ, 29-32.

Kagawa, F. (2007). Dissonance in students perceptions of sustainable development and sustainability implication for curriculum change. *International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education*, 8(1), 317-338.

Magrabi, F.M., Chung, Y.S., Cha, S.S., & Yang, S-J. (1991). *The Economics of House-hold Consumption*. New York, : Praeger Publishers.

Makela, C.J. & Peters, S. (2004). Consumer education: creating consumer awareness among adolescent in Botswana. *International Journal on Consumer Studies*, 28, 379-387.

Mumtazah, O., Nurizan, Y., & Naimah, S. (2009). Pengetahuan, amalan dan gaya hidup penggunaan lestari dalam kalangan remaja. *Malaysian Journal of Consumer and Family Economics*, 12, 40-54.

Princen, T. (2010). Speaking of Sustainability: the potential of metaphor. *Science, Practice & Policy*. 6(2). 60-65.

Tan, B. C. & Lau, T.C. (2009). Examining sustainable consumption patterns of young consumers: is there a cause for concern? *The Journal of International Social Research*, 2(9), 465-472.

Thogersen, J. (2001). Consumer values, behaviour and sustainable development. *Asia Pasific. Advances in Consumer Research*, 4, 207-209.

Tikka, P., Kuitunen, M & Tynys, S. (2000). Effect of educational background on students attitudes activity levels and knowledge concerning the enviroment. *Journal of Enviromental Education*, 31, 12-19.

UNESCO. (2009). *United Nation: Decade of Education For Sustainable Development 2005-2014*. Dimuat turun dari www.unesco.org/education/desd.

World Youth Report. (2003). *Rethinking Leisure Time :Expanding Opportunities for young People & Communities*, 213-244.

FACTORS AFFECTING CONSUMER COMPLAINT BEHAVIOUR

Azmi Mat

Aini Mat Said

Department of Resource Management and Consumer Studies

Faculty of Human Ecology

Universiti Putra Malaysia

Introduction

Complaints traditionally had been regarded as negative responses from a dissatisfied consumer. Previously, most of the companies had tried to prevent and reduce them to the lowest level but nowadays, companies encourage customers to complaint and speak up directly to the organisations. Studies in marketing consider these negative responses as useful feedback and as indispensable indicators of unsatisfactory performance (Phau & Sari, 2004). In addition, without this valuable feedback, a company is unable to make corresponding improvements and will easily lose its competitiveness in the market. Nowadays, with the fierce competition in business, it is critical for businesses to satisfy their customer. If complaints are handled properly by the organisation, it will enhance customer satisfaction and turn regular customers into loyal customer. However, previous studies found that the number of consumer who complaints is lower than those who do not complaint (Andreassen, 2001). Most of dissatisfied consumers prefer to change brands, stop patronage the products and tell friends, families and relatives about their bad purchase experience than to voice their dissatisfaction directly to the companies or manufacturers (Day & Ash, 1979). Customer will not only give up patronage, but they also will spread a negative word of mouth that jeopardises the company's image. Thus, service providers should encourage consumer to complaint if they experience service failure.

It is very important to encourage consumer to complaint and speak up directly to the organisation. Consumer complaint behaviours (CCB) are crucial for the organizations since they offer opportunities for correcting the difficulties faced during service offerings (Heung & Lam, 2003). In addition, marketers must realise that their survival depends on the goodwill of the customers (Keng *et al.*, 1995). Thus, understanding customer complaint behaviour becomes critical.

Nowadays, it is easy for consumer to make complaint. There are many channels that consumer may choose in order to express their dissatisfaction towards the organisation. For example, consumer may complaints directly to the organisation, complaint to the third parties or take legal action. In this globalisation era, consumer also can go online to lodge their complaint. Instead of lodge their complaint via electronic mail (email), consumer also may lodge their complaint on the social networking sites such as Facebook and Twitter. The use of social networking sites on the internet is increasing the extent and speed of word of mouth dissemination (Liu & McClure, 2001). In fact at a glance, companies like NAZA Kia had created an account on Facebook in order to get closer with their customers. Through this facebook fan page, consumer may lodge complaint directly to the organisation. As complaint can help companies to be aware of their shortcomings and failures and would be enable immediate rectification and improvements, many companies are encouraging their consumers to complaint. Various means have been adopted by the companies such as online survey, setting up the call centre, feedback form and outsourcing for conducting customer satisfaction survey.

Today, Malaysian consumers are becoming more educated. They know about their rights as well as the right channels to lodge complaint when they experienced unsatisfactory episodes. Consumer may choose either private or public action if they decide to lodge a complaint. They can complaint directly to the organization through third party or lodge their complaint with government agencies. In Malaysia for example, the government has enforced the Consumer Protection Act 1999 (CPA) in order to protect Malaysia's consumers and society as a whole. Besides, the establishment of the Federation of Malaysian Consumers Association (FOMCA) in 1973 is a reflection of the nation's commitment to consumer protection. In 2004, FOMCA had set up an alternative complaint channel called, National Consumer Complaints Center (NCCC) where the operation is partially funded by the Ministry of Domestic Trade and Co-operative and Consumerism (MTDCC). These two agencies make it easier for customers to lodge their complaint in order to get quick and immediate attention. However, different consumer may engage in different complaint behaviour due to different factor. Previous studies found that, there are several factors that influence consumer to complaint. Therefore, this paper aims to discuss the determinants of consumer complaint behaviour in depth, in order to create better understanding about the factors that influence consumer complaint behaviour including demographic profile (age, income and education level), attitude, consumer literacy and personality.

Literature review

Definition of complaint

Complaint is a form of feedback to business institution. A complaint is a consumer's negative emotional response toward a quality of services of service providers (Resnik & Harmon, 1983). Consumer complaints also can be defined as a set of all behavioural and non-behavioural responses which involve communicating something negative regarding a purchase episode and is triggered by perceived dissatisfaction with that episode (Singh & Howell, 1985). Thus, consumer may lodge complaint when he or she experiences negative disconfirmation between expected product and service performance and perceptions of the actual performance rendered. If consumers consistently complaint about unsatisfactory services, poor product design or inadequate quality control, the organisation will be able to pinpoint and correct the cause of these problems.

Background literature

Consumer behaviour has long been an important study within the marketing field. Consumer complaint behaviour began to generate attention from researchers in marketing research fields during the 1970's in the form of conceptual framework that described consumers' response to dissatisfying consumption experience or post purchase behaviour. In fact, consumer dissatisfaction and consumer complaint behaviours have grown in importance over the last few decades. This is especially true for industrialized western countries where consumerism activity is an accepted phenomenon (Kaynak *et al.*, 1992). Two influencing conceptual framework that are often discussed as theoretical foundations are Hirschman's (1970) exit, voice and loyalty framework and Day and Landon's (1977) complaining behaviour taxonomy. Consumer complaint behaviour literature expanded greatly in the 1980's and many researchers have made an effort to refine and extend CCB concepts through empirical testing (Ro, 2007). In addition, most studies on consumer complaint behavior were conducted in the United States during the 1970's and 1980's (Hunt 1977). To date only few studies concerning complaint behaviour have been undertaken in South-East Asia. The first study conducted by Keng *et al.* (1995) attempts to profile complaint behaviour of Singaporeans and followed by a study that was carried out by Phau and Sari (2004) on Indonesians which attempts to investigate why some of them tend to complaint while others do not. Other studies were also conducted concerning this topic. Azzat *et al.* (2004), which attempts to distinguish complainers and non-complainers within the Malaysian context and Ndubisi and Ling (2007) which attempts to measure gender differences

in consumer complaint behaviour among bank consumers. A very recent study carried out by Norazah (2010) attempts to investigate the dissatisfaction attributions and complaining behavior of public library users.

Theories behind consumer complaint behaviour (CCB)

Disconfirmation of expectation and attribution theory

According to Boote (1998), the most widely accepted theory of consumer dissatisfaction is disconfirmation of expectations. This theory states that, if perceived quality is lower than expectation of consumer, then it will result in negative disconfirmation as the resultant affective state. However, Erevelles and Leavit (1992) argued that, in all circumstances, this theory may not be enough to cause dissatisfaction. Consumer's perception of the attribution of product or service failure will moderate the feelings of dissatisfaction (Folkes & Kotsos, 1986). This is because, if the cause of disconfirmation is externally attributed (i.e., not caused by the consumer), then the consumer is justified in feeling dissatisfied. However, if the disconfirmation is internally caused (i.e., the fault of the consumer), then the dissatisfaction not be directed at the retailer or manufacturer. In other words, if disconfirmation is externally attributed, a consumer is justified in engaging in complaint behaviour.

Equity theory

Equity theory is concerned with the balance, and perceived fairness of the inputs and outputs of a particular transaction (Boote, 1998). In addition, from the perspective of either side in this theory, there are three (3) possible outcomes of a given transaction made by consumers as prescribed by equity theory: (1) equity, (2) positive inequity and (3) negative inequity. Boote (1998) explained that, equity is the case where inputs and the outputs of either side are perceived to be of an equal degree. In fact, the inequity exists where one side in the transaction is perceived to have gained the upper hand while, the positive inequity is the case where, from customer point of view, customer have gained more from the transaction, either in terms of inputs or outputs, than the other side. Negative inequity is the case where the other side is perceived to have gained more than the consumer. From an equity perspective, consumer dissatisfaction is the result of negative inequity, where the consumer perceives to have gained less from a transaction than the seller. A complaining behaviour is, therefore, likely if dissatisfaction is caused by negative inequity.

Hirschman's exit, voice and loyalty theory

The theoretical starting point for this study is inspired from Hirschman's work, (1970). Originally, this theory was not specifically created for CCB. This theory also can be applied in the organisations and states context. Hirschman's (1970) rich conceptualization of the three alternative responses explains how individuals may react to dissatisfying situations resulting from poor service or poor product performance.

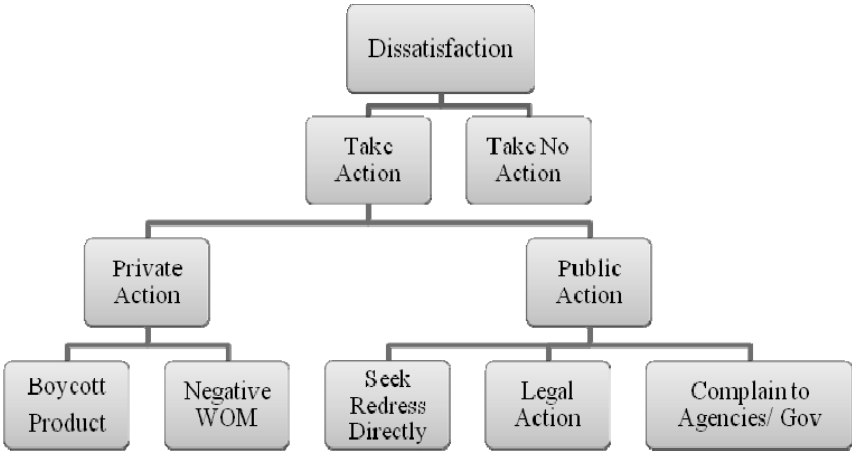
Consumer who experience dissatisfaction episode may choose to exit. Exit can be defined as, voluntarily termination of an exchange relationship and results in switching patronage to another product or service. It is described as a painful decision to withdraw and switch from the organization or product or service (Hirschman, 1970) and requires considerable effort by the individual consumer. In addition, exit usually means that the individual believes the situation is unlikely to be improved and recovered by the organization. Exit decisions also involve some effort such as switching cost associated with searching for the alternatives. The exit option is regarded as uniquely powerful and expected to need a concentration of the mind (Hirschman, 1970) for the abandoned relationship. This is because, this option is always considered to be the last resort as the customer will end the relationship with the particular organisation.

The voice option is viewed from a proactive perspective as any attempt at all to change rather than escape from an objectionable state of affairs (Hirschman, 1970). According to Hirschman (1970), voice is a legitimate recuperative mechanism, very likely to be active when individuals are highly involved or invested in the relationship. In general, when consumers buy durable goods, of course they expect the product can be used for a long period. If the product does not perform as expected, consumers will voice out their dissatisfaction to the organisation or manufacturer. Similar to the exit option, the voice response requires effort and motivation on the part of the consumer. Nowadays, there are a lot of channels of communication to voice out complaint. Consumers should know their rights and the right channel to complaint in order to warn the organisation.

The last option proposed by Hirschman (1970), is loyalty. When confronted with deteriorating conditions, some people choose neither exit nor voice; rather they stick with the firm for a period of time before responding to the problem. According to Hirschman (1970), consumers may "suffer in silence, confident that things will soon get better". This means that, consumer will give an ample time for the organisation to correct the problem before they decide to leave the organisation or switch to the other brand or product. Hirschman (1970) describes loyalty as the product of (mostly economic)

factors that tie the individual to the organisation, making exit costly and undermining voice (Withey & Cooper, 1989). However, sometimes loyalty is portrayed in his work as an attitude that moderates or conditions the use of exit and voice. At other times, Hirschman (1970) describes loyalty as behaviour in which the individual does things that support the organization.

Day and Landon’s consumer complaint behavior (CCB) classification



Source :Mattila, A.S. and Wirtz, J. (2004). Consumer responses to compensation speed of recovery and apology after a service failure. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 15(2):150-156.

Figure 1: Day and Landon (1977) Classification of Consumer Complaint Behavior

Based on those theories, Day and Landon introduced the two hierarchical classification of CCB known as Taxonomy of Consumer Complaint Behaviour in 1977 as illustrated in Figure 1. The first stage distinguishes between action and no action, resulting from dissatisfaction, while the second stage distinguishes public actions and private actions. For example, under their taxonomy, dissatisfied consumer would either take some actions or take no action. If action was taken, it was labeled as either public (e.g., redress seeking complaint, legal action, and third party complaint) or private action (e.g., personal boycott of the brand and negative word of mouth). Conversely, the take of no action response is described as forget about the incident and do nothing at all.

In 1980, Day had suggested another classification schema at the second level of Day and Landon's (1977) taxonomy. Day noted that the consumer's decision to complain or do not complain is to achieve specific objectives. Day proposed that the purpose of complaining can be used to classify behavioral CCB into three categories. First, with respect to redress seeking, the motive is to seek specific remedies either directly or indirectly from the seller (e.g., complaint to manufacturer, take legal action, etc.). Second, with respect to complaining, the motive is to communicate dissatisfaction for reasons other than seeking remedy (e.g., to persuade other by word-of-mouth communication, to affect future behaviour). Third, the motive for personal boycott is to discontinue purchase of the offending service (including product, brand, store and or manufacturer). In addition, Day (1980) also suggested that his taxonomy could be combined with Day and Landon's taxonomy (1977).

Types of complaining behavior

As discussed earlier in the theory and frameworks of Hirschman (1970) and Day and Landon (1977), complaint is the response resulting from the consumer dissatisfaction episode. There are many types of consumer complaint behaviour that consumer would engage when they experience dissatisfaction and these include among others, switching patronage, telling friends, warning family members and complaining to a third party such Tribunal for Consumer Claims or solicitors. There are consumers who divert the complaint to mass media (printed or electronic) instead of complaining by writing a letter directly to a company or manufacturer. According to Day and Landon (1977) this action can be classified into public or private action, depending on the types of complaining behaviour taken by consumers.

Public action

Public action refers to the direct complaint actions to the seller or a third party such as consumer agency or government, which includes, seeking redress directly from the retailer or manufacturer or taking legal action (Ndubisi & Ling, 2007). Public actions which could be taken by consumer includes, verbal complaint to retailer or manufacturer, writing a comment card or complaint letters, writing to newspapers or complaining to a consumer council. Consumer also can take public action by complaining to a third party (Khraim, 2006). Such complaint involves, for example, complaining to media, registering the complaint with a consumer association, or bringing legal action or complaining to internet sites that function as central forum for consumers (Khraim, 2006). However, only a small percentage of complaints were lodged with third parties.

Private action

According to Ndubisi & Ling (2007), private action indicates that, the complaint is privately done through negative word of mouth communications to family and friends or the decision not to repurchase the products and services again or to boycott the store. In fact, private actions generally do not get the direct attention of the seller and thus could have a serious impact on sales and profitability, requiring the company to make greater marketing expenditures to solicit new customer (Khraim, 2006). Private complaint has no effect on the firm's responses, but may reinforce negative attitudes through the process of consensual validation whereby individual seek confirmation of their feeling by selectively exposing themselves to agreeable others (Ndubisi & Ling, 2007).

It is important to know that a consumer may only either involve in one action (the public or private complain) or will involve both public and private complaints (Ndubisi & Ling, 2007). According to Heung and Lam (2003) consumer will engage in private action, if they were not satisfied with the complaint handling by the company or service provider. Most consumers are likely to engage in private action complaint behaviours such as word of mouth communication and stop patronising the products. In addition, disappointed consumers also may switch to competitors (Gruber *et al.*, 2009). Khraim (2006) added that, consumers can take private action by switching brands, stores or suppliers, as well as boycotting the products or services or telling family and friends about their bad experiences. Heung and Lam (2003) found that, most consumers are likely to engage in private complaint behaviors such as word of mouth communication and stop patronising the product or service. Generally speaking, a customer would resort to four types of complaint making behaviour when feeling dissatisfied (Davidow & Dacin, 1997), namely: silent, exit, negative word of mouth communication, direct complaint and making complaint to a third party. However, among these actions, silent, exit, negative word of mouth communication and resorting to legal procedure would not only do no good to a company's identification and improvement of the problem, would also hurt its corporate image.

Factors affecting consumer complaint behavior (CCB)

Consumer demographics

Demographic variables have been found to influence the different types of complaint behaviour. Li (2010) stated that, demographic characters mainly refer to personal statistics such as income, gender, and social status, place of residency, ethnicity, and family size. These variables are always been

examined by researchers studying CCB. In addition, previous literature review has shown that consumer complaint behaviour varies by demographic characters. Demographic variables such as age, income and education are found to influence consumer complaint behaviour. In addition, demographic factors are perceived to be good indicators of certain complaining behaviours (Boote, 1998; Volkov *et al.*, 2002; Heung & Lam, 2003; Ndubisi & Ling, 2007).

In addition, Keng *et al.*, 1995) found that females were more likely to complain than males. This is because, complaint might in particular have negative consequences for women who have been traditionally stereotyped as complainers. However, previous study reported that males are more likely to complaints to management or third parties than complaint directly to the service provider. Heung and Lam (2003) also found that female Hong Kong Chinese consumers are more likely to voice their dissatisfaction compared to their male counterparts.

Several researchers have confirmed that negative terms associated with complaining such as nagging and whining are stereotyped as female behaviour (Conway & Vartanian, 2000). In fact, men tend not to complaint, at least not about little things. They have been taught, since they were small, to be tough, to endure, to be stoic, to be unemotional, and to hold it in order to be men. Basically, men have been taught that it is not manly to complaint. Consequently, they have little tolerance for any kind of complaining, especially whining (Oh, 2005). In contrast, female consumers are more inclined to complaint (Keng *et al.*, 1995). Besides, they will tell others if they are dissatisfied with the complaint handling.

Most of the previous researchers found that complainers were young in age, with good education and high income group (Barnes & Kelloway, 1990; Day & Landon, 1977). A few studies on Hong Kong Chinese have demonstrated that younger consumers, who have a higher education background and a higher income level, are more likely to actively engage in vocal public complaint behaviour (Heung & Lam, 2003). Day and Landon (1977) pointed that those who publicly complained were young in age with good education and with high income. Broadbridge and Marshall (1995) found that complainers have been typified as being young with higher than average income and education. In addition, there was a significant relationship between complain behaviour and education and income.

Income obviously affects buying behaviour in terms of the amount, types and prices of products purchased (William, 2002). Also, income is correlated with complaint behaviour. In addition, it is reasonable to assume that consumers with higher incomes purchase more goods, and more big ticket

goods, therefore possibly having more to complain about (Liefeld *et al.*, 1975). Individuals with higher income have greater personal resources which enable them to express dissatisfaction more readily (Tronvoll, 2007). Lower income and lower education group have been identified as having the most problem in unfair deals and deceptions in the market compared to the other consumer groups (Nurzatul Hakimah *et al.*, 2010). Income and education level are among the common used demographic variables examined in CCB. Beardon and Mason (1984) found that there is a positive relationship between CCB, and education and income.

Previous study reported that, complainers were typically younger and had more income. It was found that, consumers with high incomes and better in education more frequently file complaints. People with higher education file complaints more frequently because better educated people know where and how to complaint (Ngai *et al.*, 2006). Khraim (2006) pointed out that, there were significant differences in importance of source of complaint due to gender, level of education, and level of income. Younger consumers are found to be more inclined to complaint while the elder generations seem to avoid complaining in an assertive manner (Warland *et al.*, 1975). In addition, consumers with higher income, who were better educated, had professional jobs and were younger were more likely to complain. Other studies (e.g. Morganosky & Buckley, 1986; Singh & Wilkes, 1996) also found similar relationship between complaint behaviour and age, income, education and occupation. A study carried by Phau and Sari (2004) also demonstrated that complainers in Indonesia consist of those with higher level of income and education.

Education affects customer information processing and decision making (Williams, 2002). University and college educated customers tend to read more, read different magazines, spend less time watching television, rely on well-known brands and put more time and effort into purchase decisions than high school educated customers (Williams, 2002). In CCB studies, the level of education has been treated as a demographic variable (Metehan & Yasemin, 2011). High educational attainment might be associated with a higher propensity or perceived competence to write letters of complaint, a greater likelihood of perceiving injustice and perceiving reasons for complaint, a higher expectation of value, or general attitudinal or value differences between customers with different educational attainment (Liefeld *et al.*, 1975). The majority of studies have found a significant positive correlation between high education and complaint frequency (Tronvoll, 2007). Jacoby and Jaccard (1981) found that consumers with a higher education were more likely to complaint. In addition, Marganosky and Buckley (1986) also found that, education is one of the significant characteristics of complainers.

Attitude

Attitude can be defined as an individual's overall positive or negative evaluation on performing a behaviour and a result of expectancy-value judgments concerning that behaviour (Fishein & Ajzen, 1975). When individual determines whether to perform an act, he or she wants to maximise the rewards to be gained by the act and minimise the costs associated with it. In fact, consumers may weight the costs and benefits gained from the act. Several studies on CCB support the role of attitudes toward complaining as direct positive antecedents of either complaining intention or complaining behaviour (Richins, 1982; Day, 1984; Halstead & Droge, 1991). Attitude toward complaining is defined as the overall affect of goodness or badness of complaining to sellers and not specific to a specific episode of dissatisfaction (Singh & Wilkes, 1996). In addition, because an individual's attitude is seen as an overall effect toward an act, it reflects the overall evaluation of the goodness or badness to perform the act after assessing the outcome of behavioural beliefs. In the previous study, it was found that consumers who have a favourable attitude toward complaining will be more likely to seek redress directly from the company (Blodgett & Granbois, 1992).

In other words, if an individual possesses a positive attitude toward behaviour, he or she may be more likely to engage in such behaviour. On the contrary, if an individual possesses a negative attitude act, he or she may be less likely to undertake that behaviour. In fact, the importance of attitudes in relation to complaining was well documented by Hirschman (1970), whose theoretical framework for understanding complaint and exit behaviour posits that attitude toward complaining along with value of complaint and likelihood of the complaint's success, has significant influence on consumer complaint behaviour.

The attitude toward a certain behaviour would influence the propensity to make such a response and the final decision of whether or not to act. In addition, similarly, a customer's attitude towards complaint making itself will affect the tendency to complain. Such attitudes can be termed the subjective belief in the legitimacy of a dissatisfied customer's obtaining compensation from the company (Richins, 1987). However, some believes that it is sensible to make complaint and tend to hold a more positive attitude toward obtaining compensation through complaining, while other think negatively and hence are less likely to make a complaint directly to a company (Ngai *et al.*, 2006). In fact, several researchers have concluded that, there is a positive relationship between responsiveness and complaining (Keng *et al.*, 1995; Lau & Ng, 2001).

According to Richins (1987), the attitude to complaining maybe conceptualised generally as the extent to which individuals feel that complaints will be resolved by firms, which affects all the purchase and/or consumption experiences of the individual. In general, research claims that the more positive the attitude of the consumer is to complaining, the greater the probability that the customer will respond to dissatisfaction by means of a complaint (Velaques, *et al.*, 2006). Thus, individual who are badly predisposed to complaining will tend to develop other responses to dissatisfaction, such as negative word of mouth communication, or the termination of the exchange relationships (Singh & Wilkes, 1996).

Davidow and Dacin (1997) showed that attitudes were the major reasons of complaint behaviour and thus different consumers will show different responses when they face unsatisfactory situations. In general, consumers who complain are more likely to be self confident, socially responsible (Lau and Ng, 2001), assertive (Bearden & Mason, 1984; Richins, 1982), individualistic and independent (Morganosky & Buckley, 1986), and willing to take risks such as the risk of embarrassment when complaining (Keng *et al.*, 1995). Self-confidence in general, refers to an individual's belief of his or her overall competence (Coopersmith, 1967). In addition, socially responsible people tend to complain as they believe that others will gain benefits from the complaint (Lau & Ng, 2001). Galassi and Galassi (1997) define assertiveness as behaviors emitted by a person in an interpersonal context which express that person's feelings, attitudes, wishes, opinions or rights directly, firmly and honestly while respecting the feelings, attitudes, wishes, opinions and rights of other persons. According to Fornell and Westbrook (1979), consumers who complain are more assertive and able to stand up for their rights. Assertiveness is not like aggressiveness because, assertiveness does not involve the use of violent actions and maintain rights. However, an assertive person may become aggressive if his or her assertive approach in complaining fails to accomplish the purpose of the complaint (Phau & Sari, 2004). This usually happens when the purpose of the complaint is to rebuild self-image and reputation (Richins, 1983).

Customer competence or literacy

Consumer knowledge is a very important factor in consumer behavior research (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987). High and low-knowledged consumers may react differently in a variety of consumer behaviours. For example, in study of consumer complaint behaviour in an automotive industry, customer knowledge refers to the consumers' literacy about the car maintenance and services as well as the ability and competence to complain. It is very important for customers to have the basic knowledge about the car repair, maintenance and services before they lodge any complaints. Only with

knowledge can consumers stand up on their rights as a consumer. Knowledge and skills may be required to use the channels as process successful that is produce effects such as compensation or solving of the problem by the service provider. For example, lack of skills may lead to the customer's inability to argue their reasons for complaining and lack of knowledge may make the customer not know how to complain or be uncertain about the standard of service that might be expected from the service provider (Tronvoll, 2007). According to the article reported by Berita Harian, consumers were reluctant to lodge complaint because they do not know or understand about a particular vehicle's component and due to this problem they had been cheated by some service centres.

In addition, a barrier to complaint might be due to a lack of knowledge about the complaint procedure and/or the service itself, and a lack of skills that might lead to an inability to argue the reasons for complaining. It is important for consumers to know about the procedures that they need to follow when they lodge their complaint to the National Consumer Complaint Centre or Tribunal for Consumer Claims of Malaysia. Besides, consumers also must know what they can claim and what they cannot. Competence or the knowledge base on the complaint matters is an importance resource in carrying out the complaint activities (Hogarth & English, 2002; Kolodinsky & Aleong, 1990). Customer will always use resources and information available to them at the present time in order to express the negative impressions that have emerged (Tronvoll, 2007). Therefore, previous studies reported that, highly educated consumers are more likely to complain when they experience a dissatisfaction episode because they are aware and really know about their rights as consumers. Knowledge or education affects customer information processing and decision-making (William, 2002). High knowledge attainment might be associated with a higher propensity or perceived competence to write letter of complaint, a greater likelihood of perceiving injustice and perceiving reasons for complaint, a higher expectation of value, or general attitudinal or value difference between customers with different knowledge attainment (Liefeld *et al.*, 1975). Besides, consumers with difference level of knowledge will have difference level of awareness as well as their willingness to lodge a complaint. In addition, previous study conducted by Agbonifoh and Edoreh (2007), low level of consumer knowledge or awareness is not surprising in a developing country when the general level of formal education is low, where consumer organizations are almost completely non-existent, where essential commodities are scare and where neither the government nor any other organisation engages themselves in any noticeable form of consumer education and information.

Personality

Consumer's personality traits play an important role in CCB (Donoghue & Klerk, 2006). Many marketing researchers have theorised that personality should be related to the consumer decision process (Brody & Cunningham, 1968). In fact, the concept of personality and its relationship to how consumers' respond has always had intuitive appeal to consumer researchers. Consumers differ in self-confidence and their degree on aggressiveness. In addition, complainers are found to be more assertive and high in self-confidence (Donoghue & Klerk, 2006). Davidow and Dacin (1997) found in their study that personality related variables comprised 48.3% of reasons for complaint responses. Some consumers have a higher propensity to complain than others (Li, 2010).

Personality researchers have suggested that dissatisfied consumers are driven to, or restrained from action by their personality. According to Crie and Ladwein (2002), individual personality is likely to have an impact on how consumers respond. Assertiveness and self-confidence are important influences on complaint behaviour (Richins, 1982). Richins (1983) further concluded that dissatisfied consumers, who lack confidence in the effectiveness of making complaints, are more likely to spread negative word of mouth. Specifically, previous researchers have found that consumers tend to complain more if they are assertive (Fornell & Westbrook, 1979) or are distrustful of others (Bearden, 1983). Companies that have an understanding of how individual's personalities differ can use this understanding to improve their products and services, when customers lodge a complaint regarding their dissatisfaction episode.

According to Keng *et al.* (1995), personality variables are also found to correlate with complaint behaviour. Complaint behaviour is directly related to assertiveness and indirectly to feelings of powerlessness. Previous study also found that, individuals who were more assertive, possessed self-confidence and were self-monitors, were more likely to complain. Bearden and Mason (1984) found that complaint behaviour had a direct relationship with assertiveness. Assertiveness is defined in terms of standing up for one's rights in socially acceptable ways (Richins, 1983). This suggests that assertive complaining would involve a more or less amiable exchange with fair and equitable problem resolution as the goal.

Conclusion

This paper has offered better understanding and useful insights on the factors affecting consumer complaint behaviour. In order to be successful in today's

highly competitive business environment, it is important for the businesses to ensure that customer satisfaction is achieved. Thus, consumer complaints should not be viewed in a negative way. This is because complaints would enable immediate rectification and improvements from the organisation against service failure experienced by the customers. Additionally, companies should look into consumer complaint seriously as complaints can provide them opportunity to enhance customers' satisfaction. This is not surprising as Kelly and Davis (1994) showed the strong relationship between satisfaction with complaint handling and consumer trust and commitment with an organisation. Apparently, if consumers' complaints are handled successfully by the organisation, consumers will repeat their purchase and they might spread a positive word of mouth about the organisation's products and services. Organisation should adopt this approach because the cost of attracting new customers is five to ten times higher than retaining the existing customers (Shea *et al.*, 2004).

However, the study of consumer complaint behaviour is relatively new in Malaysia. Most of the previous studies related with consumer complaint behaviour have been conducted in the USA (e.g. Bearden & Mason, 1984; Day, 1984; Davidow & Dacin, 1997), Canada (e.g. Barnes & Kelloway, 1980), and European countries such as Norway (e.g. Gronhaug & Arndt, 1991). The Netherlands (Morel *et al.*, 1997), Germany (Meffert & Bruhn, 1983) and, with respect to advertising in particular, the UK (Crosier & Erdogan, 2001). Consumer complaint issues in the Asian Countries are inherently deficient and need to be further explored (Kaynak *et al.*, 1992; Keng *et al.*, 1995; Watkins & Liu, 1996). To date, only three researches related to this topic have been conducted in Malaysia. First, the study was conducted by Aizzat *et al.*, (2004) which attempt to distinguish complainer and non-complainer within the Malaysian context, followed by Ndubisi and Ling (2007), which attempts to measure gender differences in consumer complaint behaviour among bank consumers. A very recent study was conducted by Norazah (2010) which attempts to investigate the dissatisfaction attributions and complaining behaviour of public library users.

In facts at glance, most of the previous studies have paid attention to the retailing industry, household appliances and hospitality industry. Therefore, future research on consumer complaint behaviour may examine factors affecting consumer behaviour in different service industry as mentioned previously. Thus, the findings of this review is hoped to stimulate further research on consumer complaint behaviour in Malaysia. In particular, future research should explore the proposed factors affecting consumer complaint behaviour. The proposed factors would be fruitful to future research as it can be used to provide a useful instrument of consumer complaint behaviour in Malaysia. In addition, the study on the factors affecting consumer complaint

behaviour in Malaysia would provide several benefits to the consumers, marketers and policy makers. This study also will enhance the knowledge and theory in consumer complaint behaviour especially among Malaysian consumers.

References

Adreassen, T. W. (2001). From disgust to delight: Do customers hold a grudge? *Journal of Service Research*, 4(1), 39.

Agbonifoh, B.A. & Edoreh, P.E (2007). Consumer awareness and complaining behavior. *European Journal of Marketing*, 20(7), 43-49.

Aizzat Mohd Nasrudin, Osman Mohamed, Ramayah, T., & Piaralal, S.H. (2004). Discriminating complainers and non-complainers: a study within the Malaysian context. *Malaysia Management Journal*, 8(2), 59-76.

Alba, J.W. & Hutchinson, W. (1987). Dimension of consumer expertise. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 13, 411-454.

Barnes, J.G. & Kelloway, K.R. (1990). Consumerists: complaining behavior and attitudes toward social and consumer issues. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 7, 329-334.

Bearden, W.O (1983). Selected determinants of consumer satisfaction and complaint reports. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 20(1), 21-28.

Bearden, W.O. & Mason, B.J. (1984). An investigation of influences on consumer complaint reports. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 11, 490-495.

Boote, J. (1998). Towards a comprehensive taxonomy and model of consumer complaining behavior. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, 11, 140-151.

Blodgett, J. & Granbois, D. (1992). Toward an integrated conceptual model of consumer complaining behavior. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaint Behavior*, 5, 93-103.

Broadbridge, A. & Marshall, J. (1995). Consumer complaint behavior: The case of electrical goods. *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, 23(9), 8-18.

Brody, R. & Cunningham, S. (1968). Personality variables and the consumer decision process. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 5, 50-58.

Chang, C.C. & Chin, Y.C. (2011). Comparing consumer complaint responses to online and offline environment. *Internet Research*, 21(2), 124-137.

Conway, M. & Vartanian, L.R (2000). A status account of gender stereotypes: Beyond communality and agency. *Sex Roles*, 43, 181-199.

Coopersmith, S. (1967). Parental characteristics related to self-esteem. *In the Antecedents of Self-Esteem* (Chap. 6. pp. 96-117). San Francisco: Freeman.

Crie, D. & Ladwein, R. (2002). Complaint letters and commitment theory: An empirical approach in mail order selling. *Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing*, 11(1), 45-55.

Crosier, K. & Erdogan, B.Z. (2001). Advertising complainants: Who and where are they? *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 7(2), 109-120.

Davidow, M. & Dacin, P.A. (1997). Understanding and influencing consumer complaint behavior: improving organizational complaint management. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 24, 450-456.

Day, R. (1980). *Research Perspective on Complaining Behavior. Theoretical Developments in Marketing*. Chicago, IL: American Marketing Association.

Day, R. (1984). Modeling choices among alternative responses to dissatisfaction. *Advances Consumer Research*, 496-499.

Day, R.L. & Ash, S.B. (1979). Consumer response to dissatisfaction with durable products. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 6, 438-444.

Day, R.L. & Landon, E.L. (1977). *Towards a Theory of Consumer Complaint Behavior: Consumer and Industrial Buying Behavior*. North-Holland: New York.

Donoghue, S. & Klerk, H.M.D. (2006). Dissatisfied consumers' complaint behavior concerning product failure of major electrical household appliances: A concept framework. *Journal of Family Ecology and Consumer Sciences*, 34, 42-55.

Emir, O. (2011). Customer complaints and complaint behaviors in Turkish hotel restaurants: an application in Lara and Kundu area of Antalya. *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(11), 4239-4253.

Erevelles, S. & Leavitt, C. (1992). A Comparison of current model of consumer satisfaction or dissatisfaction. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, 5, 104-114.

Fishbein, M. & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, Attitude, Intention and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research*. Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA.

Folkes, V.S. & Kotsos, B. (1986). Buyer and sellers' explanations for product failure: Who done it? *Journal of Marketing*, 50, 74-80

Fornell, C. & Westbrook, R.A. (1979). An exploratory study of assertiveness and consumer complaining behavior. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 6, 105-110.

Galassi, M.D. & Galassi, J.P. (1997). *Assert Yourself – How to Be Your Own Person*. New York : Human Sciences Press.

Gronhaug, K. & Arndt, A. (1991). Consumer dissatisfaction and complaining behavior as feedback: A comparative analysis of public and private delivery systems. *Advance in Consumer Research*, 7, 324-328.

Gruber, T., Szmigin, I., & Voss, R. (2009). Developing a deeper understanding of the attributes of effective customer contact employee in personal complaint-handling encounters. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 23(6), 422-435.

Halstead, D. & Droge, C. (1991). Consumer attitudes toward complaining and the prediction of multiple complaint responses. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 18(1), 210-216.

Heung, V.C.S. & Lam, T. (2003). Customer complaint behavior towards hotel restaurant services. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 15(5), 283-289.

Hirschman, A.O. (1970). *Exit, Voice and Loyalty: Declines in Firms, Organizations and States*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Press.

Hogarth, J.M. & English, M.P. (2002). Consumer complaints and redress: An important mechanism for protecting and empowering consumers. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 26 (3), 217-226.

Hunt, H.K. (1977). *Conceptualization and Measurement of Consumer Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction*. Boston: Marketing Science Institute, Harvard University.

Jacoby, J. & Jaccard, J.J. (1981). The sources meaning, and validity of consumer complaint behavior: A psychological analysis. *Journal of Retailing*, 57, 4-24.

Keng, K.A, Richmond, D. & Han, S. (1995). Determinants of consumer complaint behavior: A study of Singapore consumers. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 8 (2), 101-111.

Kaynak, E., Kucukemiroglu, O. & Odabasi, Y. (1992). Consumer complaint handling in an advanced developing country- an empirical investigation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 11(11), 813.

Kelly, S.W. & Davis, M.A. (1994). Antecedents to customer expectations for service recovery. *Journal Academic for Marketing Science*, 22(1), 52-61.

Khraim, L.H.S. (2006). Jordanian consumers' complaint behavior (CCB). *Studies in Business and Economics*, 12(2), 63-78.

Kolodinsky, J. & Aleong, J. (1990). An integrated model of consumer complaint action applied to services: A pilot study. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction or Dissatisfaction and Consumer Behavior*, 3, 1-70.

Kraptel, R.E. (1985). A consumer complaint strategy model: antecedents and outcomes. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 12, 246-250.

Lau, G.T. & Ng, S. (2001). Individual and situational factors influencing negative word of mouth behavior. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Science*, 18(3), 163-178.

Lewis, R.C. (1983). When guests complain. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 24(2), 23-32.

Li, M. (2010). Exploration of Chinese Consumer Complaint Behavior in the Hospitality Industry. University of Nevada Las Vegas, Professional Paper.

Liefeld, J.P., Edgecombe, F.H.C, & Wolfe, L. (1975). Demographic characteristics of Canadian of consumer complainers. *The Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 9 (73), 88-189.

Liu, R.R. & McClure, P. (2001). Recognizing cross-cultural differences in consumer complaint behavior and intentions: an empirical examination. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 18(1), 54-74.

Mattila, A.S. & Wirtz, J. (2004). Consumer responses to compensation speed of recovery and apology after a service failure. *International Journal of Service Industry Management* 15(2), 150-156.

Marganosky, M.A. & Buckley, H.M. (1986). Complaint behavior analysis by demographics, lifestyle and consumer values. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 14, 223-226.

Meffert, H. & Bruhn, M. (1983). Complaining and satisfaction of consumers. *International Fair in Consumer Satisfaction and Complaining*.

Metehan, T. & Yasemin, Z.A. (2011). Demographic characteristics and complaint behavior: An empirical study concerning Turkish consumer. *International Journal Business and Social Science*, 2(9), 42-48.

Morel, K.P.N., Poiesz, T, & Wilke, H. (1997). Motivation, capacity and opportunity to complaint: Towards a comprehensive model of consumer complaining behavior. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 24, 464-469.

Moyer, M.S. (1984). Characteristics of consumer complainants: implications for marketing and public policy. *Journal of Public Policy and Marketing*, 3, 67-84.

Ndubisi, N.O. & Ling, T.Y. (2007). Evaluating gender differences in the complaint of Malaysian consumer. *Asian Academy of Management Journal*, 12(2), 1-13.

Ngai, E.W.T., Heung, V., C.S, Wong, Y.H. & Chan, F.K.Y. (2006). Consumer Complaint behavior of Asian and Non-Asians about hotel services: An empirical analysis. *European Journal of Marketing*, 41(11), 1375-1391.

Norazah Mohd Suki. (2010). Dissatisfaction attributions and complaining behavior of public library users. *Information Management and Business Review*, 1(1), 28-39.

Nurzatul Hakimah, Sharifah Azizah Haron & Benjamin, C.Y.F. (2010). Unpleasant market experience and consumer complaint behavior. *Asian Social Science*, 6(5), 63-69.

Oh, D. (2005) Complaining intentions and their relationship to complaining behavior of academic library users in South Korea. *Library Management*, 27(3), 16.

- Oliver, R.L. & Swan, J.E. (1989). Equity and disconfirmation perceptions as influences on merchant and product satisfaction. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16(3), 372-383.
- Phau, I. & Sari P.R. (2004). Engaging in complaint behavior: An Indonesian perspective. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, 22(4), 407-426.
- Resnik, A. & Harmon, R. (1983). Consumer complaints and managerial response: a holistic approach. *Journal of Marketing*, 47, 86-97.
- Richins, M.L (1982). An investigation of consumers' attitudes towards complaining. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 9, 502-506.
- Richins, M.L (1983). Negative word of mouth by dissatisfied consumers: a pilot study. *Journal of Marketing*, 47, 68-78.
- Richins, M.L. (1987). A multivariate analysis of response to dissatisfaction. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 15(3), 24-31.
- Ro, H. J. (2007). *A Typology of Consumer Dissatisfaction Responses: Exit, Voice and Loyalty and More*. The Pennsylvania State University.
- Singh, J. & Wilkes, R.E. (1996). When consumer complaint: a path analysis of the key antecedents of consumer complaint response estimates. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 24, 350-365.
- Singh, J. & Howell, R.D. (1985). Consumer Complaining Behavior: A Review and Prospectus. In *Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, K. Hund and R. Day, ed., Indiana University Press.
- Shea, L., Enghagen, L., & Khullar, A. (2004). Internet diffusion of an e-complaint: A content analysis of unsolicited responses. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 17(2/3), 145-165.
- Tronvoll, B. (2007). Complainer characteristics when exist is closed. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 18(1), 25-51
- Velazquez, B.M, Contri G.B, Saura, I.G., & Blasco, M.F (2006). Antecedents to complaint behavior in the context of restaurant goers. *International Review Retail Distribution Consumer Restaurant*, 16(5), 493-517.
- Volkov, M., Debra, H., & Michael, H. (2002). Complaint behavior: A study of the differences between complainants about advertising in Australia and the population at large. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 19(4), 54-69.

Warland, R.H., Hermann, R.O., & Willits, J. (1975). Dissatisfied consumers: Who get upset and who takes action. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 9, 148-163.

Watkins, H.S. & Liu, R. (1996). Collectivism, individualism and in-group membership: Implication for consumer *complaining* behaviors in multicultural contexts. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 8 (3/4), 69-96.

William, T.G. (2002). Social class influences on purchase evaluation criteria. *Journal of Customer Marketing*, 19(3), 249-276.

Withey, M.J. & Cooper, W.H. (1992). What's loyalty? *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 5, 231-240.

Yuksel, A., Killinc, U.K., & Yuksel, F. (2006). Cross-national analysis of hotel customers' attitudes toward complaining and their complaining behavior. *Tourism Management*, 27(1), 11-24.

SUSTAINABLE HOUSING PRACTICES TOWARDS CONSUMERS' WELL BEING

Zuroni Md Jusoh¹, Elistina Abu Bakar¹, Husniyah Abd Rahim¹,
Askiah Jamaluddin¹, Roziah Mohd Rasdi² & Norzalika Md Zaini¹

¹Fakulti Ekologi Manusia

²Fakulti Pengajian Pendidikan
Universiti Putra Malaysia

Introduction

Sustainable development agenda in developing countries focus on relationship between construction and human development, alleviation of poverty and environment. These together with the lack of resources and capacities to improve technologies tend to marginalise the environmental aspects. These impacts are now beginning to be felt by Malaysians therefore, there is an attempt to balance environmental conservation with economic development (Shafii *et al.*, 2007). Sustainable housing is a new concept not only in Malaysia but in most developing countries. Currently, Malaysian housing industries face the challenge of producing an affordable and decent mass housing, especially when consumer satisfaction is a priority. A challenge for the housing industry is how to adopt modern construction technology and management to cater for customisation, without sacrificing the environment.

Recently, the Malaysian government has been focusing more on the housing quality rather than quantity so that residents can enjoy a higher standard of living in line with the nation's progress. Higher standard of living also means higher demand for quality homes. These demands and initiatives have brought changes to the housing industry with improvements from previous setbacks, to make houses more livable and comfortable. The motivation for improving housing quality relates to the overcrowding, insecurity, poor quality, poor ventilation and design, and strained physical infrastructure as well as social services (Shafii & Othman, 2007).

Therefore, under the Ninth Malaysian Plan (RMK9), the government realizes that since the agenda of sustainability focuses on the environmental problems, the government tries to concentrate more on sustainable building. With these realizations, the Malaysian government launched the green building mission on 15 March 2007 with the aim of raising the level of awareness, promoting and consolidating efforts in achieving sustainable

building and construction in Malaysia. According to Shafii and Othman (2007), the development of sustainable building in Malaysia is relatively slow and this might be due to the lack of incentives and regulatory procedures to guide sustainable building constructions. Because of this, it was contributed to a lack of sustainable housing practices in housing development in Malaysia (Abu Hassan *et al.*, 2010). Based on the above scenario, these study aims to look into the relationship between sustainable housing practices towards the consumers' well being.

Literature reviews

Fundamentally, sustainable housing has three main dimensions of sustainability which is social well-being, economic prosperity and environmental protection. By integrating these three dimensions of sustainability, the consumers' as well as occupants' well being can be achieved. Ramsay (2002) defined sustainable housing should meets the needs of present and future generations, promotes efficient use of resources, support the well-being of its occupants, and is accessible to all. Consumers' well being refers to the occupants' quality of life on their health, comfort, safety, financially affordable, socially acceptable and environmental-friendly as well as preserving the environment. For Malaysian context, sustainable housing is all about maintaining a balance between the human need for shelter and infrastructure for higher quality of well-being in one hand, while preserving natural resources and ecosystem, which we and future generation depends on (Nazirah, 2010).

In order to improve the consumers' well being, sustainable housing must be economically or financially viable, socially acceptable, technically feasible and environmentally compatible (Choguill, 2007). In this context, it is how much they are willing to pay for these sustainable housing which generate less damage to the environment, improve their health and their well-being. There is an urgent need to promote a wider notion of sustainability in housing in order to improve the environmental performance as well as creating a greater impact of sustainability upon the lives of the community. At the same time housing must be environmentally friendly and energy-efficient; life-sustaining, safe and healthy. Zuroni *et al.*, (2009) found that to improve the environmental performance, sustainable housing must be focusing on five attributes; energy usage, rainwater harvesting quality, comfortable, greeneries and the house price. Although Malaysia has adopted some of these aforementioned measures, most are still at voluntary stage and needs further enforcements. However, according to Abdul Samad *et al.*, (2008), some of the developed countries such as United States, Canada and United Kingdom had already gone the full cycle. They had adopted the green practices in their

building constructions. However, the results were bad and now they are doing new rectifying measures to adopt better greener practices.

Public policies or strategies in Malaysian housing mainly deal with affordability rather than sustainable inhabitation. The main legislation that governs the housing sector in Malaysia is the Housing Development (Control and Licensing) Regulations 1989 which is under the purview of the Ministry of Housing and Local Government. The statutory provisions have conferred powers to the Ministry to make regulation, determine policy, monitor and supervise the performance of licensed housing developers. Xavier (1998) has given an overview of this legislation including the scope, the purpose and its application in Malaysia.

Meanwhile, Azlinor and Razanah (2008) have examined the existing measures of legal and administrative control related to the building of quality houses. The statutory roles of the local authorities, the Ministry of Housing and Local Government and the Construction Industry Development Board have been discussed to determine the effectiveness of these institutions and the adequacy of legislations in providing protection to consumers. The enforcement of law and policies of other countries, namely United Kingdom and Australia, have always been referred as reference for the construction of quality housing by the ministry. Nevertheless, in Malaysia the government under the Economic Planning Unit (EPU), only reviewed the strategy for low cost housing but not the other types of housing in building quality houses. To date, the sustainable housing concept has yet to be included in the legislations and housing policy. Therefore, this study would like to propose sustainable housing concept in this housing strategy to strengthen the legislations and housing policy for the benefit of consumers and the society. It is hope that in the near future, our Malaysian society would raise their awareness and practices on this sustainable housing.

Research methodology

Typical profiles were conducted to provide respondents' insights on socio-demography, sustainable housing practices, and their well being. Consumers' sustainable housing practices and their well being will be measured by five Likert-like scales.

Self-administered questionnaires had been used to obtain necessary data from 800 respondents among households of terrace houses in urban areas. There are four zones consists of the North, Middle, East and South of Peninsular Malaysia that were selected through multi-stage random sampling. Each zone was targeted to obtain 200 respondents. One state was selected from each zone and simple random sampling was employed from a municipal council

situated in urban areas based on a list of the municipal councils from the government websites. There were two municipal councils selected from the list requiring 100 respondents from each municipal council. Each of the municipal council selected was contacted to get a list of residential areas. Researcher then contacted each of the head or representatives of the residential areas to ask for their cooperation. Trained enumerators were conducted for the data collection. Data collections by enumerators were analyzed descriptively after being transferred into the computer by using SPSS for Windows version 18 programme.

Results and discussions

Characteristic of respondents

Table 1 shows the profiles of the respondents which involved 800 respondents from Selangor, Negeri Sembilan, Pahang and Penang. The respondents' characteristics such as sex, race, education level, marital status and monthly gross income were discussed. Respondents involved consist of 50.1% male and 49.9% female which quite balance. Approximately, 56.5% of the respondents' were Malay, followed by 31.1% Chinese, 11.6% Indian and 0.8% others.

In terms of level of education, a total of 29.5% respondents' completed at high schools education, followed by 29.1% were certificates or diploma holders and 21.2% holds a bachelor degree. Respondents who had no formal education (0.9%) and primary school (2.5%) showed the lowest percentages.

Majority of the respondents (64.4%) were married and 34.8% respondents were still single, while other categories had 0.9% respondents. For household income, majority of the respondents were class interval of RM2000 to RM4000 (69.1%), followed by class interval of RM4001 to RM6000 (18.6%), while the lowest number were class interval of RM8001 to RM10000 income (2.6%).

Table 1: Repondents' Characteristics

Characteristics	n=800	%
Location		
Selangor	205	25.6
Negeri Sembilan	198	24.8
Pahang	197	24.6
Pulau Pinang	200	25.0
Sex		
Male	401	50.1
Female	399	49.9
Race		
Malay/Native	452	56.5
Chinese	249	31.1
Indian	93	11.6
Others	6	0.8
Level of Education		
No formal schooling	7	0.9
Primary school	20	2.5
Lower secondary school	107	13.4
Higher secondary school	236	29.5
Certificate / Diploma	233	29.1
Bachelor	170	21.2
Master/PhD	27	3.4
Marital Status		
Married	515	64.4
Single	278	34.8
Others	7	0.9
Monthly Gross Income		
RM2000-RM4000	553	69.1
RM4001-RM6000	148	18.6
RM6001-RM8000	47	5.9
RM8001-RM10000	20	2.6
>RM10000	31	3.9

Sustainable housing practices

Table 2 shows the descriptive analyses for sustainable housing practices among respondents. A total of 17 statements were asked to the respondents regarding their sustainable housing practices.

Table 2: Sustainable Housing Practices

No.	Items	←—————→						Always		
		Never						Mean	S.D	
		Frequency (n) & Percentage (%)								
1.	I conserve rain water to wash car or water plants.	256 (32%)	136 (17%)	185 (23.1%)	115 (14.4%)	108 (13.5%)	2.60	1.407		
2.	I open window when at home.	29 (3.6%)	45 (5.6%)	127 (15.9%)	195 (24.4%)	404 (50.5%)	4.12	1.096		
3.	I choose not to use air conditioner (air-condition) at home.	110 (13.8%)	104 (13%)	270 (33.8%)	156 (19.5%)	160 (20%)	3.19	1.281		
4.	I plant at least 2 trees around my house.	103 (12.9%)	103 (12.9%)	217 (27.1%)	203 (25.4%)	174 (21.8%)	3.30	1.295		
5.	I use save-energy refrigerator.	82 (10.2%)	87 (10.9%)	264 (33%)	197 (24.6%)	170 (21.2%)	3.36	1.220		
6.	I recycle trash that can be recycled such as old clothes / bottle / newspaper.	59 (7.4%)	94 (11.8%)	192 (24%)	207 (25.9%)	248 (31%)	3.61	1.240		
7.	I switch off the light/ fan when leaving a room.	13 (1.6%)	21 (2.6%)	99 (12.4%)	182 (22.8%)	485 (60.6%)	4.38	0.915		
8.	I collect clothes up to maximum capacity before using a washing machine.	34 (4.2%)	51 (6.4%)	163 (20.4%)	192 (24%)	360 (45%)	3.99	1.137		

Table 2 (Continued)

9.	I turn off the faucet while brushing my teeth.	52 (6.5%)	86 (10.8%)	169 (21.1%)	178 (22.2%)	315 (39.4%)	3.77	1.253
10.	I iron only a few clothes at one time.	102 (12.8%)	127 (15.9%)	290 (36.2%)	137 (17.1%)	144 (18%)	3.12	1.244
11.	I enjoy in the garden during my leisure time.	79 (9.9%)	104 (13%)	252 (31.5%)	201 (25.1%)	164 (20.5%)	3.33	1.219
12.	I choose reading materials that are related to environment.	135 (16.9%)	156 (19.5%)	317 (39.6%)	130 (16.2%)	62 (7.8%)	2.78	1.139
13.	I purchase an environmentally friendly product even its price is more expensive.	118 (14.8%)	170 (21.2%)	324 (40.5%)	140 (17.5%)	48 (6%)	2.79	1.083
14.	When I go for shopping at supermarket, I did not use plastic bag when I buy only a few items.	77 (9.6%)	126 (15.8%)	294 (36.8%)	169 (21.1%)	134 (16.8%)	3.20	1.178
15.	I purchase food labeled 'organic' or 'natural'.	89 (11.1%)	137 (17.1%)	301 (37.6%)	183 (22.9%)	90 (11.2%)	3.06	1.137
16.	I use a compact fluorescent bulb.	98 (12.2%)	120 (15%)	269 (33.6%)	171 (21.4%)	142 (17.8%)	3.17	1.239
17.	I participate in environmental education programs.	183 (22.9%)	162 (20.2%)	275 (34.4%)	105 (13.1%)	75 (9.4%)	2.66	1.228
	Total						3.32	

The highest mean value is a statement about ‘I switch off the light/fan when leaving a room’ by 4.38. This is followed by the statement ‘I open window when at home’ with a mean value of 4.12, ‘I collect clothes up to the maximum capacity before using a washing machine’ and ‘I turn off the faucet while brushing my teeth’ with values of 3.99 and 3.77, respectively. The total mean value for all sustainable housing practices statement reconsideration wills with mean value of 3.32. While the statement ‘I conserve rain water to wash car or water the plants’ with a mean value of 2.60, which is the lowest mean value. These show that the respondents’ practices at home still need to improve because the overall mean value falls at the stage of ‘sometimes’.

Figure 1 shows the overall total score of the respondents to sustainable practices at home. There are three levels of the score which are: not good, average and good. Most of the respondents were at the average level of 75.6% and 21.4% of respondents had a score of good. Only three percent of respondents were categorized as not good in their practices. These show that the levels of sustainable practices among prudent respondents are still at the good level and they still like to adopt these practices in their day life.

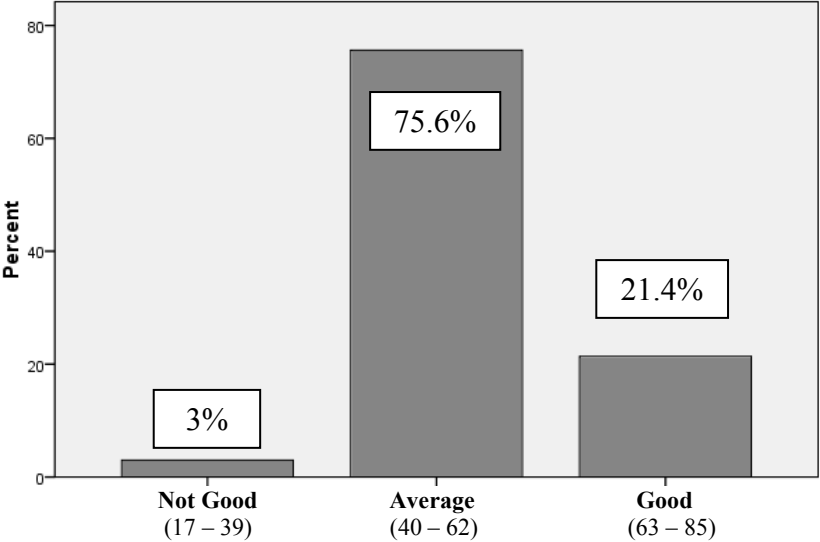


Figure 1: The Score of Sustainable Housing Practices at Home

Table 3: Respondents' Well Being

No.	Items	Strongly Disagree ←					Strongly Agree →	
		Frequency (n) & Percentage (%)					Mean	S.D.
		27 (3.4%)	73 (9.1%)	355 (44.4%)	250 (31.2%)	95 (11.9%)		
1.	Generally, my life is almost perfect.	30 (3.8%)	103 (12.9%)	345 (43.1%)	229 (28.6%)	93 (11.6%)	3.32	0.965
2.	My life situation is excellent.	26 (3.2%)	99 (12.4%)	321 (40.1%)	246 (30.8%)	108 (13.5%)	3.39	0.975
3.	Currently I am satisfied with my life.	50 (6.2%)	147 (18.4%)	326 (40.8%)	201 (25.1%)	76 (9.5%)	3.13	1.024
4.	Until now I have got everything I want.	205 (25.6%)	130 (16.2%)	235 (29.4%)	130 (16.2%)	100 (12.5%)	2.74	1.335
5.	If I could turn back, I would not change anything about my life.							
	Total						3.19	

Note: S.D. is Standard Deviation

Table 3 shows the items relate with the human life well being. There are five (5) statements about the well-being have been asked to the respondents. Statements which have the highest mean value was 'currently I am satisfied with my life and 'generally my life is almost perfect' have the highest mean score with the mean value of 3.39, respectively. This is followed by the statement 'my life situation is excellent' at the value of 3.32, while the statement about 'until now I have got everything I want' at the mean value of 3.13. The statement with the low mean value is 'if I could turn back, I would not change anything about my life', and the mean value was of 2.74. This mean value shows that the respondents want to change their lives if they had been given the chance. Overall mean for all statements was 3.19. This shows that most respondents are satisfied of their well being

Figure 2 shows the overall score for the well being of the respondents were at the average level, 61% and 27.5% of the respondents were at a high level of their well being. Respondents at the low level of well being consisted of 11.5%. This shows the level of well being among respondents were at a good level.

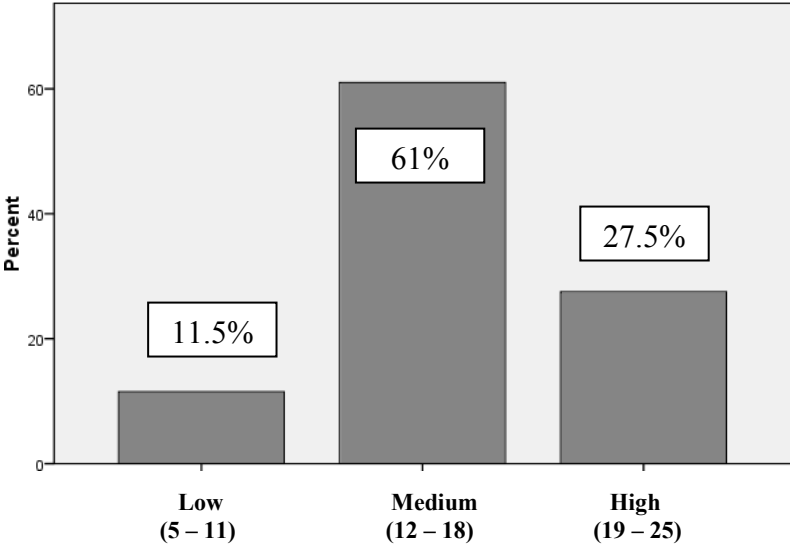


Figure 2: Status of Well Being among Respondents

Conclusion

In conclusion, we can see that our Malaysian society is in line with the sustainable housing practices and their well being status currently are at the

average level. There is a need for continuous campaigns and programmes to promote and to raise awareness especially on sustainable development issues. By increasing the level of awareness, the sustainable housing practices will also increase. Moreover, there is also need for a change of our culture with regard to housing development in Malaysia which places sustainability at the centre stage. To make these sustainable housing practices successful in near future, there is also a need for the government to provide some incentives for energy efficient in homes and other incentives to stimulate the sustainable housing practices, as well as the establishment of government legislation on this matter. Rising of awareness is important among consumers in Malaysia towards sustainable housing practices. Lastly, when the consumers have a good level of sustainable housing practices, these may increase their quality of life and at the same time all Malaysians will increase their well being level.

References

Abdul Samad, M.H., Abdul Rahman, A.M., & Ibrahim, F. (2008). Green performance ratings for Malaysian buildings with particular reference to hotels. *International Conference on Environmental Research and Technology (ICERT 2008)*. Penang, Malaysia, 28-30 May 2008.

Abu Hassan, A. B., Mahyuddin, R., Mazlina J., & Aulina, A. (2010). awareness assessment framework for implementing the sustainable housing in Malaysia. *Asian Journal of Management Research*, 703-713.

Azlinor, S. & Rozanah, A. R. (2008). Quality housing : regulatory and administrative framework in Malaysia, *International Journal of Economics and Management*, 2(1), 141- 156.

Xavier, G. (1998). Law governing housing developers in West Malaysia, *Current Law Journal*, 2, xvii.

Choguill, C. L. (2007). The Search for Policies to Support Sustainable Housing. *Habitat International* 31(2),143-49.

Nazirah, Z. A. (2010). Sustainable Construction practices in Malaysia. In I. Dincer *et al.* (eds). *Global Warming, Green Energy and technology*. LLC: Springer Science and Business Media.

Nine Malaysia Plan (2006). *Nine Malaysia Plan 2006-2010*. Kuala Lumpur: Percetakan Nasional Malaysia.

Ramsay, K. (2002). What is sustainable housing? *CIP Plan Canada*,36, 25-26.

Shafii, F. & Othman, M.Z. (2007). Sustainable buildings in the Malaysian context. *Conference on Sustainable Building South-East Asia (SB07)*. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, 5-7 November 2007.

Zuroni, M. J., Jamal, O., Abdul Hamid, J., & Tamat, S. 2009. Green Home Attributes in Environmental Choice Modelling. *Proceedings of the 5th International Conference on Global Academy of Business and Economic Research (GABERIC): Corporate Strategies and Government Policies: 21st Century Challenges of Global Business and Economic Issues*”, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, 2009.

COMPARISON OF ADOPTION OF ENERGY EFFICIENT HOUSEHOLD APPLIANCES BETWEEN MALAYSIAN AND JAPANESE CONSUMERS

Daisaku Morinaga¹

Aini Mat Said²

¹JICA Senior Volunteer

²Department of Resource Management and Consumer Studies
Faculty of Human Ecology Universiti Putra Malaysia

Introduction

Greenhouse gases (GHGs) particularly Carbon Dioxide (CO₂) has been identified as the main cause of global warming. Fossil fuels provide 82 percent of the world's energy requirement and have been identified as the largest single contributor to increased CO₂ (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change IPCC, 2007). It is predicted that the world's demand for energy will increase by 44 percent from 2006 to year 2030 (Energy Information Administration USA EIA, 2009). Similar demand pattern is observed in Malaysia where the requirement for energy has increased in parallel to the national economic growth.

Although Malaysia is a developing nation, she is ranked 26th largest source of greenhouse gases emitter in the world (United Nation Statistics Division, 2007). This position has placed her within the ranks of industrialised nations such as Japan. The country has been experiencing a steady economic growth for the past decades and growth is predicted to be about 6% per annum between 2011 to 2015 (Tenth Malaysia Plan, 2010). Consequently, energy consumption will increase as there is a direct correlation between energy consumption and economic growth (Aqeel & Butt, 2001). Data indicates that the mean monthly income of Malaysians has increased from RM2, 472 (RM1 = JPY25 as of Sep. 2011) in 1999 to RM4, 025 in 2009 (EPU, 2009). With higher disposable income, they are able to purchase various products that enhance their quality of life. Household appliances that are luxuries of the rich in the past have become necessities of the present generation as they become indispensable to the functioning of the modern households (Ventakesh, 1997). This is reflected in the penetration rate of household appliances among Malaysian households. There is a 100% penetration rate of television and refrigerators among Malaysian households (Aini *et al.*, 2008). Utilisation of air conditioners among Malaysians have substantially increased from 13, 251 units in 1970 to 253, 399 in 1991 and is projected to be about 1, 511, 276 in the year 2020 (Masjuki *et al.*, 2000). The present rate and pattern

of consumption is expected to continue to rise if no intervention strategies are made. This situation will put a strain on the demands for energy which is currently provided mainly by fossil fuel.

In order to address the rising demand for energy and at the same time reducing the carbon footprints, the Government of Malaysia has developed several renewable energy and energy efficiency strategies. Ten strategies for promoting energy efficiency were outlined in the Ninth Malaysia Plan (2006-2010). The Ministry of Energy, Green Technology and Water Malaysia was formed on 9 April 2009 to plan and formulate policies as well as address global issues such as environmental pollution, ozone depletion and global warming. As a signatory to the Kyoto Protocol, Malaysia is committed to reducing carbon dioxide emission and other green house gases. Consequent to the Copenhagen Climate Change Conference, Malaysia has agreed to reduce her carbon emissions up to 40 per cent by the year 2020 compared to the 2005 levels (UNFCC, 2009). The Government of Malaysia reaffirms her commitment to address the issue of climate change by embarking on various strategies in order to reduce her carbon footprint in the Tenth Malaysia Plan (2011-2015). One of the strategies set out in the plan is promoting energy efficiency among all sectors of the society (government, industries and consumers) in order to build an environment that enhances quality of life and preserving the ecosystem.

Literature review

The effects of climate change have to be confronted by undertaking appropriate steps to prepare for and respond to their potential negative consequences to human and environment. However, mitigation strategies are fundamental if we are to reduce, delay and limit the occurrences of climate change. This approach emphasises on reducing the emissions of GHS as they are the main cause of climate change. This realisation has led to many governments in the world particularly the developed countries to implement policies that encourage the adoption of energy efficient in the homes through incentives and regulations (Faiers *et al.*, 2007). Engagement of individuals in a low carbon lifestyle is vital as they consume a significant amount of electricity (Semenza *et al.*, 2008). A review by Faiers *et al.*, (2007) indicates that the rate at which they are being adopted is not making a significant impact on the reduction of carbon emissions needed to meet the current targets through the Kyoto Protocols. Kyoto Protocol is an international treaty among 37 countries that commit themselves to a reduction of four greenhouse gases namely carbon dioxide, methane, nitrous oxide and sulphur hexafluoride. It came into force on 16 February 2005.

Energy saving strategy behaviour can be achieved through technical improvements, alternative products use or shifts in consumption behaviour. Studies have indicated that adoption of technology (for example the use of energy efficient bulb) is a more preferred strategy as compared to behavioral change towards energy saving (such as switching off appliances at the mains) (Poortinga *et al.*, 2002). Therefore, it is important that effective policies and incentives are put in place in order to entice the consumers towards purchasing energy efficient appliances. Presently, these energy efficient appliances are more expensive than their counterparts. As price is one of the main factors influencing consumer purchasing (Aini *et al.*, 2008), the fiscal incentives have to be attractive or the mindsets of the consumers need to be transformed. This is easier said than done as there are numerous internal (individual psychological makeup) and external factors (infrastructures, policies, marketing, culture etc.) that influence one's behaviour (Faiers *et al.*, 2007).

About 15-20% of total energy-related CO₂ emissions are attributed to households and this share is expected to increase in the future (Biesiot & Noorman, 1999). Households are therefore an important target group for energy conservation. Recognising this fact, the Malaysian government is targeting the household/residential sector to promote the adoption of highly energy-efficient appliances and equipment (APEREC, 2010). There are dual prolong strategies developed in order to achieve these objectives: dissemination of information and awareness programme and voluntary energy performance labeling of selected household appliances. Energy efficiency (EE) rating and labeling programme for household appliances in Malaysia was initiated in 2005. Refrigerator was the first appliance to be subjected to the labeling scheme and to date; three more appliances which are domestic electrical fans, air conditioners and televisions are added to the list.

For the local manufacturers, the Malaysian government gives a fiscal for efficient electrical equipment and insulation materials that are produced by them. Those products have to be tested and certified by the Standards & Industrial Research Institute of Malaysia (SIRIM) which will then be endorsed by the Energy Commission on the energy STAR labeling. The energy-efficiency STAR rating varies from 1 STAR which denotes the least efficient to 5 STAR that signifies the most efficient product. For example, energy efficiency of 5-Star rating refrigerators is 25% higher than the efficiency of 3-Star rating ones. A sales tax of 10% exemption incentive is given to high EE locally manufactured refrigerators, air conditioners, televisions and lightings since 2009.

In Japan, the Energy Efficiency and Conservation Division under the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry (METI) is responsible for

promoting EE. There are various EE programmes developed for promotion of development, sale and purchase of EE appliances. In order to enhance competitive development of EE products, the Top Runner programme was introduced in 1999 whereby the highest energy efficiency product sets the standard for the industry and penalties are executed for the non-compliances. Subsequently in 2000, a voluntary Energy Saving Labeling Program was introduced to facilitate retailers in promoting highly energy efficient products to the customers by means of providing information on the products' energy performances. With the enforcement of the Revised Energy Conservation Law in April 2006, it prescribes that retailers shall make the effort to promote energy saving through a uniform energy-saving label that has to be attached to the appliances. Manufacturing and sales of EE appliances are further encouraged through establishment of awards, forums and programmes organised by METI (Kodaka, 2008).

The concern for energy saving measures heightened following the aftermath of the March 2011 earthquake and the subsequent tsunami that forced ten of Japan's nuclear reactors to shut down, resulting in a 20% reduction in total electricity generation capacity. It was reported by Cheong *et al.*, (2012) that the senior executive director of the Japan Energy Association praised the forbearance among the Japanese people in the months following the quake by undertaking energy conservation measures both at the office and homes. However, this is only a short-term solution to a long-term problem. Energy conservation is a long-term solution and involves investments in energy reduction technologies, such as switching lights from incandescent to LEDs.

The question remains as to whether these policies and incentives are successful in stimulating the adoption of energy efficiency appliances among the Malaysian consumers. It was reported that legislation may not be the only driver for improvements as the choice to improve EE performance is dependent on the householder (Faiers *et al.*, 2007). Data have indicated that despite incentives given to households in the United Kingdom on loft insulation, the level of insulation varies significantly with 85% of households having less than half the recommended amount of insulation fitted (Intel, 2005). Promotion of energy efficiency among residential sector in Malaysia was supposed to be carried out between 2006 and 2010 as outlined in the Ninth Malaysia Plan (2006-2010). Accordingly, a study was undertaken to assess the extent of adoption of energy efficient appliances among Malaysian consumers from the view points of retailers. Investigation into the EE regulations and programmes was also carried out. A similar study was conducted in Japan in order to compare the gaps between the developing and developed nation with regards to consumers' adoption of EE household appliances and EE programmes for the public.

Methodology

The study population consisted of the retailers of the electrical stores outlet and the regulators of EE. A survey in Malaysia was conducted among retail electrical stores around the Klang Valley that were located in Kuala Lumpur, Shah Alam, Puchong, Kajang and Bangi. A total of 37 stores were identified using telephone directory and the survey was conducted by visiting these shops directly with no prior appointments made. This approach was taken as our experiences in previous survey among retailers in 2008 found that it was a futile exercise in requesting scheduled time for the survey. The stores comprised of a mixture of chain electrical outlets and independently owned shops. The interview survey period was from January 25 to April 7, 2011. The respondents were the retail managers of the stores. However, due to the time constraint, only four stores located in Tokyo and Ibaraki were surveyed in the month of June 2011. The stores consisted of two chain electrical shops and two independent stores.

The focus of the survey was on four household appliances namely air conditioner, refrigerator, television and lighting. They were selected as these appliances are the top four highly energy consumed household appliances. According to the Agency for Natural Resource and Energy of Japan (2004), energy consumption share was 25.2% for air conditioners, 16.1% for refrigerators, 16.1% for lightings and 9.9% for televisions. Similarly, the Malaysian government had these four appliances embraced in the voluntary national energy star and efficiency rating programme. In addition to these four products, domestic electric fans including ceiling, pedestal, wall and table fans are also included in the national campaign.

There were two sets of questionnaire developed for the study. One set (A) is for survey of the retailers which reflects the supply side while set B is for the EE regulators namely Standards & Industrial Research Institute of Malaysia (SIRIM), Energy Commission of Malaysia (EC) and the Energy Conservation Center Japan (ECCJ). Set A consisted of closed ended questions regarding the sales condition, top selling brands, consumers' purchasing criteria of the four appliances and general awareness of consumers on star rating appliances from the retailers' perspectives. The questions in Set B were developed to examine the accomplishments of the efficiency programmes in Malaysia and Japan. Interview surveys were conducted with the relevant personnel from the Energy Commission (EC, demand side management), testing executive from SIRIM QAS International Sdn. Bhd (SIRIM) of Malaysia and a representative of Energy Conservation Equipment Promotion Division of the Energy Conservation Center Japan

(ECCJ). Data was analysed using Microsoft Office Excel and descriptive statistics were used to describe the findings.

Findings and discussion

The presentation and discussion of the findings will be presented into two separate parts consisting of the survey results of the retailers and the later part with the representatives of the EE regulators (SIRIM, EC and ECCJ).

Survey findings of the retailers

In Malaysia, a total of 22 retailers responded to the survey from a total of 37, yielding a return rate of 60%. The stores consisted of four big chain shops, seven middle chain shops and eleven independent shops. On the other hand, four retailers which were two big chain shops, one middle shop and one small shop responded in Japan.

1. Sales amount of 2010 compared with 2009

The sales amount of the four appliances in 2010 compared with 2009 is as shown in Table 1. All the retailers reported having good sales volume except for 6% of Malaysian retailers reported lower sales of television in 2010 as compared to 2009. The increase in Malaysian demand for these appliances is in tandem with the reported Malaysian GDP growth rate which was +7.2% in 2010.

Table 1: Sales Amount of Appliances in 2010 Compared with 2009

	Air Conditioners		Refrigerators		Televisions		Lightings	
	Malaysia	Japan	Malaysia	Japan	Malaysia	Japan	Malaysia	Japan
Very good	11%	100%	6%	25%	22%	50%	14%	100%
Good	56%	-	72%	75%	61%	25%	57%	-
Same	33%	-	22%	-	11%	25%	29%	-
Bad	-	-	-	-	6%	-	-	-
Very bad	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

2. Best selling brand

Table 2 shows the ranking of the top four best selling brands for the different appliances. There are many foreign brands in Malaysia, though there are only Japanese brands in Japan. In Malaysia, Japanese brands seem to dominate the market for refrigerator and air conditioners. However the Korean brand, Samsung has overtaken Japanese brand in television retail market. From the data, Korean brands particularly LG and Samsung are challenging the Japanese brands which have long been dominating the household appliances market in Malaysia. Unfortunately, none of the Malaysian brand names appear in these appliances. The top two most popular brands in Malaysian lighting market are Philips (Dutch brand) and Osram (German brand) where both of them are international brand names. Malaysian local brand, Achiever is in the third position for domestic lighting market.

Table 2: Ranking of Best Selling Brands for the Appliances

Rank	Air Conditioners		Refrigerators		Televisions		Lightings	
	Malaysia	Japan	Malaysia	Japan	Malaysia	Japan	Malaysia	Japan
1	Panasonic	Daikin	Toshiba	Panasonic	Samsung	Sharp	Philips	Toshiba
2	Hitachi	Panasonic	Hitachi	Sharp	Sharp	Toshiba	Osram	Panasonic
3	Mitsubishi	Sharp	Panasonic	Hitachi	Toshiba	Panasonic	Achiever	Sharp
4	LG	Mitsubishi	Sharp	Mitsubishi	LG	Sony	GE	Hitachi

3. Purchasing criteria of the appliances

Table 3 shows the opinion of the Malaysian respondents regarding their purchasing criteria of the four appliances. There were altogether 11 factors listed that may influence the acquisition of those appliances. Price is the foremost attribute that influence the purchase decision of the consumers with regards to the three major household appliances comprising of television, air conditioner and refrigerator. This is to a certain extent elucidate the increasing market share of the Korean brands in the market as they are generally cheaper than the Japanese or European brand. Their products are also perceived by consumers to be of comparable quality to the other established brands. Thus, inducement for purchasing of energy efficient appliances can be achieved through lowering of the retail price so that they are competitively priced against the other options available.

Table 3: Ranking of Purchasing Criteria for the Appliances for Malaysians

Criteria	Air Conditioners	Refrigerators	Televisions	Lightings
High Energy Efficiency	2	2	3	5
Low Price	1	1	1	3
Product Safety	2	4	3	1
High Reliability	7	7	8	6
Other Performance	6	6	6	4
Salesman's Recommendation	10	9	7	8
Brand Name	4	3	2	1
Supplier's Advertisement	9	10	10	7
Ergonomics	8	8	9	-
Warranty Condition	5	5	3	-
Payment Condition	11	11	11	-

The criterion of high energy efficiency was highly taken into account by the consumers. It was ranked second among the 11 criteria for air conditioners and refrigerators and was in third place for televisions. The concern for energy efficiency for these major appliances is justified as these appliances are the major user of electricity within a household. Brand name and product safety are also considered rather important by the consumers as reflected in their ranking. The data seems to indicate that salesman and advertisements do not exert much influence on the buyers' purchasing options. Likewise, payment method is the least important criterion for the consumers.

There is a slight difference in the ranking of the purchasing criteria for lightings. The price of lightings is much cheaper as compared to the other three appliances. They are also purchased on a regularly basis and are usually replacement for out of order lights. The criterion of high energy efficiency does not seem to be rather an important attribute for the lightings. This may be due to the fact that the consumers have less purchasing options for lightings as there are only three main types of lights namely incandescent, fluorescent and LED in the market. LED light has the highest energy efficiency but it is not popular yet in Malaysia as it is very pricey. We were informed by SIRIM personnel during the survey interview that the government is phasing out incandescent light from the Malaysian market by

2013. As the result, fluorescent light seems to be the only purchasing option for the consumers if they forsake the LED alternative.

Table 4 shows the opinion of the Japanese respondents. The criterion of high energy efficiency was more important for the Japanese as compared to the Malaysian. Japanese consumers are more energy conscious as compared to Malaysian consumers because the nation imports more than 80% of their energy needs (Cheong *et al.*, 2012). There is also a vast difference in the electricity tariff between the two countries whereby electricity tariff in Malaysia is about 70% cheaper than in Japan due to heavy subsidy by the Malaysian Government.

Table 4: Ranking of Purchasing Criteria for the Appliances for the Japanese

Criteria	Air Conditioners	Refrigerators	Televisions	Lightings
High Energy Efficiency	1	1	4	2
Low Price	2	2	1	7
Product Safety	8	6	10	6
High Reliability	7	6	6	8
Other Performance	2	2	2	5
Salesman's Recommendation	4	6	7	1
Brand Name	6	10	3	4
Supplier's Advertisement	10	5	8	3
Ergonomics	5	4	5	-
Warranty Condition	9	9	9	-
Payment Condition	11	11	11	-

4. Consumers' awareness and understanding of 5-Star rating for appliances and LED light

The level of awareness regarding Star rating of the appliances and LED light is as illustrated in Table 5. Based on the perception of the respondents, the data implies that the Malaysian consumers are familiar with the energy efficiency appliances and the rating system. However, the understanding of

the rating system and its implication in terms of energy saving could further be improved (Table 6).

For the Japanese counterparts, we assess their level of energy concern rather than awareness as Japan has put in place the Energy Conservation Law way back in 1979 in order to promote the initiatives on energy conservation to reduce the total energy demand. This is in stark contrast to Malaysia which initiated the energy efficiency rating and labeling programme only in 2005. It is therefore expected that the Japanese consumers have higher level of concern on energy efficiency of appliances as indicated by the data (Table 7).

Table 5: Malaysian Consumers' Awareness of 5-Star Rating and LED light

Awareness	5-Star Rating			LED light
	Air Conditioners	Refrigerators	Televisions	Lightings
Always	32%	32%	23%	-
Sometimes	63%	68%	65%	86%
Seldom	5%	-	12%	14%
Never	-	-	-	-
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table 6: Malaysian Consumers' Understanding of 5 Star Rating and LED Light

Understanding	5-Star Rating			LED light
	Air Conditioners	Refrigerators	Televisions	Lightings
A lot of	11%	16%	6%	43%
Some	42%	58%	47%	43%
A little	42%	26%	47%	14%
Not at all	5%	-	-	-
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table 7: Japanese Consumers' Concern about Energy Efficiency of Appliances

Concern	Air Conditioners	Refrigerators	Televisions	Lightings
Very high	75%	75%	25%	75%
High	25%	25%	75%	25%
Low	-	-	-	-
Very low	-	-	-	-
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

5. Sales trend of 5-Star rating appliances and LED light

From the data in Table 8, it can be concluded that there is a steady rate of diffusion of energy saving household appliances in both Malaysian and Japanese markets. However, the degree of adoption varies slightly across appliances. The data shows that a higher percentage of retailers in Malaysia as compared to the Japanese retailers reported the sale of LED lights and five star air conditioners sold better in 2010 than in 2009. This may be due to the higher level of EE products diffusion amongst Japanese consumers as their energy efficiency programmes started as early as 1997 on household appliances. In addition, the figures are not absolute amount as they are rough estimation and relative to the amount of sales compared between the year 2009 and 2010. The true data on the amount of sale of 5-Star appliances could not be compared between Malaysian and Japan as the national sales statistics are not available either in Malaysia or in Japan. A global market intelligence company, GfK, when contacted informed that the company does not gather this type of data just yet. Inquiries made at SIRIM, Energy Commission and ECCJ proved futile too.

Table 8: Sales Trend of 5-Star Appliances and LED Light in 2010 as Compared to 2009

Sales trend	Air Conditioners		Refrigerators		Televisions		LED Light	
	Malaysia	Japan	Malaysia	Japan	Malaysia	Japan	Malaysia	Japan
Sold better	50%	25%	72%	100%	61%	75%	72%	25%
Same	39%	75%	22%	-	33%	25%	14%	75%
Sold bad	11%	-	6%	-	6%	-	14%	-
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Survey results of the regulators

The main purpose of the interview survey with the representatives of SIRIM and Energy Commission (EC) was to obtain information regarding existing programmes on energy efficiency (EE), testing protocols, approval procedures, and total number of products tested by SIRIM and the amount approved by EC. On the other hand, information regarding energy saving activities in Japan like the top runner programme, energy saving labeling programme and so on was obtained from the representatives of ECCJ.

1. Energy Saving Activities of Household Appliances

According to the information provided by the Energy Commission, there are four existing EE programmes related to household appliances (Table 9). Regarding EE rating system and labeling, it is a voluntary programme and is currently applied for air conditioners, refrigerators, televisions and domestic fans. The manufacturers have to place their application for energy efficiency testing of their products to SIRIM and the testing fees varies depending on the appliance type. For example, the testing fee for one television model is RM1, 200 but it costs RM3, 600 per model for refrigerators. The testing is normally conducted at SIRIM premises but a request can be made for testing to be done at the manufacturers test facilities. A test report will be issued by SIRIM when the performance test is completed. An applicant then proceeds to EC for STAR ratings endorsement which is free of charge. A 10% sales tax exemption is given to 5-Star rated appliances and high efficiency lightings. For electric lamps, energy performance indicator is efficacy which is expressed in Lumens per Watt (L/W). The minimum efficacy performance of electric lamps for qualification of EE incentives varies for different types of lightings. The detail information regarding performance indicator and testing standards used can be obtained at the EC's website.

According to the information provided by Energy Conservation Center Japan, the top runner programme and energy saving labeling programme are the main existing EE programmes related to household appliances (Table 10). The top runner programme is a unique system because it is a mandatory programme, though Malaysian EE programmes are all voluntary. The concept of the top runner programme is that target value is set higher than the best performance value of each product currently on sale in the market. According to the Japanese government, EE performance of appliances has improved significantly more than expected by this programme.

Table 9: Existing EE Programs in Malaysia

EE Programs for household appliances	Contents of the program	Remarks
EE Rating System and Labeling	Applied for Air Conditioners, Refrigerators, TVs and Domestic Fans	Voluntary programme
10% sales tax exemption promotion	Applied for Air Conditioners, Refrigerators, TVs and high efficiency lamps	Locally manufactured products only
Save Rebate Programme	RM200 rebate for 5-star Refrigerators and RM100 rebate for 5-star Air Conditioners	from July 7, 2011 to Dec. 31, 2011
Education	EE topics in secondary school textbooks, EE campaigns in schools and among public jointly organized by SIRIM/EC with NGO	Ongoing

Table 10: Energy Saving Programmes for Household Appliances in Japan

EE Programs for household appliances	Contents of the programme	Remarks
The Top Runner Programme	Applied for Air Conditioners, Refrigerators, Televisions, and Fluorescent Lamps and so on. EE future target is decided by the best quality appliances in the current market.	Mandatory programme
Energy Saving Labeling Programme	Applied for Air Conditioners, Refrigerators, Televisions, and Fluorescent Lamps and so on. A lot of EE information by retail shops is shown in the label attached to the appliances including expected annual electricity bill.	Voluntary programme
Eco-Point Campaign	Payback system of EE appliances purchased. Applied for Air Conditioners, Refrigerators and Televisions.	From May 2009 to March 2011
Energy Conservation Education Programme	Carried out education to 540 primary schools and 90 middle schools which were selected by the government of Japan	From Apr. 2001 to March 2006

2. EE appliances tested by SIRIM

Data in Table 11 shows the distribution of the four appliances tested by SIRIM in 2009 and 2010. The most number of models tested in both years is the television. It seems that television is the most competitive appliance and the rate of entrance of new television models is rather high as compared to the other appliances. Overall, there is an increase in the total number of appliances testing for EE in 2010 as compared to 2009. This data and the above reported sales trend by the retailers indicate that EE consciousness among suppliers, retailers and consumers have been increasing gradually in recent years. It is expected that this trend will continue in the future if appropriate EE legislations and policies are put in place and that the public campaigns are maintained.

Table 11: EE Products Tested by SIRIM

Appliances	Total number of Products tested by SIRIM	
	Year 2009	Year 2010
Air Conditioners	20	31
Refrigerators	20	20
Televisions	176	233
Lamps	3	3

In Japan, there is no testing body like SIRIM in Malaysia. Manufacturers test the EE performance value of appliances by themselves. If the EE performance meets the target value, manufacturers can declare it is a 5-star appliance and so on. It means that there is no approving body in Japan. The mission of ECCJ is only to prepare the infrastructure like the target EE performance value for the star rating, the design of energy saving label and so on, but not to give the approval to manufacturers. Thus, testing and approving system of star rating is very different between Malaysia and Japan.

3. Drivers for enhancing adoption of EE products in Malaysia

According to SIRIM and EC representatives, voluntary EE rating and labeling programme is not a cost-effective approach in enhancing the sales of EE products. This is due to the high cost incurred by the agencies in updating and upgrading the testing and labeling protocols due to the rapid changes in technology. One of the ways to overcome this is to emulate Japanese practices whereby testing and labeling are conducted by the manufacturers

themselves. A mandatory EE rating system and public education on energy conservation would be able to accelerate the adoption of EE products among the consumers. Japanese mandatory top runner programme would be also a good model for Malaysia. In order to speed up the purchasing of EE appliances, the Japanese government established a payback system named eco-point between May 2009 and March 2011. Basically, the consumers obtained eco-points when they purchased EE appliances and these points could be exchanged to other product/service vouchers during the campaign period. The Malaysian government had just introduced a 'Save Rebate' programme in July 7, 2011. It is a similar system to the Japanese Eco-Point cash back system. However, in order to qualify for the rebate, the household's electricity bill must not exceed 400kWh per month. This restriction may not be justified as those with higher electricity bills are the ones that need to reduce their electricity consumption. The programme was proved successful in Japan but it is yet to be seen if the system would be able to lure Malaysian consumers in purchasing EE products.

Capital and running cost are two major factors that influence usage of EE appliance among consumers. As for the Malaysian consumers, price is the main purchasing attribute and therefore EE products need to be competitively priced. Furthermore, low electricity tariff caused the EE projects to have no major impacts to the consumers. Electricity tariff in Malaysia is currently at RM43.60 (JPY1, 090) / 200kWh and this is about 70% cheaper than in Japan due to heavy subsidy by the government. This will make any effort for energy saving unattractive in Malaysia. If the subsidisation bill is reduced and the budget is instead used for various eco-friendly programmes and activities, it might become a driver for adoption of EE products among Malaysian consumers.

Conclusion

Malaysian consumers via the retailers' views have relatively high energy saving concern though it is lower than their Japanese counterparts for household appliances. It seems that the campaigns initiated by the EC on EE targeting both the consumers and manufacturers since 2005 and the EE tax incentive schemes have advanced the adoption of EE appliances among Malaysian consumers. However, the data may not be able to be generalised nationwide particularly to the rural consumers. The present study only focused on retailers in the urban region where there are differences in the level of income, education, etc of consumers which might influence their choices and options of household appliances. Non-governmental organisations particularly consumer organisations in the country have participated alongside SIRIM, EC and manufacturers on EE campaigns among school children and the public. Malaysian public are found to obtain

environmental information mainly through the mass media such as television, radio and newspaper (Nurizan *et al.*, 2004; Aini *et al.*, 2007). As such, mass media in the country could play a more supportive role in raising awareness and educating the public on EE.

In Japan, EE programmes have been initiated way back in the late 1990s and therefore have progressed ahead of Malaysia. One obvious difference in EE programme between the Japanese and the Malaysian is the self regulatory concept adopted by the Japanese manufacturers. The 'Top Runner Program' whereby the product in the market with the highest energy efficiency (the Top Runner), sets the standard and hence triggers competition among the manufacturers. The data from the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry (METI) Japan shows that there are altogether 21 products listed under the top runner programmes (Kodaka, 2008). It covers a wide variety of products comprising of vehicles, computers, home entertainment devices, household appliances and others. According to the EC of Malaysia, washing machine, rice cooker and vacuum cleaner would later be added to the list of STAR rating programme. In terms of energy-saving labeling programmes or star rating, Malaysia also lags behind Japan where labeling is applied to four products and 16 products consecutively. In order to enhance adoption of EE products among consumers in Malaysia, four approaches undertaken by the Japanese Government can be embraced. The Japanese Government introduced appropriate sets of laws, regulations and incentives for each of the entity consisting of the consumers, manufacturers and retailers for EE promotion.

Acknowledgement

We also like to express our sincere gratitude and appreciation to Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM), JICA Office Kuala Lumpur and Ms Nurhidayah Tina Abdullah for their support and assistance.

References

- Aini, M.S., Nurizan, Y., & Fakhrul-Razi, A. (2007). Environmental comprehension and practices of Malaysian youth. *Journal of Environmental Education Research*, 13(1), 17-31.
- Aini, M.S., Ng, L.L., Loh, W.W., Koh, L.K., Low, L.Y., & Ha, M.J. (2008). Adoption of domestic technology products: Intergeneration and gender differentiation. *Journal of Consumer*, 10, 133-149.

Agency for Natural Resources and Energy (2004). Outline of power demand in FY 2004. Retrieved from www.tepco.co.jp/en/corpinfo/overview/pdf-4/46-e.pdf, dated May 6, 2011.

Asia Pacific Energy Research Centre (APEREC). (2010). Compendium of energy efficiency policies of APEC economies. Tokyo: APEREC.

Aqeel, A. & Butt, M.S. (2001). The Relationship between Energy Consumption and Economic Growth in Pakistan. *Asia-Pacific Development Journal*, 8(2), 101-110.

Biesiot, W. & Noorman, K.J. (1999). Energy requirements of household consumption: A case study of the Netherlands. *Ecological Economics*, 28, 367-383.

Cheong, D., Gardner-Page, M., & Hagio, S. (2012). The trials and tribulations of Japan's energy policy. *Knowledge@Wharton*, Jan., 1-5.

Energy Information Administration of U.S. (EIA) (2009). *International Energy Outlook 2010*. Retrieved from <http://www.eia.doe.gov/oiaf/ieo/index.html>, dated on May 4, 2010.

Economic Planning Unit (EPU) (2009). Retrieved from http://www.epu.gov.my/c/document_library/get_file?uuid=e2b128f0-c6fb-4980-8a17-3f708fc3d7a8&groupId=34492, dated May 6, 2010.

Faiers, A., Cook, M., & Neame, C. (2007). Towards a contemporary approach for understanding consumer behavior in the context of domestic energy use. *Energy Policy*, 35, 4381-4390.

IPCC (2007). *Climate change 2007: The physical science basis. Summary for policymakers*. Contribution of Working Group 1 to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, [Solomon, S., D. Qin, M. Manning, Z. Chen, M. Marquis, K.B. Averyt, M. Tignor & H.L. Miller (eds.)] New York: Cambridge University Press.

Kodaka, A. (2008). Japan's top runner program: The race for the top. Energy Efficiency and Conservation Division Agency for natural resources and Energy, Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry.

Masjuki, H.H., Mahlia, T.M., & Choudhury, A. (2000). Potential electricity savings by implementing minimum energy efficiency standards for room air conditioners in Malaysia. *Energy Conservation and Management*, 42(4), 439-450.

Nurizan, Y. Laily, H.P., Norhasmah, S., Aini, M.S., & Naimah, M.S. (2004). Penggunaan lestari: pemahaman konsep asas dan pengetahuan terhadap kesejahteraan persekitaran. *Malaysian Journal of Consumer and Family Economics*, 7, 1-15.

Mintel (2005). *Residential energy efficiency* (Industrial Report) UK August 2004. Retrieved from <http://reports.mintel.com>.

Poortinga, W., Steg, L., Vlek, C., & Wiersma, G. (2002). Household preferences for energy saving measures: a conjoint analysis. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 24, 49-64.

Semenza, J., Hall, D., Wilson, D., Bontempo, B., Sailor, D., & George, L. (2008). Public perception of climate change: Voluntary mitigation and barriers to behavior change. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 35(5).

Tenth Malaysia Plan (2010). *Tenth Malaysia Plan 2011-2015*. Putrajaya: EPU

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). (2009). Copenhagen, Denmark: United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change.

United Nation Statistics Division. (2007). Retrieved from <http://www.unstats.un.org>, dated September 26, 2009.

Ventakesh, A. (1997). New technologies for the home-development of a theoretical model of household adoption and use. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 24, 522-528.

PERMINTAAN TERHADAP ALAT GANTI KERETA TEMPATAN DAN IMPLIKASI TERHADAP PELUANG PERNIAGAAN ALAT GANTI KERETA

Doris Padmini Selvaratnam
Norlaila Abu Bakar
Mastura Nongman
Fakulti Ekonomi dan Pengurusan
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia

Pengenalan

Di Malaysia, industri permotoran kereta adalah satu-satunya industri ekonomi yang berkembang dengan pesat dan cepat. Mengikuti laporan-laporan akhbar, Malaysia mempunyai lebih kurang 10 juta pemilik berdaftar kereta dan motorsikal. Kereta adalah salah satu keperluan harian untuk kita ke tempat belajar, tempat kerja dan lain-lain tempat yang ingin ditujui.

Kereta memerlukan penjagaan harian. Ia ibarat nyawa kedua bagi sesetengah orang. Kereta memerlukan petrol, diservis, dibersihkan, diperbaiki dan diganti mana-mana barang yang sudah rosak dan sudah lusuh dipakai. Untuk kemudahan ini maka kedai menjual alat ganti kereta, bengkel membaiki dan servis kereta, bengkel mencuci kereta dan stesen petrol amat diperlukan di semua daerah, mukim, ibu kota, bandar raya dan bandar di seluruh Malaysia. Tempat-tempat ini semuanya memerlukan lesen, dan tenaga manusia iaitu pengarah, pengurus, pentadbir, juruwang, mekanik, penjual dan lain-lain pekerja yang berkaitan dengan perniagaan tersebut.

Semenjak awal tahun 60-an, Kerajaan Malaysia melalui RIDA dan MARA serta Sekolah Vokasional telah menyediakan program mendidik dan melatih murid-murid, orang Melayu dan bumiputera dalam bidang yang berkaitan dengan kereta dan ramai antara mereka yang telah lulus. Walau bagaimanapun, jika kajian dan pemerhatian dibuat di daerah-daerah, ibu negeri, ibu kota, bandar raya, bandar dan mukim di seluruh Malaysia kita dapati bilangan kedai, syarikat dan bengkel yang berkaitan dengan urus niaga kereta yang dikendalikan dan diuruskan oleh orang Melayu dan bumiputera masih jauh berbeza bilangannya berbanding dengan orang Cina.

Maka, kajian ini bertujuan mengkaji permintaan terhadap alat ganti kereta tempatan dan implikasi terhadap peluang perniagaan alat ganti kereta. Analisis perbandingan antara pemilik bengkel yang dikelola oleh orang Melayu dan bukan Melayu juga dijalankan.

Kajian literatur

Perilaku pengguna

Schiffman (1997), mengemukakan bahawa perusahaan yang benar-benar memahami cara tanggapan pengguna terhadap sifat luaran, harga dan pendekatan iklan yang berbeza memiliki keunggulan yang besar terhadap pesaingnya. Mowen dan Minor (2002) menyebut pemahaman tentang pengguna dan proses penggunaan barang yang akan menghasilkan manfaat yang banyak, antaranya membantu pengguna membuat keputusan, sebagai pengetahuan dasar dalam menganalisis pengguna, membantu membuat peraturan dan membantu pengguna membuat keputusan yang lebih tepat.

Menurut Kotler (1997), sesungguhnya kekuasaan yang tinggi untuk menjaga pengguna (*premacny consumer*) ialah prinsip yang mendasari seluruh bidang pemasaran. Prinsip ini menekankan bahawa pengguna merupakan sasaran pemasaran. Seperti yang diungkapkan oleh Peter Drucker, seperti diperoleh daripada Mowen dan Minor (2002), pemasaran ialah keseluruhan urusan perniagaan yang dilihat dari sudut pandangan hasil akhirnya, iaitu sudut pandangan para pengguna.

Loudon dan Bitta (1994) mendefinisi perilaku pengguna sebagai proses pengambilan keputusan dan aktiviti seseorang secara fizikal yang melibatkan proses menilai, memperoleh dan menggunakan barang dan perkhidmatan. Selanjutnya Winardi yang diperoleh daripada Sumarwan (2002), mengatakan bahawa perilaku pengguna ditunjukkan oleh orang dalam merencana, membeli dan menggunakan barang-barang ekonomi dan perkhidmatan.

Loudon dan Bitta (1994), juga menyatakan bahawa setiap orang selalu berusaha memilih keluaran barangan atau perkhidmatan yang dianggapnya dapat memberikan kepuasan maksimum dalam menilai sesuatu pengeluaran barangan atau perkhidmatan. Sebenarnya, pengguna lebih menekankan nilai daripada sekumpulan sifat yang ditawarkan oleh pengeluaran barangan atau perkhidmatan itu dan bukannya barangan atau perkhidmatan itu sendiri. Nilai bagi setiap sifat tersebut dipanggil utiliti kebergunaan.

Persepsi pengguna didefinisi juga sebagai kajian tentang unit pembelian (*buying units*) dan proses pertukaran yang melibatkan perolehan dan

pembuangan barang, perkhidmatan, pengalaman serta idea. Seorang pengguna tidak dapat mengelak daripada proses pertukaran, iaitu segala sumber ditukar antara kedua-dua belah pihak (Mowen & Minor, 2002). Olson dan Peter (1994) memperkenalkan model perilaku pengguna sebagai asas perilaku pembelian kereta. Beliau mendefinisi perilaku pengguna sebagai interaksi dinamik antara pengaruh dengan kognitif, perilaku dan kejadian di sekitar kita, iaitu manusia yang melakukan aspek pertukaran dalam kehidupan mereka.

Berdasarkan penerangan-penerangan para pakar tersebut, dapat disimpulkan bahawa perilaku pengguna ialah tindakan-tindakan yang dilakukan oleh seseorang, kelompok atau organisasi yang berhubungan dalam mendapatkan dan menggunakan barangan atau perkhidmatan yang dapat dipengaruhi oleh persekitaran.

Kereta

Kajian yang dilakukan oleh Eduardo A. Vasconcellos (1997) menunjukkan terdapat empat pendekatan atau pandangan penting dalam mempengaruhi pembelian sesebuah kereta. Pendekatan pertama ialah antropologi, iaitu pandangan masyarakat secara konvensional, seperti kenderaan sebagai simbol kekuasaan dan kekayaan. Pendekatan kedua pula ialah dari segi politik, iaitu bersesuaian dengan simbol kebebasan dan privasi. Pendekatan ketiga adalah dari sudut psikologi, iaitu idea tentang masa muda, cergas dan tangkas, berdikari dan kegembiraan. Pendekatan yang keempat dan terakhir adalah dari sudut ekonomi, iaitu berkaitan dengan utiliti yang diperoleh terhadap pembelian sesebuah kereta.

Akhirnya, sektor pengiklanan dan pemasaran adalah penting untuk memanipulasi keempat-empat pendekatan ini dalam mempengaruhi pengguna untuk membuat pembelian terhadap kereta. Walau bagaimanapun, kajian ini menekankan bahawa penilaian terhadap kereta di negara sedang membangun tidak boleh disandarkan pada keempat-empat pendekatan tersebut dan kebebasan pengguna adalah untuk memilih sahaja.

Frank C. Wykoff (1973) telah melakukan kajian terhadap pembelian kereta baharu berdasarkan gelagat pengguna dan kajian ini dibahagikan kepada tiga pokok persoalan utama. Pertama, melihat hubungan antara kereta baharu dengan kereta terpakai. Kedua, hubungan antara teori kos pengguna dan implikasinya terhadap respon pengguna kepada harga dan perubahan pendekatan. Ketiga, jangkaan sela waktu yang menunjukkan masa bila mana pengguna memberi respons terhadap perubahan-perubahan parameter yang dikaji.

Pengguna-pengguna kereta baharu dilihat sebagai hebat dan bangga kerana nilai estetika seperti gembira mendapat barangan baharu iaitu kereta sebagai keperluan. Pengguna membeli kereta baharu sekurang-kurangnya kerana tiga sebab daripada alasan berikut. Pertama, pengguna mempunyai nilai estetika seperti perasaan gembira kerana mendapat barangan baharu, sifat-sifat keselamatan, kebanggaan memandu model kereta terbaharu dan sebagainya. Kedua, pengguna membeli kereta baharu adalah untuk mengelakkan masalah penjual kereta yang tidak boleh dipercayai dan ketidakpastian kualiti kereta terpakai tersebut; berlaku kemungkinan meter kereta terpakai telah diset semula dan masalah dengan jaminan yang diberikan. Pembelian kereta baharu dapat mengurangkan risiko ketidakpastian terhadap kereta terpakai. Ketiga, pengguna membeli kereta baharu kerana terdapat perbezaan antara pembeli kereta baharu dengan pembeli kereta terpakai. Pembeli kereta baharu biasanya mereka yang mempunyai pendapatan bulanan yang tinggi dan kos hidup mereka yang rendah berbanding dengan pembeli kereta terpakai.

Koppel, Charlton, Fildes dan Fitzharris (2008) telah mengkaji sejauh mana kepentingan ciri keselamatan kenderaan dalam proses pembelian kenderaan, apakah pengguna meletakkan ciri keselamatan relatif kepada ciri keselesaan yang lain serta persepsi pengguna terhadap keselamatan kenderaan. Responden kajian dipilih di negara Sweden dan Sepanyol untuk melengkapkan soal selidik tentang pembelian kenderaan baharu, seterusnya data yang diperolehi telah dikaji. Kajian menunjukkan responden memberikan faktor keselamatan, iaitu *Euro New Car Assessment Programme* (EuroNCAP). Pangkat yang lebih tinggi daripada faktor kenderaan, iaitu Euro New Car Assessment Programme (EuroNCAP) dan ciri keselamatan kenderaan, seperti Advance Breaking System (ABS) dalam pilihan keutamaan yang tertinggi. Pertimbangan faktor keselamatan mungkin berbeza berdasarkan jantina, tahap pengajian, kenderaan pertama yang dibeli dan jarak memandu tahunan.

Wetzel dan Hoffer (1982) pula menilai persamaan permintaan pengguna terhadap beberapa kategori saiz kereta domestik dan import di pasaran Amerika. Kajian menggunakan *disaggregated model*. Model ini dibina berdasarkan model ekonomi dan teori firma. Pemboleh ubah untuk permintaan ialah harga kereta, harga barang ganti harga kereta pesaing, harga barang penggenap seperti minyak petrol dan pendapatan. Pemboleh ubah penawaran pula ialah harga kereta dan harga input. Keputusan kajian menunjukkan keanjalan harga permintaan untuk setiap pasaran adalah signifikan dan lebih besar daripada satu. Perubahan harga minyak petrol hanya mempengaruhi permintaan bersih dalam pasaran standard dan harga untuk perubahan satu per empat harga sahaja. Bagi kereta kecil, permintaan adalah responsif tinggi kepada saiz pasaran, memberi kesan kepada kepentingan daripada pemboleh ubah demografi. Kesimpulannya, jualan

kereta kecil akan terus berkembang relatif kepada jualan kereta besar seperti mana perubahan dalam demografi.

Alat ganti

Didapati hampir sembilan juta kenderaan di negara ini terdedah kepada kemalangan jalan raya berikutan penggunaan alat ganti kereta tiruan yang semakin berleluasa. Jumlah tersebut yang meliputi 80% daripada kira-kira 11 juta kenderaan di negara ini mungkin kelihatan melampau tetapi inilah hakikat yang terpaksa diterima oleh semua rakyat Malaysia. Apa yang lebih menyedihkan ialah tauke-tauke kedai alat ganti yang tidak bertanggungjawab menipu pengguna supaya membeli alat ganti tiruan yang perniagaannya dianggar bernilai RM1 bilion setahun.

Ahmad Zaki Ariffin, iaitu Presiden Persatuan Pemilik Kenderaan Bermotor Malaysia (MOVA), berpendapat bahawa lebih separuh daripada pemandu kenderaan di negara ini berhadapan dengan risiko kemalangan dan kematian akibat daripada gejala tersebut. Berdasarkan kajian, sebanyak 40% kemalangan jalan raya yang berlaku adalah disebabkan alat ganti yang tidak sempurna termasuk penggunaan alat ganti tiruan.

Menurut Bernama melalui laman sesawang Malaysia Kini, syarikat asing akan diberi lesen pengeluaran untuk memegang ekuiti 100 peratus dalam syarikat yang mengeluarkan kenderaan mewah dengan kapasiti enjin lebih 1,800 cc dan berharga lebih RM150,000, manakala sistem Permit Kelulusan (AP) akan dihapuskan pada tahun 2015 di bawah kajian semula Dasar Automotif Negara (NAP) yang telah diumumkan. Kajian semula yang diumumkan oleh Menteri Perdagangan Antarabangsa dan Industri, Datuk Mustapa Mohamed itu menyatakan duti import kesemua kereta unit siap dipasang sepenuhnya (CBU) dan kereta terurai untuk dipasang (CKD) akan diteruskan. Insentif dan pengecualian akan ditingkatkan untuk membangunkan alat ganti automotif tempatan supaya tiada lagi alat ganti yang diimport dalam tempoh 18 bulan akan datang adalah salah satu langkah yang akan menghapuskan alat ganti yang diimport dan yang telah digunakan.

Mustakim Sihap, Presiden Perusahaan Automotif Bumiputera Negeri Johor (PROTIF), berdasarkan kajian yang dibuat oleh PROTIF pada tahun 2009 mengenai perbelanjaan kereta setahun di Johor, mendapati bahawa pengguna kenderaan di negeri ini membelanjakan kira-kira RM3.1 bilion untuk empat perkara, iaitu RM948 juta untuk servis dan alat ganti, RM1.137 bilion untuk aksesori serta alat ganti, RM948 juta untuk tayar dan rim serta RM94 juta untuk kereta potong. Walaupun industri automotif di Johor telah bermula sejak tahun 1960-an dan negeri ini diakui sebagai tapak permulaan industri

automotif negara, ia dikuasai oleh usahawan bukan bumiputera dan pelabur asing.

Wan Ahmad Zuhri bin Wan Abdul Aziz (2007) telah menjalankan kajian ke atas penggunaan kereta import terhadap 100 orang responden di Bandar Kinrara, Puchong. Hasil kajian beliau mendapati, 32 orang responden bersetuju bahawa alat ganti kereta import mudah diperoleh dan 33 orang responden kurang bersetuju bahawa alat ganti kereta import mudah diperoleh. Selebihnya mengatakan bahawa mereka tidak pasti bahawa alat ganti kereta import mudah diperoleh. Hasil yang diperoleh menunjukkan bahawa, terdapat kelemahan dalam mendapat alat-alat ganti untuk kereta import. Beliau mendapati bahawa responden yang berumur diantara 20 hingga 55 tahun menyatakan mereka bersetuju bahawa kenderaan import menyediakan alat-alat ganti yang mudah didapati oleh pengguna kereta import. Menurut beliau lagi, jenis kenderaan yang dimiliki seseorang sekiranya seseorang memiliki kereta yang mempunyai alat-alat ganti yang mudah didapati, maka mudah bagi mereka menukar dan menggantikannya. Akan tetapi, sekiranya kereta tersebut sukar mendapatkan alat-alat ganti maka permintaan terhadap kereta itu akan menjadi lebih rendah. Wujud hubungan positif antara pemboleh ubah tidak suka kepada kereta yang murah dan pemboleh ubah kemudahan kereta import mendapatkan alat-alat ganti.

Hal ini membuktikan bahawa responden suka kepada kereta import kerana alat-alat ganti yang mudah didapati oleh mereka. Kajian beliau juga menunjukkan bahawa, terdapat hubungan positif antara pemboleh ubah kereta tempatan lebih mudah rosak dengan pemboleh ubah kemudahan kereta import mendapatkan alat-alat ganti. Responden mahu membeli kereta import dan tidak suka kereta tempatan kerana mudah rosak dan mereka mengetahui bahawa kereta import memberi kelebihan kepada mereka dari segi mudah mendapatkan alat-alat ganti berbanding dengan kereta tempatan.

Yap Tee Seng (2008/2009) telah mengkaji persepsi responden terhadap ciri-ciri kereta ekonomi. Keputusan kajian mendapati kereta ekonomi mempunyai nilai semasa dijual, kelengkapan aksesori, kos pemeliharaan yang rendah dan cukai jalan yang rendah iaitu masing-masing mencatatkan keputusan yang hampir sama, iaitu lapan atau sembilan orang daripada 200 orang jumlah responden yang telah dikaji. Bagi ciri kualiti enjin dan jenama kereta, masing-masing mencatatkan bilangan yang sama iaitu 11 orang atau 5.5%. Menurutnyanya lagi, bagi faktor-faktor yang mempengaruhi pemilihan kereta ekonomi, sebanyak 175 orang responden atau 87.5% responden yang bersetuju atau sangat setuju dengan pernyataan memilih kereta ekonomi kerana kapasiti enjin kereta ekonomi menjimatkan minyak petrol. Ia merupakan peratusan tertinggi mungkin disebabkan oleh harga minyak yang semakin mahal selaras dengan hasil kajian bahawa banyak responden yang

bersetuju dengan memilih kereta ekonomi kerana harga petrol mahal semasa mereka membeli kereta ekonomi.

Patriotisme

Kajian lepas mengenai isu patriotism banyak menyentuh aspek sebab pemilihan sesuatu produk. Pengguna cenderung memilih sesuatu produk kerana ianya berkualiti, harga murah dan juga sebab ia dikeluarkan secara domestik. Kebolehpercayaan pengguna terhadap sesuatu produk menjadikan pengguna lebih yakin apabila dia tahu produk tersebut dikeluarkan dalam negara.

Tanggapan pengguna terhadap produk domestik dan antarabangsa telah diketengahkan dalam kajian-kajian pemasaran antarabangsa (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004; Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Kajian Balabanis dan Diamantopoulos (2004) mendapati bahawa orang British cenderung memilih produk domestik bergantung kepada katogeri produk dan juga bergantung kepada negara asal produk pengganti. Shimp dan Sharma (1987) berpendapat bahawa pembelian produk negara asing adalah tidak bersifat patriotik, maka wujudlah peranan *ethnocentrism* pengguna.

Douglas dan Nijssen (2003) menerangkan bahawa *ethnocentrism* tidak dapat bertahan dalam negara yang mempunyai struktur pasaran yang kecil. Malah, kajian terhadap pengguna patriotik oleh Iishi (2010) terhadap pengguna Cina menggunakan kajian lapangan *mall intercept* mendapati bahawa tahap patriotik pengguna Cina adalah berkorelasi positif dengan semangat patriotik dan perasaan *animosity*.

Kajian Gürhan-Canli dan Maheswaran (2000) menunjukkan bahawa pengguna tidak peduli asal produk jika anggota masyarakat mempunyai corak individualistik yang kuat. Malah dalam kes tertentu, didapati jenama dan kualiti merupakan faktor penentu utama dalam menentukan pembelian produk.

Metodologi

Pembentukan soal selidik

Pembentukan soal selidik yang dilakukan adalah berdasarkan dan bergantung kepada faktor-faktor yang telah dikenal pasti dalam kajian lepas. Soal selidik yang dibentuk juga merangkumi tiga bahagian utama, iaitu Bahagian A untuk latar belakang responden, Bahagian B untuk tinjauan bagi isu yang dikaji dan Bahagian C ialah cadangan atau idea suatu kajian tersebut. Asasnya, soal

selidik ditafsirkan sebagai satu set soalan yang dikemukakan kepada responden bagi tujuan memperoleh data kajian, manakala kaedah memungut data yang menggunakan soal selidik adalah sama ada soal selidik pos atau temu bual.

Penganalisaan data

Data yang diperoleh akan dikumpul serta dianalisis melalui penggunaan perisian SPSS, iaitu ia membantu untuk pembentukan model kajian dan membantu mengukur dan menganalisis kerelevanan isu dan kesignifikan pemboleh ubah-pemboleh ubah yang dipilih. Bermula dengan pengeditan data, mengedit data ialah satu proses untuk mengesan dan jika mungkin menghapuskan ralat yang terdapat dalam borang soal selidik. Dua kaedah analisis data yang popular dan kerap digunakan ialah analisis korelasi dan ujian kebergantungan dua pemboleh ubah menerusi ujian khi kuasa dua.

Pemprosesan data

Kajian ini menggunakan kedua-dua jenis data. Sumber utama data, iaitu data primer diperoleh melalui kajian soal selidik dengan menggunakan soal selidik yang disediakan oleh pengkaji. Setelah mengumpul 100 soal selidik yang telah diisi dan dijawab dengan lengkap oleh responden, maklumat-maklumat itu dimasukkan ke dalam komputer untuk dianalisis dengan menggunakan program komputer *Statistics Package For Social Sciences* (SPSS 17.0). SPSS merupakan satu perisian untuk mendapatkan jadual kekerapan dan jadual korelasi bagi menganalisis data (Zaidatun & Mohd Salleh, 2003). Analisis kekerapan statistik diskriptif berfungsi untuk menerangkan data dalam borang soal selidik yang dikumpulkan. Pembinaan jadual profil responden dan ringkasan pemboleh ubah secara umum akan membantu para pembaca memahami struktur data yang telah dikumpulkan.

Skop dan batasan kajian

Fokus utama kajian ini dijalankan adalah untuk mengenal pasti permintaan alat ganti kereta dan implikasi terhadap peluang perniagaan. Untuk itu, satu sampel yang mewakili kelompok responden yang mempunyai pekerjaan tetap serta mempunyai kereta sendiri digunakan dalam kajian ini. Bagi skop dan batasan kawasan kajian, para responden yang dipilih terdiri daripada mereka yang tinggal di sekitar Kampung Serkam dan Bandar Bangi. Kawasan ini dipilih kerana berdasarkan jumlah kepadatan penduduk yang tinggi dan majoriti jumlah sampel yang ingin dikaji terdapat di kawasan ini. Kawasan ini dipilih kerana kepelbagaian budaya, bangsa dan agama yang membolehkan pengkaji dapat memperoleh responden yang lebih luas dan

ramai serta terdiri daripada pelbagai peringkat umur, pekerjaan dan aspek-aspek sampingan yang lain.

Hasil kajian

Bahagian ini akan membincangkan hasil analisis dapatan kajian lapangan.

Demografi responden

Bahagian ini meliputi latar belakang responden kajian. Jadual 1 menunjukkan taburan responden mengikut latar belakang demografi dan sosio ekonomi mereka. Hasil daripada kajian ini, didapati responden bagi jantina lelaki ialah sebanyak 61% manakala bagi jantina perempuan ialah sebanyak 39%. Hal ini kerana golongan lelaki lebih berminat dengan kereta, terutamanya jika ia berkaitan dengan alat ganti kereta. Mereka sangat mementingkan alat ganti bagi sesebuah kereta kerana alat ganti kereta merupakan komponen terpenting di dalam struktur kereta. Bagi kategori status pula, peratusan yang tertinggi ialah responden yang berkahwin, iaitu sebanyak 45% dan peratusan yang terendah ialah balu atau orang yang telah kematian suami atau isteri, iaitu sebanyak 4%. Hal ini kerana kawasan tempat tinggal responden kebanyakan mereka yang telah berumah tangga. Bagi kategori pekerjaan, responden yang bekerja swasta mempunyai peratusan yang tertinggi, iaitu sebanyak 33% dan peratusan yang terendah ialah pelajar, iaitu sebanyak 6%. Peratusan pelajar adalah yang terendah kerana kebanyakan pelajar tidak mempunyai kenderaan milik sendiri dan pendapatan bulanan mereka juga masih di bawah tanggungjawab ibu bapa mereka.

Mengikut kategori umur, responden yang berumur antara 30 tahun hingga 39 tahun mempunyai peratusan paling tinggi, iaitu sebanyak 31%. Hal ini kerana pada kategori umur tersebut, responden telah mula sedar akan kepentingan alat ganti kereta dan mereka mempunyai minat terhadap penggunaannya. Bangsa Melayu merupakan responden yang tertinggi, iaitu sebanyak 54% diikuti oleh bangsa Cina dan India, iaitu masing-masing 31% dan 15%. Kajian juga mendapati sebanyak 31% responden yang berpendapatan antara RM3000 hingga kurang daripada RM4000 sebulan dan ini merupakan peratusan yang tertinggi berbanding dengan kategori pendapatan yang lain. Berkaitan dengan kategori jumlah tanggungan pula, peratus jumlah tanggungan tiga orang dan ke bawah adalah yang tertinggi, iaitu sebanyak 59%.

Jadual 1: Maklumat Demografi Responden (n=100)

Latar Belakang Responden	Peratus (%)
Jantina	
Lelaki	61
Perempuan	39
Status	
Bujang	35
Berkahwin	45
Duda/Janda	16
Balu	4
Pekerjaan	
Pelajar	6
Kerajaan	26
Swasta	33
Kerja Sendiri	27
Pesara	8
Umur	
18-29 tahun	28
30-39 tahun	31
40-49 tahun	28
50-59 tahun	10
60 tahun dan ke atas	3
Bangsa	
Melayu	54
Cina	31
India	15
Lain-lain	0
Pendapatan bulanan	
Kurang daripada RM1000	3
RM1000-< RM2000	8
RM2000-< RM3000	20
RM3000-< RM4000	31
RM4000-< RM5000	29
RM5000-< RM6000	4
Melebihi RM6000	5
Jumlah Tanggungan	
3 orang dan ke bawah	59
4-6 orang	33
7-9 orang	7
10 orang dan ke atas	1
Tempat Tinggal	
Luar Bandar	50
Bandar	50
Jenis Kereta	
Tempatan	50
Import	50

Corak pemilihan alat ganti kereta

Jadual 2: Permintaan Alat Ganti

Jenis Kereta	Jenis alat ganti yang akan diminta jika berlaku kerosakkan					
	Aksesori		Tayar		Enjin	
	Tempatan	Import	Tempatan	Import	Tempatan	Import
Kereta Tempatan	36	14	37	13	32	18
Kereta Import	9	41	2	48	1	49
Total	45	55	39	61	33	67

Sumber: Kajian lapangan, 2010

Jadual 2 menunjukkan corak permintaan alat ganti kereta tempatan dan kereta import apabila terjadi kerosakan alat ganti aksesori, tayar atau enjin kereta.

Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa apabila responden memiliki kereta tempatan maka dia akan cenderung mendapatkan alat ganti tempatan apabila berlaku kerosakan, dan bagi pemilik kereta import juga cenderung mendapatkan alat ganti import apabila berlaku kerosakan. Namun demikian, juga dapat diperhatikan bahawa terdapat lebih ramai pemilik kereta tempatan yang akan mendapatkan alat ganti import apabila berlaku kerosakan berbanding dengan hanya beberapa pemilik kereta import yang meminta alat ganti tempatan apabila berlaku kerosakan. Hal ini mungkin disebabkan harganya yang mahal dan sukar mendapatkannya di kawasan luar bandar.

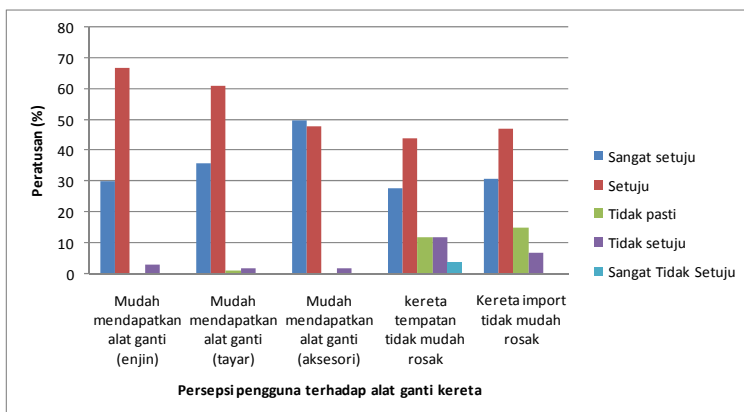
Persepsi responden

Rajah 1 menunjukkan persepsi responden terhadap kemudahan mendapatkan alat ganti dan ketahanan kereta tempatan dan import.

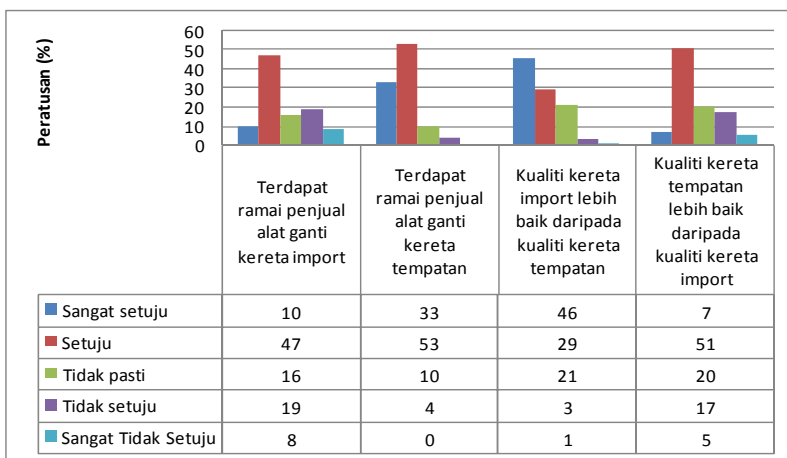
Berdasarkan Rajah 1, didapati bahawa peratusan tertinggi adalah bagi pengguna yang bersetuju bahawa alat ganti enjin mudah didapati, alat ganti tayar mudah didapati, kereta tempatan tidak mudah rosak dan kereta import tidak mudah rosak, iaitu 67%, 61%, 44% dan 47 %, manakala mereka sangat bersetuju bahawa alat ganti aksesori mudah didapati, iaitu peratusan sebanyak 50%.

Rajah 2 pula menunjukkan persepsi responden terhadap kesediaan alat ganti kereta tempatan dan kereta import serta kualiti kedua-dua jenis kereta tersebut. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa pengguna bersetuju bahawa terdapat ramai penjual alat ganti kereta import, terdapat ramai penjual alat ganti kereta tempatan dan kualiti kereta tempatan lebih baik daripada kualiti kereta import, iaitu masing- masing mempunyai peratusan 47%, 53% dan

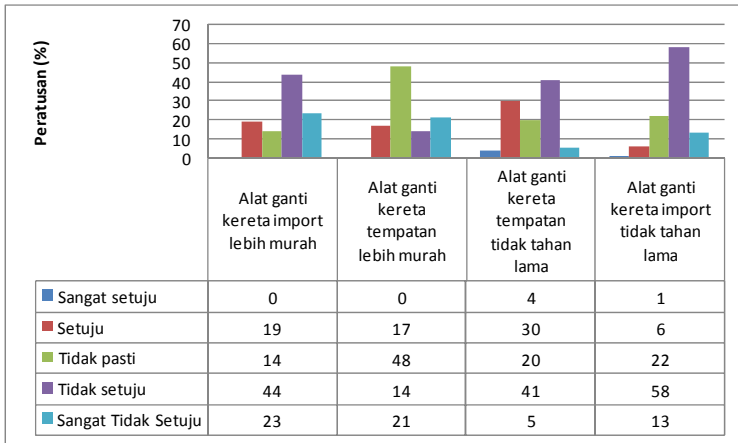
51%, manakala, didapati bahawa pengguna sangat bersetuju bahawa kualiti kereta import lebih baik daripada kualiti kereta tempatan dengan peratusan masing-masing sebanyak 46% dan 51%.



Rajah 1: Peratusan Tingkat Persepsi Pengguna Terhadap Kemudahan Mendapat Alat Ganti Kereta



Rajah 2: Peratusan Tingkat Persepsi Pengguna Terhadap Kesediaan dan Kualiti Alat Ganti Kereta



Rajah 3: Peratusan Tingkat Persepsi Pengguna Terhadap Harga dan Ketahanan Alat Ganti Kereta

Rajah 3 pula menunjukkan harga pasaran alat ganti dan juga ketahanannya. Dapatkan kajian menunjukkan pengguna tidak bersetuju bahawa alat ganti kereta import lebih murah, iaitu mencatatkan peratusan tertinggi iaitu sebanyak 44%, manakala bagi alat ganti kereta tempatan lebih murah, peratusan tertinggi menunjukkan bahawa pengguna tidak pasti akan hal tersebut mungkin kerana terdapat penjual yang menjualnya dengan harga yang murah dan mahal. Selain itu, persepsi yang mempunyai peratusan tertinggi ialah pengguna tidak bersetuju bahawa alat ganti kereta tempatan tidak tahan lama dan alat ganti kereta import tidak tahan lama, iaitu sebanyak 41% dan 58% masing-masing.

Pemilihan tempat mendapatkan perkhidmatan baik pulih kereta

Jadual 3 menunjukkan jadual silang tempat baik pulih kereta dan mengapa memilih tempat baik pulih kereta tersebut berdasarkan jenis kereta apabila terjadi kerosakan pada kereta.

Berdasarkan Jadual 3, dapat dilihat bahawa kebanyakan responden memilih perkhidmatan yang berkualiti sebagai penentu utama pemilihan tempat baik pulih kereta, tidak kira kereta responden ialah kereta tempatan atau kereta import.

Jadual 3: Jadual Silang Tempat Baik Pulih Kereta dengan Mengapa Memilih Tempat Baik Pulih Kereta Tersebut Berdasarkan Jenis Kereta

Jenis Kereta			Mengapa memilih tempat baik pulih kereta tersebut					
			Memihak kepada kaum sendiri	Tempat membaiki kereta yang berdekatan dengan tempat tinggal	Harga yang murah	Perkhidmatan yang berkualiti	Lain-lain	Total
Tempatan	Tempat baik pulih kereta	Bengkel Melayu	1	4	3	6	0	14
		Bengkel Cina	2	4	2	5	0	13
		Bengkel India	1	0	5	0	0	6
		Lain	0	0	0	1	0	1
		Tidak kisah	0	2	6	7	1	16
		Total	4	10	16	19	1	50
Import	Tempat baik pulih kereta	Bengkel Melayu	1	5	3	1		10
		Bengkel Cina	3	4	2	13		22
		Bengkel India	0	0	1	0		1
		Lain	0	0	0	7		7
		Tidak kisah	0	2	0	8		10
		Total	4	11	6	29		50

Perbincangan

Majoriti responden tidak bersetuju bahawa alat ganti kereta tempatan dan alat ganti kereta import tidak tahan lama. Hal ini kerana bagi mereka, ia bergantung pada cara penjagaan alat ganti yang telah mereka gunakan. Bagi mereka yang prihatin terhadap penjagaan alat ganti kereta, mereka akan selalu membawa kereta mereka ke bengkel kereta untuk diperiksa dan diservis mana-mana alat ganti yang perlu diservis. Selain itu, kemungkinan alat ganti kereta yang tidak tahan lama merupakan alat ganti kereta palsu atau

alat ganti kereta terpakai kerana alat ganti yang telah lama dan diubah suai akan lebih tidak tahan lama berbanding dengan alat ganti yang sebenar dan disahkan oleh SIRIM.

Berdasarkan kajian, terdapat beberapa faktor yang mempengaruhi permintaan alat ganti kereta. Antara faktor tersebut ialah jantina, iaitu jantina lelaki lebih banyak yang mengetahui tentang alat ganti kereta berbanding dengan jantina perempuan. Hal ini kerana golongan lelaki lebih berminat terhadap kereta dan penjagaan kereta berbanding dengan golongan perempuan. Tidak dinafikan bahawa terdapat golongan perempuan yang tidak tahu menukar tayar kereta jika berlaku kerosakan pada tayar kereta mereka. Golongan perempuan tidak mengambil berat akan hal yang berkaitan dengan penggunaan alat ganti kereta kerana bagi mereka selagi pandai memandu kereta, ia sudah memadai dan berkaitan dengan alat ganti kereta, mereka lebih suka membiarkan para pembaik pulih kereta yang menguruskan kereta mereka.

Selain itu, faktor status boleh juga diambil kira dalam mempengaruhi permintaan alat ganti kereta. Hal ini kerana golongan bujang dan berkahwin, kedua-duanya mengutamakan penjagaan alat ganti kereta. Kereta penting bagi mereka untuk mereka gunakannya ke tempat kerja, waktu kecemasan dan untuk waktu-waktu penting lain yang mereka lebih memerlukan kereta dan ia akan memberi mereka masalah jika kereta tersebut mengalami masalah pada alat gantinya. Faktor pekerjaan tidak banyak mempengaruhi permintaan terhadap alat ganti kereta kerana walau di mana tempat kita bekerja, alat ganti masih lagi penting dalam penjagaannya kecuali bagi mereka yang telah bersara. Hal ini kerana kebanyakan golongan yang bersara tidak banyak yang menggunakan kereta sebagai kenderaan untuk mereka pergi ke tempat yang dituju.

Golongan berumur antara 18 tahun hingga 29 tahun dan golongan berumur 30 hingga 40 tahun merupakan antara golongan yang paling ramai menggunakan alat ganti kereta dan sangat menitikberatkan penjagaannya. Pada julat umur begini, golongan ini masih berasa bebas untuk melakukan apa sahaja dan sangat suka untuk menukar alat ganti yang mereka perlu selagi ia dapat memuaskan hati mereka. Golongan berumur 50 tahun hingga 59 tahun dan 60 tahun dan ke atas tidak lagi berminat dengan alat ganti kereta kerana merasakan mereka sudah terlalu tua untuk memikirkan tentang perkara tersebut. Jika dilihat faktor dari segi bangsa pula, bangsa Melayu merupakan antara yang meminta alat ganti tertinggi berbanding dengan bangsa lain. Hal ini mungkin terjadi kerana kawasan kajian merupakan majoritinya berbangsa Melayu diikuti bangsa Cina dan bangsa India.

Faktor pendapatan sebulan adalah antara faktor yang mempengaruhi permintaan terhadap alat ganti kereta dan pendapat sebulan antara RM3000 hingga kurang daripada RM4000 dan RM4000 hingga kurang daripada RM5000 merupakan paling ramai yang menggunakan alat ganti kereta. Hal ini kerana pendapatan sebulan pada julat antara RM3000 hingga kurang daripada RM4000 boleh dikatakan antara pendapatan yang tinggi di kawasan luar bandar dan julat antara RM4000 hingga kurang daripada RM5000 boleh dikatakan agak tinggi di kawasan bandar. Bagi mereka, semakin banyak pendapatan sebulan mereka, maka semakin banyak alat ganti kereta yang akan mereka gunakan.

Apabila jumlah tanggungan semakin berkurang, maka semakin banyak alat ganti kereta yang akan ditukar dan diguna. Jumlah tanggungan adalah salah satu faktor yang dapat mempengaruhi alat ganti kereta. Faktor seterusnya ialah tempat tinggal. Kawasan bandar merupakan kawasan yang paling banyak terdapat perniagaan alat ganti kereta. Oleh itu, dapat dirumuskan bahawa mereka yang tinggal di kawasan bandar paling ramai yang menggunakan alat ganti kereta berbanding dengan mereka yang tinggal di kawasan luar bandar. Hal ini kerana perniagaan alat ganti di kawasan bandar yang banyak membolehkan pengguna alat ganti kereta membuat pilihan tempat yang sesuai untuk membaik pulih atau membeli alat ganti kereta mereka. Bagi faktor terakhir, iaitu jenis kereta pula, dapat dirumuskan bahawa para pengguna kereta tempatan akan lebih menggunakan alat ganti kereta tempatan dan pengguna kereta import akan lebih menggunakan alat ganti kereta import. Hal ini kerana ia sesuai dengan jenis kereta yang telah digunakan.

Implikasi kajian

Peningkatan industri automotif bukan sahaja meningkatkan jualan automotif di Malaysia, bahkan ia dapat memberi peluang kepada perniagaan-perniagaan yang berkaitan dengan kereta, terutamanya perniagaan alat ganti kereta. Seperti yang diketahui umum, alat ganti kereta adalah antara yang terpenting di dalam struktur kereta. Hal ini kerana jika rosak sesuatu struktur dalaman kereta terutamanya enjin, maka ia akan memberi masalah kepada pengguna kereta dan jika tidak disedari akan kerosakannya, ia akan menyebabkan masalah yang lebih buruk. Berdasarkan kepada banyaknya industri kereta dan semakin ramai orang yang memiliki kereta sekurang-kurangnya sebuah kereta untuk seorang di Malaysia, maka semakin besar peluang sesebuah perniagaan alat ganti kereta untuk berkembang di Malaysia dan yang akan memberi keuntungan kepada perniagaan tersebut.

Selain itu, keadaan pembangunan Malaysia yang semakin meningkat akan menambahkan lagi peluang perniagaan alat ganti kereta untuk berkembang

sama ada membuka cawangan di dalam mahupun di luar negara. Ia bukan sahaja mendatangkan keuntungan kepada perniagaan alat ganti tersebut, malah ia dapat memberi keuntungan kepada Malaysia hasil daripada kutipan cukai terhadap perniagaan yang terdapat di Malaysia. Lagi pula, permintaan alat ganti kereta ini dapat memberi persaingan secara sihat antara peniaga-peniaga alat ganti kereta dan dapat meningkatkan keuntungan masing-masing, selain mengutamakan keselamatan pengguna alat ganti kereta. Walau bagaimanapun, perniagaan yang menjual alat ganti yang tidak disahkan oleh SIRIM juga dapat meningkatkan perniagaan mereka dan ini akan memberi saingan kepada perniagaan alat ganti kereta yang disahkan oleh SIRIM. Persaingan ini adalah tidak sihat kerana salah satu perniagaan adalah berunsurkan keuntungan semata-mata tanpa memikirkan keselamatan para pengguna alat ganti yang menggunakan alat ganti dari perniagaan yang tiada pengesahan daripada SIRIM.

Pengguna kereta yang semakin meningkat menyebabkan semakin banyak alat ganti kereta yang akan diminta dan semakin banyaklah keuntungan perniagaan alat ganti kereta kerana mendapatkan permintaan daripada pengguna alat ganti kereta, terutama bagi kereta yang bermasalah seperti tayar kereta bocor, bateri enjin kering, cermin kereta pecah, kereta kemalangan dan sebagainya. Dapat disimpulkan di sini bahawa permintaan terhadap alat ganti kereta banyak memberi implikasi yang positif terhadap peluang perniagaan alat ganti kereta kerana ia banyak memberi manfaat kepada mereka yang menjalankan perniagaan alat ganti kereta.

Cadangan

Kajian ini mendapati bahawa perniagaan alat ganti akan terus terus kekal dalam pasaran dan meningkat dari semasa ke semasa. Untuk terus meningkatkan perniagaan alat ganti kereta, beberapa aspek perlu diteliti oleh perniagaan tersebut. Antara aspek yang perlu diteliti adalah tentang kos alat ganti yang dijual sama ada alat ganti kereta tempatan mahupun kereta import, kosnya mesti berpatutan dan sesuai dengan alat ganti tersebut. Selain itu, kualiti alat ganti juga boleh ditingkatkan dengan penambahbaikan pada mana-mana bahagian alat ganti yang kerap mengalami masalah. Di samping itu juga, perniagaan alat ganti kereta ini dicadangkan supaya dapat bekerjasama dengan syarikat luar, terutamanya syarikat antarabangsa supaya dapat mempelajari teknik-teknik dalam mereka cipta alat ganti yang lebih bermutu dan berkualiti. Lagi pula, alat dan komponen untuk mereka cipta alat ganti kereta perlu lebih bermutu dan jangan sesekali menggunakan alat ganti yang telah terpakai. Hal ini kerana ia membahayakan keselamatan pengguna alat ganti kereta. Komponen yang bermutu, di samping teknologi yang tepat akan menjamin mutu keluaran yang baik.

Perniagaan alat ganti kereta juga boleh membuat pelaburan untuk meningkatkan lagi keuntungan perniagaan tersebut di samping memikirkan keluaran yang lebih berkualiti. Selain bekerjasama dengan syarikat luar, perniagaan alat ganti kereta juga boleh mengeksport hasil keluaran alat ganti mereka ke luar negara. Selain dapat meningkatkan keuntungan, ia juga dapat meningkatkan persaingan secara sihat antara negara dan daripada aktiviti mengeksport ini peniaga akan mengetahui kelemahan alat ganti yang telah syarikat mereka keluarkan dan mereka akan berusaha untuk meningkatkan mutu keluaran alat ganti mereka setanding dengan negara luar. Di samping itu, kerajaan juga perlu mengeluarkan dasar berkaitan alat ganti kereta supaya alat ganti kereta lebih terjamin. Akhir sekali, strategi pemasaran dan fokus terhadap perniagaan adalah sangat penting untuk terus kekal dalam pasaran perniagaan alat ganti kereta. Sama ada harga alat ganti semakin mahal atau semakin murah, perniagaan alat ganti kereta akan terus maju selaras dengan permintaan terhadap alat ganti kereta.

Kesimpulan

Menjamin pasaran untuk sesuatu produk yang dikeluarkan pada masa akan datang merupakan satu perkara yang penting. Sama ada sesuatu produk itu dapat bertahan bergantung kepada banyak faktor. Pemilihan sesuatu jenama barangan pada masa akan datang boleh dianggap sebagai satu proses stokastik. Begitu juga dengan perniagaan alat ganti kereta, banyak faktor yang mempengaruhi permintaan terhadap alat ganti kereta sama ada alat ganti kereta tempatan mahupun alat ganti kereta import. Disebalik jenama alat ganti kereta, akan ada perniagaan alat ganti yang tidak mengikut piawaian yang telah ditetapkan oleh SIRIM.

Berdasarkan keputusan-keputusan analisis kajian, dapat dirumuskan bahawa kebanyakan responden yang dipilih secara rawak memiliki kereta import daripada kereta tempatan. Oleh itu, mereka lebih memilih alat ganti kereta import berbanding alat ganti kereta tempatan. Ini kerana, mereka berpendapat bahawa alat ganti kereta import lebih berkualiti berbanding alat ganti kereta tempatan. Walaupun ada responden yang mengatakan bahawa alat ganti kereta import lebih mahal, tetapi itu tidak menjadi masalah kepada pengguna alat ganti kereta import untuk membelinya di kedai-kedai alat ganti kereta import kerana mereka lebih mementingkan keselamatan diri dan keselamatan keluarga mereka. Keselamatan diri dan keluarga mereka lebih bernilai berbanding dengan nilai mata wang. Wang boleh dicari, tetapi nyawa diri dan keluarga tidak boleh diganti. Pemilik kereta tempatan juga ramai yang menggunakan alat ganti import atas faktor kualiti.

Perniagaan alat ganti kereta tempatan dan import mempunyai potensi yang besar dalam pasaran ekonomi Malaysia. Sebaiknya dalam keadaan ekonomi

yang tidak menentu, lebih ramai yang patut menceburi bidang ini, apalagi, penentu utama pemilihan alat ganti adalah kualiti alat ganti beserta mutu perkhidmatan tempat baik pulih kereta. Jika bengkel kereta tempatan dapat menyediakan kualiti alat ganti yang baik dengan harga yang berpatutan, tiada alasan pengguna beralih kepada alat ganti import.

Rujukan

Balabanis, G. & Adamantios, D. (2004). Domestic country bias, country-of-origin effects, and consumer ethnocentrism: a multidimensional unfolding approach. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 32 (1), 80–95.

Douglas, S. P. & Edwin J. N. (2003). On the use of borrowed scales in cross-national research: a cautionary note. *International Marketing Review*, 20 (December), 621–42

Gürhan-Canli, Z. & Durairaj, M. (2000). Cultural variations in country of origin effects. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 37 (August), 309–317.

Ishii, K. (2009). *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 21 (4), 299–308.

Kotler, P. (1997). *Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning, Implementation And Control*. (9th Edition), New Jersey: Pearson Education Inc.

Liu, Jia (Elke) & Smeesters, D. (2010). Have you seen the news today? The effect of death-related media contexts on brand preferences. *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, Apr 2010, 47 (2), 251–262.

Loudon, L. D. & Bitta, D. J. A. (1994). *Consumer Behavior* (4th ed.). New York: McGraw Hill, Inc.

Mowen, J. C. & Minor, M. (2002). *Consumer Behavior* (6th ed.). USA: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Olson, J. C. & Peter, J. P. (1994). *Understanding Consumer Behavior*. Burr Ridge, IL: Richard D. Irwin, Inc.

Perbadanan Usahawan Nasional Berhad. Dimuat turun dari <http://www.punb.com.my/v2/index.php?lang=ms>

Schiffman, (1997). *Consumer Behaviour*, 6th Edition, New Jersey: Simon and Schuster co.

Shimp, T. A. & Subhash, S. (1987). Consumer ethnocentrism: construction and validation of the CETSCALE, *Journal of Marketing Research*, 24 (August), 280–89.

Sumarwan, U. (2003). *Perilaku Konsumen; Teori dan Penerapannya Dalam Pemasaran*. Jakarta: Ghalia Indonesia

Wan Ahmad Zuhri, W.A.Aziz. 2006/2007, *Penggunaan Kereta Import: Kajian Kes di Bandar Kinrara*, Puchong.

Yap Tee Seng, 2008/2009, *Persepsi dan Faktor-Faktor yang Mempengaruhi Pembelian Kereta Ekonomi*.

A REVIEW OF LUXURY CONSUMPTION ON FASHION PRODUCTS

Nur Liana Kori

Aini Mat Said

Department of Resource Management and Consumer Studies

Faculty of Human Ecology

Universiti Putra Malaysia

Introduction

For centuries, people worldwide have satisfied themselves with the possession of beautiful goods. Today, consumers have at their disposal a larger discretionary income than ever before. Income has increased throughout the hierarchy scale, but most dramatically in the highest social classes. Today, consumers are willing to offer considerably higher amounts of money for luxury products (Husic & Cicic, 2009).

Who buys luxury brands? Usually, these are Individuals who are especially concerned about the impression they make on others (Husic & Cicic, 2009). They are more concerned about physical appearance and fashion, and are more likely to use different strategies to gain approval from others. By using status goods as symbols, individuals communicate meaning about themselves to their reference groups. Many consumers purchase luxury goods primarily to satisfy an appetite for symbolic meanings. An important class of symbols involves association with a prestigious group that represents excellence or distinction in an area related to one's self-image (Wicklund & Gollwitzer, 1982).

Cultural values are significant in determining the luxury system of symbols for young American, Asians, and Europeans. Wealth display is important for the American consumer culture as they demonstrate their personal affluence through overall quality of life. The Europeans' purchasing habits display a much lesser Veblen Effect compared to the Americans while the Asians display the Bandwagon Effect. The Eastern culture is based on interpersonal self-concepts and largely depends on the outer self, group decision, norms, family, relatives and friends (Sriviroj, 2007). The West on the other hand has a foundation of personal self-concepts that relates to the inner self and independent decisions. Asians focus on visible possessions like designer labels, expensive cars, or jewellery (Wong & Ahuvia, 1998; Sriviroj, 2007).

Definition of prestige and luxury

Traditionally, luxury goods or status goods have been defined as goods for which the mere use or display of a particular branded product brings prestige to the owner, apart from any functional utility (Grossman & Sharpiro, 1988). Deeter-Schmelz *et al.* (1995) defined prestige preference as an individual's preference for shopping in clothing stores where the combination of patron status, store type and atmosphere, merchandise price, quality, branding, and fashion combine to create a particular prestige level.

This interpretation recognises that the definition of prestige may vary for different people. Hence, the consumption of prestige brands is viewed as a signal of status and wealth, and whose price, expensive by normal standard, enhances the value of such a signal perceived conspicuous value (Vigneron & Johnson, 1999).

Current trend of luxury consumption

In 1991 worldwide study of 14 product categories, Mckinsey & Co. estimated that the luxury goods market in the world was worth approximately USD \$60 billion (Dubois & Duquesne, 1993). During the last few years, the luxury market has sustained constant growth. In spite of the September 11 attacks and other disruptive events to global trade, the luxury world market value has grown from USD\$20 billion in 1985 to USD\$68 billion in 2000 (The Economist, 2002). It is estimated that the total worth of luxury market is at USD\$840 billion in 2004 and reaching USD\$1 trillion in 2010 (Fiske & Silverstein, 2004; Metha, 2006; Luxury Institute, 2007).

The economic factors driving this trend include:

- Increasing disposable income
- Lower unemployment
- Reducing production costs
- Increasing female employment, as well as a
- Growing wealthy class in emerging countries (Silverstein & Fiske, 2003; Fiske & Silverstein, 2004; Yeoman & McMahan-Beattie, 2006).

Parallel social influences on the predisposition to purchase luxuries might be due to the influence to emulate the lifestyle of the affluent (O'Cass & Frost, 2004; Amaldos & Jain, 2005). Other influencing factors include perception that branded products and services are of superior quality (Sukhdial *et al.*, 1995; Vigneron & Johnson, 2004) and hedonistic drive to treat oneself

(Silverstein & Fiske, 2005). In addition, conspicuous consumption itself can be viewed as an engine of economic growth (Peng, 2006).

Traditionally, the market for the luxury brands was considered to be for the ones between the age of 30 and 50 but now younger people are entering the market (Cheong & Phau, 2003). In Malaysia, the population of teenagers under the age ranging from ten to nineteen is more than 5 million and young adults from age twenty to twenty-nine are around 4.5 million (Anonymous, 2008). The combine population of this segment constitutes a quarter of the total Malaysian consumer market.

The need for materialism and appearance is not limited to the wealthy consumers but also covers the less-well off consumers that have a desire for fashion brands. An understanding of consumer attitudes is essential for the marketers to plan their strategy in reaching the target consumers. It is essential for the marketer to understand how consumers think and value a product. There has been a vast increase in the luxury market (Sriviroj, 2007) and attempts are being made to attract the consumer through different marketing strategies. The urban consumers are vulnerable and can easily be attracted by advertising and promotions. They have higher disposable incomes to spend on luxury.

In recent times, 94 per cent of Tokyo women in their twenties own a Louis Vuitton piece, 92 percent own Gucci, 57 percent own Prada, 51 percent own Chanel, and the list goes on (Prasso & Brady, 2003). Handbags had estimated sales of 7 billion in the United States alone in 2007 (Wilson, 2007), with the average American woman purchasing four handbags per year (Thomas, 2007). A new trend among luxury designers is about merging and forming collections. Today, three major groups form the luxury scene in fashion, clothing and accessories. They are shown in Table I.

The wealthiest group includes 691 people from 45 countries around the world with a combined wealth of USD\$2.2 trillion (Luxury Institute, 2005). In 2004, a total of 236,000 Chinese and 61,000 Indians became millionaires (Merrill Lynch & Cap Gemini, 2005). As for luxury consumption, 37 percent of luxury goods are purchased in Asia, 35 percent in Europe, 24 per cent in the USA and 4 percent in the rest of the world (Chadha & Husband, 2006).

In The Best Retail Brands 2009 report, the Interbrand magazine stated that what distinguishes the Asian luxury consumers from their Western counterparts is a different hierarchy of needs. In the West, consumers seek brands that help them feel better about themselves. In Asia, the highest need is status seeking. Hermes, Louis Vuitton and Gucci are extraordinarily

popular in Asia – even if consumers make the purchase for others as often as they do for themselves (Danet *et al.*, 2009).

Table I: The Conglomerates behind Major Luxury Brands

LVMH*	Richemont	Gucci
Louis Vuitton	Cartier	Gucci
Christian Dior	Dunhill	Yves Saint Laurent
Fendi	Mont Blanc	Boucheron
Celine	Van Cleef & Arpels	Bottega Veneta
Loewe	Piaget	Sergio Rossi
Donna Karan	Baume & Mercier	Alexander McQueen
Kenzo	Chloe	Stella McCartney
Marc Jacobs	Vancheron	Balenciaga
Givency	Constantin	

Note: *Louis Vuitton Moët Hennessey
 Source: Company websites, selected list only

Malaysian society is in some ways class-less and it is only wealth and ethnicity that defines people in social hierarchies. This interesting feature creates a strange contradiction in the approach to luxury brands. Luxury is not reserved for the discerning elite.

The slowing economic trend has clouded the outlook for the business sector, not just in Malaysia but in the region as well. A nine-country survey by market research firm, Synovate in August 2008 involving about 6,500 people shows that some 58 percent of the Malaysian respondents have cut their spending in the last six month. The first three items that Malaysians said they will give up are leisure travel, branded items and eating out with their family.

The data compiled by the Department of Statistic in 2008 shows that during the same period, some 81 percent of the Malaysian respondents had been spending less on luxuries. 52 percent of the Malaysian respondents said that they had indulged in less impulse buying, while 59 percent of them spent more time comparing prices than previously. But not all consumers went that way. Affluent Malaysian had also spent 12 percent more on luxury goods at mid-2008, compared to a year earlier (Seng, 2008).

The travel and tourism industry, in contrast, demonstrated a steady growth of 5.4% in the first half of 2005 and it continued to be recognised as a major contributor for economic growth (Ishak, 2008). According to Tourism Minister, Datuk Seri Ng Yen Yen, Malaysia is carving a niche as the destination for luxury goods shopping (Samy, 2010). In her speech she said

that the retailers had much to look forward to as Malaysia would be a duty-free haven for most luxurious goods, including watches and jewellery. In 2009, Malaysia received RM10 billion from shopping tourism and targeted to have 36 million tourist and RM168 billion in tourist receipt by 2020, and 35 percent of it are expected to be from shopping receipts. The duty-free shopping was part of the steps being taken to create a conducive environment for such shoppers. Hence, the 6 kilometre walkway to be built in the Bukit Bintang will help to encourage shopping and boost sales. The duty-free shopping would create a snowball effect on luxury retail and the tourism industry overall (Samy, 2010).

In the 2011 Budget speech, YAB Dato' Sri Mohd Najib Tun Abdul Razak stated that in order to boost the local tourism industry and to make Malaysia a shopping haven for branded goods at competitive prices, the government proposes to abolish import duty range from 5 percent to 30 percent on about 300 goods favoured by tourist and local, with immediate effect from October 15, 2010. Hence, these positive environments will hopefully be able to generate income to Malaysia and will lead to the growth of revenue. The luxury retail market will be expected to expand as the investors show their interest in Malaysia.

Theory of luxury consumption

There are various conspicuous theories such as: Theory of the Leisure Class by Thorstein Veblen (1899), Symbolic Self-Completion Theory proposed by Wicklund and Gollwitzer (1982); Social Adaptation Theory by Kahle (1983); Theory of Cultural Change by Bourdieu (1984); Self-Concept Theory by Belk (1988) and Self-Determination Theory (STD) by Ryan and Deci (2000) being used by researchers in the study of luxury consumption. However, most of the studies have utilised the Theory of the Leisure Class by Thorstein Veblen (Phau & Leng, 2008; Husic & Cicic, 2009; Han *et al.*, 2010; Truong *et al.*, 2010). This is due to the strong explanation on the proposition that the rich tend to consume highly conspicuous goods in order to display their wealth and gain social status (Truong *et al.*, 2010).

In his treatise on the 'Leisure Class', Thorstein Veblen (1899) argued that wealthy individuals often consume highly conspicuous goods and services in order to advertise their wealth, thereby hoping to achieve greater social status. This sort of consumption derives its value, not from the intrinsic worth of what is consumed but from the fact that it permits people to attempt to set themselves apart from others by their consumption. He identified two motives for conspicuous consumption (Bagwell & Bernheim, 1996):

- Invidious Comparison-refers to situations in which rich agents consume conspicuously in order to be distinguished from poor agents, whereas;
- Pecuniary Emulation- refers to situations in which the poor agents consume conspicuously in order to be identified as being rich (Bagwell & Bernheim, 1996).

The desire of agents, both rich and poor, to acquire status through consumption creates an incentive for manufacturers to engage in innovative activities, and this leads to productivity growth. Thorstein Veblen (1899) also argued that people seek status through conspicuous consumption. This sort of consumption derives its value, not from the intrinsic worth of what is consumed but from the fact that it permits people to attempt to set themselves apart from others by their consumption.

As examples, Veblen notes that the leisure class used silverware, hand-painted China, and high-priced table linens at meals when less expensive substitutes could work as well or better. Members of this class bought fine silverware not to convey food into their mouths but to display that they could afford such things. Veblen notes that the examples he put forth, including manicured lawns, the latest fashion, and exotic dog breeds, confer prestige to owner because of the items' lofty price tags (Han *et al.*, 2010).

Models

Phau and Prendergast (2001) assume that luxury brands “evoke exclusivity, have a well known brand identity, enjoy high brand awareness and perceived quality, and retain sales levels and customer loyalty”. Similarly, Beverland (2004) created a luxury brand model in Figure 1 with the following dimensions:

- Product integrity;
- Value-driven emergence;
- Culture;
- History;
- Marketing; and
- Endorsement.

Moore and Birtwistle (2005) are critical towards this model, and assert that other details need to be incorporated in order to build a modern luxury brand. Currently, study of the luxury market is taking a new direction. Because of the unprecedented demand coming from Asian countries, recent research

focuses on the cross cultural comparison of attitudes toward the luxury concept (Dubois & Laurent, 1996; Dubois & Paternault, 1997).

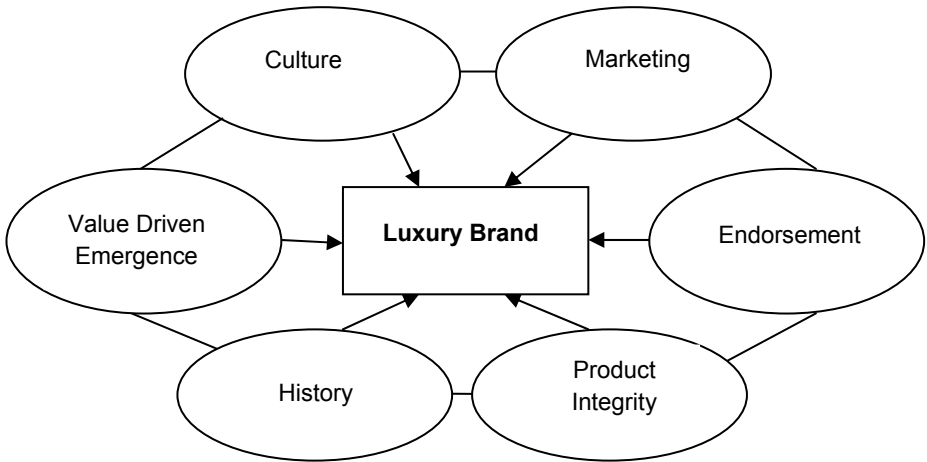


Figure 1: Luxury Brand Model

Source: Beverland (2004)

In Figure 2, Vigneron and Johnson (1999) defined five values of prestige behaviour combined with five relevant motivations, and from these identified five different categories of prestige consumers. According to Vigneron and Johnson's (1999) categorisation of luxury products, hedonists and perfectionists are more interested in pleasure derived from the use of luxury products, and less interested in the price than quality, product characteristics and performance. In addition, these consumers know what they want and use their own judgment, while price exists only as proof of quality. The Veblen, snob and bandwagon effects are evident with consumers who perceive price as the most important factor, with a higher price indicating greater prestige. They usually buy rare products and in this way, highlight their status. Vigneron and Johnson (1999) explain luxury consumption according to the effects detailed below:

- The Veblen effect – perceived conspicuous consumption. Veblenian consumers attach greater importance to price as an indicator of prestige, because their primary objective is to impress others.

- The snob effect – perceived unique value. Snob consumers perceive price as an indicator of exclusivity, and avoid using popular brands to experiment with inner-directed consumption.
- The bandwagon effect – perceived social value. Relative to snob consumers, bandwagon consumers attach less importance to price as an indicator of prestige, but will place greater emphasis on the effect they make on others while consuming prestige brands.
- The hedonic effect – perceived emotional value. Hedonist consumers are more interested in their own thoughts and feelings, and thus will place less emphasis on price as an indicator of prestige.
- The perfectionism effect – perceived quality value. Perfectionist consumers rely in their perception of the product’s quality, may use price as further evidence of quality.

Private

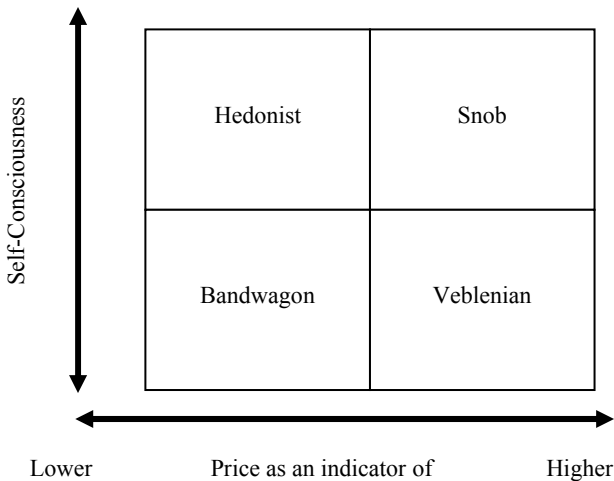


Figure 2: Prestige-Seeking Consumer Behaviors

Source: Vigneron and Johnson (1999)

Factors affecting luxury consumption

Conceptual framework of factors affecting luxury consumption on fashion products.

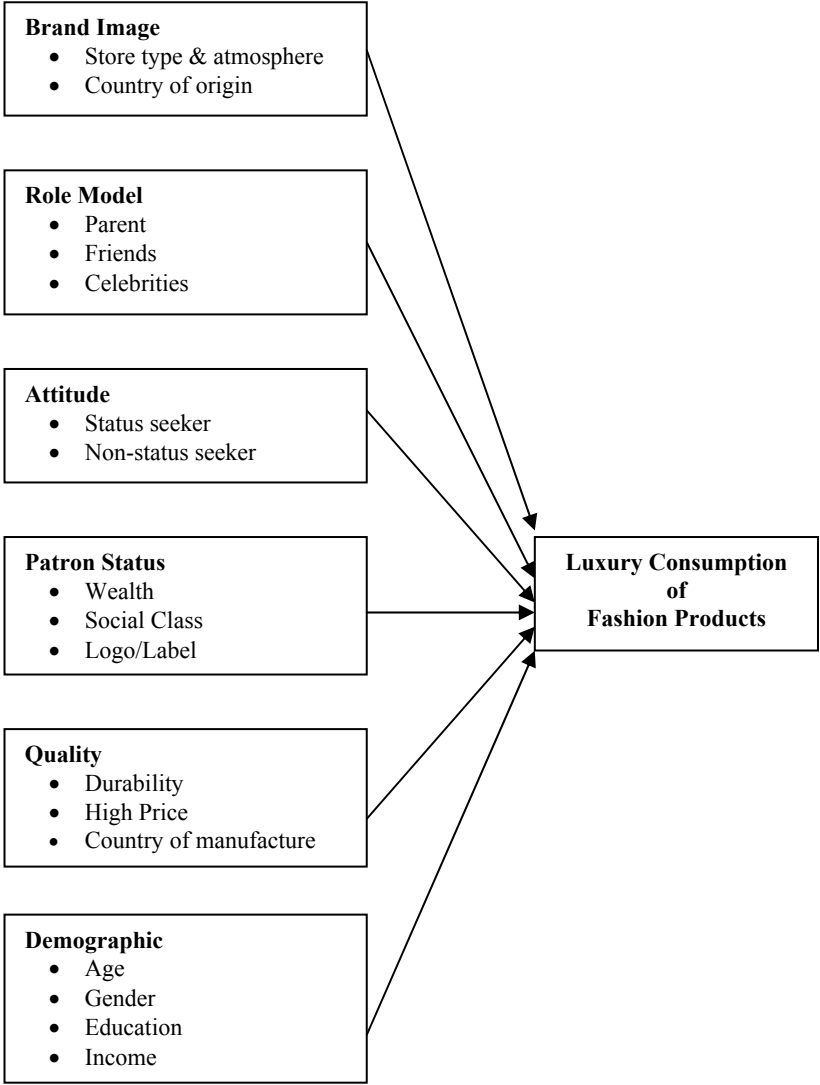


Figure 3: Luxury Consumption on Fashion Products

Brand image

Brand choice can send meaningful social signals to other consumers about the type of person using that brand (Wernerfelt, 1990). The symbolic meaning consumers derive from a particular brand is often based on associations between the brand and its users or the type of consumer who buys that brand (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001).

When a person endorses a specific brand, that person is communicating a desire to be associated with the kind of people he perceives to consume that brand. Consumers with preference for high prestige should favour brands that reinforce their own actual or desired prestigious self-image, and communicate this self-image to other individuals seen as sharing this image (Deeter-Schmelz *et al.*, 2000).

O'cass and Frost (2002) indicated that consumers may recognise the brand name and image associated with a status brand. Grace and O'cass (2002) determined that a status products possesses good quality and a favourable brand name. Thus, country of origin image or association impacts on consumers' perceptions or beliefs toward particular brands (Mohamad *et al.*, 2000). Country of origin has been considered as extrinsic cues of a product, and there has been a large amount of evidence supporting their significant effects on consumers' product evaluation (Gurhan-Canli & Maheswaran, 2000; Kaynak & Kara, 2002; O'cass & Lim, 2002).

Previous research supports the importance of store type and atmosphere. Dawson (1988) identified a prestige hierarchy of retail clothing outlets and he defined that store prestige is the degree to which a store exhibits a prestigious image with respect to such aspects as the store atmosphere and the quality and fashionableness of the merchandise and service.

Role model

Role models are regarded as a potential group of people that are able to leave an impact on the consumption intentions and behaviours of individuals (Bush & Martin, 2000). Role models can range from direct models such as parents, peers, relatives and to vicarious role models such as celebrities (Bandura, 1986; Bush & Martin, 2000). As a marketer, it would therefore be important to note whether parents or celebrities play an important role in influencing consumers purchase behaviour (Run *et al.*, 2010).

There are increasing number of working class parents, which naturally resulted into less supervision of younger generation. Electronic media in

Malaysia has also developed and matured with the introduction of private TV channels and satellite television, as compared to the past where Malaysian could only enjoy state run television network. Internet is becoming the favourite pass time and prime mode of communication with friends for educated consumers. Many famous and upbeat brand flooded media with TV advertisements showing celebrities endorsing their brands (Anonymous, 2007).

These changes can affect the traditional influence of parents as role model for their children. Apart from moral or ethical implication of this possible shift, these changes could bring profound effects on the consumption behaviour of Malaysian consumers (Run *et al.*, 2010). A diminishing role of parents and migration to urban area can possibly increase the influence of friends and celebrities on the purchasing intention and behaviour of Malaysian consumers.

Attitude

Conspicuous consumption involves the public consumption of luxury products that signal wealth, status and power (Bagwell & Bernheim, 1996; Eastman *et al.*, 1999; Vigneron & Johnson, 1999 O'cass & Frost, 2002). Consumption of status or symbolic products also assist in enhancing social recognition and self-concept (Eastman *et al.*, 1999; Deeter-Schmelz *et al.*, 2000; O'Cass & Frost, 2002; Piacentini & Mailer, 2004).

Eastman *et al.*,(1999) and O'Cass and Frost (2002) pointed out that consumers with the attitude of status-oriented will only purchase products that represent status in the eyes of others whom they feel are significant. At some stage, status consumption is viewed as materialism (Wong & Ahuvia, 1998; Tanner & Roberts, 2000). Thus, it is arguable that status consumers are more likely to buy luxury apparel than non-status seeking consumers, as it satisfies their symbolic needs (Goldmith & Stith, 1993; Eastman *et al.*, 1999).

Patron status

Products especially sensitive to social influence as a display of wealth are the most visible, and include dress clothing, casual clothing, automobiles, stereos and living-room furniture. The master move of the luxury industry is the "logofictionation" of the handbag, plastering instantly recognisable symbols in a continuous pattern all over the bag (Chadha & Husband, 2006). The luxury specification of clothing is fashion is the process of how the label has gone from inside the collar or the waistband to outside, across the chest, down the

side, hidden in plain sight in logos, buttons, crests, initials, etc. (Husic & Cicic, 2009). Now, you are not what you wear but who you wear (Twitchell, 2001).

Increasingly, exposure to global media has increased consumers' desire for branded goods from certain developed countries (Western branded products) which would enable them to demonstrate social status (Marcoux *et al.*, 1997) and improve their quality of life. Consumers are influenced by their own group (Bearden & Etzel, 1982; Whittler & Spira, 2002), those they aspire to be like (Escalas & Bettman, 2005), and those with whom they want to avoid being associated with (White & Dahl, 2007). In other words, who uses a brand is integral to the brand image and helps explain why consumers are attracted to certain brands and shy away from others (Sirgy, 1982).

Quality

Several authors have also demonstrated that the price of products may have a positive role in determining the perception of quality (Erickson & Johansson 1985; Lichtenstein *et al.*, 1988; Tellis & Gaeth 1990). These studies revealed that consumers often used the price cue as evidence for judging quality when choosing between different brands. In practice, a higher price would infer a higher level of quality. In addition, research which suggested that consumers who perceived price as a proxy for quality, also perceived high prices as a positive indicator suggesting a certain degree of prestige (Lichtenstein *et al.*, 1993).

Higher quality products, fancy packaging, exclusive store locations, higher retail margins, expensive promotions, advertising campaigns, and brand names contribute to the higher prices of luxury products (Husic & Cicic, 2009). In fact, if luxury products are not priced high, they lose their rarity and exclusivity characteristics (Dubois & Duquesne, 1993). In some ways, a higher price makes consumers feel superior, one of the rare elite who can afford these products (Garfein, 1989). Some consumers are motivated by a desire to impress others. With the ability to pay high prices, this form of consumption of luxury goods becomes a pure display of wealth (Garfein, 1989).

In general, a product or a service is designed to perform a particular function: the core benefit can be seen is the usability of a product to achieve the goal to satisfy consumer needs. With regard to basic usage, consumers expect the item they buy to work right, look good, last a long time, and perform as expected and as promised (Fennel, 1978). These expectations increase even more in terms of luxury items (Wiedmann *et al.*, 2007).

Branded products manufactured in a country other than the country of origin might induce a perceptual coherence between the brand and the country of manufacture (Haubl & Elrod, 1999; Essoussi & Merunka, 2007), which in turn may influence evaluations the branded product (Heimbach, 1991). When perceived high quality brands are produced in a country of manufacture with a less positive image, consumers might experience an incongruity between the brand and the country, which would imply a negative impact on quality perceptions.

Demographic

Luxury brand awareness and purchase is not only linked to age, gender, marital status and location of residence but also is likely to be connected with income, education, and occupation. Income or money is a necessity for luxury consumption and the findings show that the wealthiest group is the heaviest consumer of luxury goods (Husic & Cicic, 2009). Park (2000) reported that consumers in their twenties are rapidly replacing middle-aged consumers as the main consumers of global luxury brands in Korea. While in Malaysia, consumer who tends to be better educated, single, non-Malay and have a higher income are more likely attracted to consume imported branded goods (Othman *et al.*, 2008).

Conclusion

Future research may examine the factors which affect the luxury consumption of fashion products among consumers. The findings from this review will stimulate further research on luxury consumption in Malaysia. In particular, future research should explore and test the conceptual framework described in Figure 3. This framework could be used to provide a useful instrument of the luxury consumption.

The study on factors affecting luxury consumption would provide several benefits to the consumer behaviour in Malaysia. For instance, it may develop a consumer profile of luxury fashion products, identify the relationships between brand image, quality, patron status, role model, attitude and demographic profile (age, gender, income and education) with luxury consumption among urban consumers and determine the factors that affect the consumption of luxury fashion products among consumers. The proposed factor structure for the concept of luxury consumption suggested during the literature combination provided a basis for developing several profiles of consumers.

Hence, the theoretical and applied research question that could be used in future research may be: What are the factors affecting luxury consumption

among urban consumers? Is there any relationship between brand image, role model, attitude, patron status, quality and demographic to luxury consumption among Malaysian consumers.

References

Amaldoss, W. & Jain, S. (2005). Conspicuous consumption and sophisticated thinking. *Management Science*, 51(10),1449-1466.

Anonymous, (2007). Pakistan telecommunication authority annual report 2006-2007. Retrieved from http://www.Pta.Gov.Pk/annual-reports/annrep0607/chapter_4.pdf.

Anonymous, (2008). Department of Statistic population and basic demographic characteristic. Retrieved from http://www.statistics.gov.my/eng/images/stories/files/otherlink/msia_broadage_1963-2008.pdf.

Bagwell, L.S. & Bernheim, B.D. (1996). Veblen effects in the theory of conspicuous consumption. *American Economic Review*, 86(3),349-373.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundation of thought and action: a social cognitive theory*. Eaglewood Cliff: Prentice Hall.

Bearden, W.O. & Etzel, M.J. (1982). Reference group influence on product and brand purchase decisions. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9,183-194.

Belk, R.W. (1988). Possessions and the extended self. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 15, 139-168.

Beverland, M. (2004). Uncovering ‘theories in use’: building luxury wine brands. *European Journal of Marketing*, 38(3), 446-466.

Bourdieu, P. (1984). *Distinction: A Social Judgment of Taste*, Nice, R. MA: Harvard University Press.

Budget 2011 Cheaper imported clothes, handbags, footwear, jewellery, perfumes, toys and 300 goods more; Royal Malaysia Customs: Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

Bush, A.J. & Martin, C.A. (2000). Do role models influence teenager’s purchase intentions and behaviour? *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 17(5),95-106.

Chanda, R. & Husband, P. (2006). *The Cult of the Luxury Brand: Inside Asia's Love Affair with Luxury*. London: Nicholas Brealey International.

Cheong, E. & Phau, I. Young status oriented consumers' evaluation of diffusion brand extension: the effects of brand loyalty. Proceedings of ANZMAC, Adelaide, Australia, Dec. 1-3, 2003.

Danet, J.B., Stucky, N., Feldmeth, J., Hales, G., & Ricca, M. (2008) Leading luxury brands. *Interbrand*, November 3, 2-10.

Deeter-Schmelz, D., Moore, J., & Goebel, D. (2000). Prestige clothing shopping by consumers: a confirmatory assessment and refinement of the PRECON scale with managerial implications. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 8, 43-58.

Deeter-Schmelz, D., Moore, J., Goebel, D., & Solomon, P. (1995). Measuring the prestige profiles of consumers: a preliminary report of the PRECON scale, in Engelland B. and Smart, D. (Eds.), *Marketing Foundations for a Changing World: Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the Southern Marketing Association, 1995*. Southern Marketing Association: Orlando.

Dubois, B. & Duquesne, P. (1993). The market for luxury goods: income versus culture. *European Journal of Marketing*, 27(1), 35-44.

Dawson, S. (1988). An exploration of the store prestige hierarchy reification, power, and perceptions. *Journal of Retailing*. 64, 133-152.

Dubois, B. & Laurent, G. (1996). Le luxe par-dela les frontieres: una etude exploratoire dans douze pays. *Decision Marketing*, 9,3 5-43.

Dubois, B. & Peternault, C. (1997). Does luxury have a home country? An investigation of country images in Europe. *Marketing and Research Today*, 25, 79-85.

Eastman, J.K., Goldsmith, R.E., & Flynn, L.R. (1999). Status consumption in consumer behaviour: scale development and validation. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 7(3), 41-52.

Erickson, G.M. & Johansson, J.K. (1985). The role of price in multi-attribute product evaluations. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 12, 195-199.

Escalas, J.E. & Bettman, J.R. (2005). Self-construal, reference groups and brand meaning. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 32(3), 378-389.

- Essoussi, L.H. & Merunka, D. (2007). Consumers' product evaluations in emerging markets. *International Marketing Review*, 24(4), 409-426.
- Fennel, G.G. (1978). Perceptions of the product-in-use situation. *Journal of Marketing*, 7(1), 39-47.
- Fiske, N. & Silverstein, M. (2004). *Trading Up: Trends, Brands, and Practices 2004 Research Update*. Boston, MA: Boston Consulting Group.
- Garfein, R.T. (1989). Cross-cultural perspectives on the dynamics of prestige. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 3, 17-24.
- Goldsmith, R. & Stith, M. (1993). The social values of fashion innovators. *Journal of Applied Business Research*, 9(1), 10-17.
- Grace, D. & O'cass, A. (2002). Brand associations: looking through the eye of the beholder. *Qualitative Market Research*, 5(2), 96-111.
- Grossman, G.M. & Shapiro, C. (1988). Counterfeit-product trade. *The American Economic Review*, 78, 59-75.
- Gurhan-Canli, Z. & Maheswaran, D. (2000). Cultural variations in country of origin effects. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 37(3), 309-317.
- Han, Y.J., Nunes, J.C., & Dreze, X. (2010). Signaling status with luxury goods: the role of brand prominence. *Journal of Marketing*, 74, 15-30
- Haubl, G. & Elrod, T. (1999). The impact of congruity between brand name and country of production on consumers' product quality judgments. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 16(3), 199-215.
- Heimbach, A. (1991). *The effect on product evaluation of incongruity among multiple product-category labels*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Washington, Washington, DC.
- Husic, M. & Cacic, M. (2009). Luxury consumption factors. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, 13(2), 231-245.
- Kahle, L.R. (1983). *Social Value and Social Change*. New York: Praeger.
- Kaynak, E. & Kara, A. (2002). Consumer perceptions of foreign products: an analysis of product-country images and ethnocentrism. *European Journal of Marketing*, 36(7), 928-949.

Lichtenstein, D.R., Ridgway, N.M., & Netemeyer, R.G. (1993). Price perceptions and consumer shopping behavior: a field study. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 30, 234-245.

Luxury Institute. (2007). The luxury consumer market: a wealth of opportunity. Retrieved from http://www.luxuryinstitute.com/pdfs/Luxury_Institute_The_Luxury_Consumer_Market.pdf

Luxury Institute. (2005). *Luxury Institute Report*. New York: Luxury Institute.

Marcoux, J.S., Fialaltrault, P., & Cheron, E. (1997). The attitudes underlying preferences of young urban educated polish consumers towards products made in western countries. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 9(4), 5-29.

Merril, L. & Cap, G. (2005). *World Wealth Report 2005*. New York: Merrill Lynch and Cap Gemini.

Metha, S.N. (2006). Fighting innovation stagnation. Retrieved from <http://money.cnn.com/2006/06/29/magazines/fortune/pluggedin.fortune/>.

Mohamad, O., Ahmed, Z.U., Honeycutt, E.D. Jr., & Tyebkhan, T.H. (2000). Does 'made in..' matter to consumers? A Malaysian study of country of origin effect. *Multinational Business Review*, 8(2), 69-74.

Moore, C. & Birtwistle, G. (2005). The nature of parenting advantage in luxury fashion retailing – the case of Gucci Group NV. *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, 33(4), 256-270.

Muniz, A.M. & O'Guinn, T.C. (2001). Brand community. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 27, 412-432.

O'Cass, A. & Frost, H. (2002). Status brands: examining the effects of non-product-related brand associations on status and conspicuous consumption. *The Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 11(2), 67-88.

O'cass, A. & Lim, K. (2002). Toward understanding the young consumer's brand associations and ethnocentrism in the Lion's Port. *Psychology and Marketing*, 19(9), 759-773.

O'Cass, A. & Frost, H. (2004). Exploring consumer status and conspicuous consumption. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 4(1), 25-39.

- Othman, M.N., Ong, F.S., & Wong, H.W. (2008). Demographic and lifestyle profiles and ethnocentric and non-ethnocentric urban Malaysian consumers. *Asian Journal of Business and Accounting*, 1(1), 5-26.
- Park, S. (2000). Consumer in their twenties are the main target of expensive foreign luxury brands. *Chosun-Ilbo*, 9, 49.
- Peng, B. (2006). A model of veblenian growth. *Journal of Macroeconomics*, 6(1), 1-23.
- Phau, I. & Leng, Y.S. (2008). Attitudes toward domestic and foreign luxury brand apparel. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, 12(1), 68-89.
- Phau, I. & Prendergast, G. (2001). Consuming luxury brands: the relevance of the 'rarity principle'. *Journal of Brand Management*, 8(2), 122-138.
- Piacentini, M. & Mailer, G. (2004). Symbolic consumption in teenagers' clothing choices. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 3(3), 251-262.
- Prasso, S. & Brady, D. (2003). Can the high end hold its own? *International Asian Business*, 30.
- Run, E.C., Butt, M., & Nee, C.Y. (2010). The influence of role models on young adults purchase. *Jurnal Kemanusiaan*, 15, 70-81.
- Ryan, R.M. & Deci, E.L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 68-78.
- Samy, F.A. (2010) Malaysia Poised to Become Luxury Goods Haven. *The Star*, December 12, 2010.
- Silverstein, M. & Fiske, N. (2003). Luxury for the masses. *Harvard Business Review*, 81(4), 48-57.
- Silverstein, M. & Fiske, N. (2005). *Trading Up: Why Consumers Want New Luxury Goods, and How Companies Create Them*. New York: Portfolio.
- Sirgy, M.J (1982). Self-Concept in consumer behaviour: a critical review. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9(3), 287-300.
- Sriviroj, S. (2007). *Purchasing Luxury Goods: Consumer Behaviour of International Students in the UK*. Unpublished degree dissertation, University of Nottingham, UK.

Sukhdial, A.S., Chakraborty, G., & Steger, E.K. (1995). Measuring values can sharpen segmentation in the luxury auto market. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 35(1), 9-22.

Tanner, J. & Roberts, J. (2000). Materialism cometh. *Baylor Business Review*, 18(2), 8-9.

Tellis, G.J. & Gaeth, G.J. (1990). Best value, price seeking, and price aversion: the impact of information and learning on consumer choices. *Journal of Marketing*, 54, 315-331.

The Economist. (2002). Special report: luxury goods. *The Economist*, 23, 61-3.

Thomas, D. (2007). *Deluxe: How Luxury Lost Its Luster*. New York: The Penguin Press.

Truong, Y., McColl, R., & Kitchen, P.J. (2010). Uncovering the relationships between aspirations and luxury brand preference. *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 19(5), 346-355.

Twitchell, J.B. (2001). *Living It Up: Our Love Affair with Luxury*. New York: Columbia University Press.

Veblen, T.B. (1899). *The Theory of the Leisure Class*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Vigneron, F. & Johnson, L.W. (1999). A review and a conceptual framework of prestige-seeking consumer behaviour. *Academy of Marketing Science Review*, 1, 1-15.

Vigneron, F. & Johnson, L.W. (2004) Measuring perceptions of brand luxury. *Journal of Brand Management*. 11(6), 484-506.

Yeoman, I. & McMahon-Beattie, U. (2006). Luxury markets and premium pricing. *Journal of Revenue and Premium Pricing*, 4(4), 319-328.

Wernerfelt, B. (1990). Advertising content when brand choice is a signal. *Journal of Business*, 63(1), 91-98.

White, K. & Dahl, D.W. (2007). Are all out-groups created equal? Consumer identity and dissociative influence. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 34, 525-536.

Whittler, T.E. & Spira, J.S. (2002). Model's Race: a peripheral cue in advertising messages? *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 12(4), 291-301.

Wicklund, R.A. & Gollwitzer, P.M. (1981). Symbolic self-completion, attempted influence, and self-deprecation. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 2, 89-114.

Wicklund, R.A. & Gollwitzer, P.M. (1982). *Symbolic Self-completion*. NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Wiedmann, K.P., Hennigs, N., & Siebels, A. (2007). Measuring consumers' luxury value perception: a cross-cultural framework. *Academy of Marketing Science Review*, 7, 1-21.

Wilson, E. (2007). Is This It for the It Bag? *The New York Times*, November 1.

Wong, N.Y. & Ahuvia, A.C. (1998). Personal taste and family face: luxury consumption in confucian and western societies. *Psychology and Marketing*, 15, 423-441.

PENGAMBILAN DAGING AYAM ALTERNATIF OLEH PELAJAR PUSAT PENGAJIAN PENDIDIKAN JARAK JAUH (PPPJJ), UNIVERSITI SAINS MALAYSIA

Jamilah Ismail¹

Norsuhana Abdul Hamid¹

Marina Abdul Manaf²

¹Bahagian Biologi

Pusat Pengajian Pendidikan Jarak Jauh

²Pusat Pengajian Sains Kesihatan, Kampus Kesihatan

Universiti Sains Malaysia

Pendahuluan

Daging putih adalah antara daging yang menjadi pilihan pengguna sejak dahulu lagi. Sumber protein daging putih seperti ayam, itik, ikan dan arnab lebih memberi manfaat kepada kesihatan tubuh berbanding dengan protein yang terkandung dalam daging merah. Selain itu, daging putih juga dilaporkan mengandungi kalori yang lebih rendah (Anon, 2011 dan Probst, 2009). Daging putih juga mampu mengurangkan kadar mendapat penyakit, seperti penyakit kanser dan jantung koronari. Hal ini kerana kandungan lemak dan kolesterol yang terkandung dalam daging putih adalah lebih rendah daripada daging merah (Jaturasitha *et al.*, 2008).

Daging ayam adalah antara kategori daging putih yang sering diambil setiap hari dalam menu diet harian seseorang individu (Farina & Almeida, 2003). Jaturasitha (2004) melaporkan bahawa faktor utama pemilihan daging ayam dalam kalangan pengguna adalah disebabkan oleh nilai nutrien daging ini yang mendatangkan kesan yang baik kepada kesihatan. Selain itu, faktor lain seperti harganya yang lebih rendah dan mampu dibeli oleh pengguna, bahagian daging yang diinginkan untuk penyediaan sesuatu menu masakan yang mudah diperolehi (seperti bahagian dada dan paha yang telah diasingkan) dan pengambilannya kurang melibatkan isu agama merupakan antara penyebab lain daging ayam dipilih oleh pengguna dalam diet seharian (Jaturasitha, 2004). Jime'nez-Colmenero *et al.* (2001) melaporkan bahawa daging yang memberikan nilai kesihatan yang baik mempunyai tiga ciri utama iaitu, didapati daripada sumber alam atau organik tanpa sebarang bahan kimia berbahaya, boleh diambil setiap hari dan setelah dicerna daging tersebut

dapat meningkatkan fungsi pertahanan biologi, fizikal dan mental tubuh, mencegah dan merawat penyakit tertentu serta memperlahankan proses penuaan.

Ayam pedaging ialah ayam yang biasa terdapat di pasaran dan menjadi pilihan pengguna pada masa kini. Walau bagaimanapun untuk mendapatkan pulangan dan keuntungan yang lebih, kebanyakan industri penternakan ayam pedaging menggunakan pelbagai bahan kimia, seperti hormon dan antibiotik bagi meningkatkan produktiviti. Hormon disuntik pada ayam pedaging untuk mempercepatkan proses tumbesaran. Daging ayam pedaging yang disuntik dengan hormon mendatangkan kemudaratan kepada manusia. Hal ini kerana hormon tersebut boleh meningkatkan risiko untuk mendapat kanser pangkal rahim dan payudara serta mempercepatkan kematangan pada gadis (Gandhi & Snedeker, 2000).

Fungsi utama antibiotik yang digunakan dalam industri penternakan ayam adalah untuk mencegah jangkitan (dikenali sebagai *prophylactic*) dan merawat penyakit (dikenali sebagai *therapeutic*) yang disebabkan oleh bakteria (Harmon, 2011; Barton, 2000). Selain itu, tujuan lain penggunaan antibiotik adalah untuk mempercepatkan tumbesaran, meningkatkan kecekapan pertukaran makanan dan mengurangkan penghasilan bahan buangan (Donoghue, 2003; Collignon, 2009; Barton, 2000; Bogaard & Stobberingh, 2000). Penggunaannya dalam industri penternakan ayam memberikan kesan negatif kepada kesihatan manusia. Hal ini kerana bakteria kebal antibiotik (*antibiotic resistant bacteria*) boleh berpindah dari daging ayam ke tubuh badan manusia. Apabila bakteria ini menjadi semakin kebal terhadap antibiotik yang diberi kepada ayam atau haiwan lain, maka kesan antibiotik yang diberi terhadap manusia sudah tidak berkesan lagi (Barton, 2000; Collignon, 2009; Alanis, 2005).

Dalam usaha mendapatkan kesihatan, keselamatan dan kualiti makanan yang lebih baik, pengguna pada hari ini telah mula mencari pengganti atau alternatif bagi daging ayam pedaging. Ayam organik dan ayam kampung adalah antara daging ayam alternatif yang boleh dijadikan pilihan oleh pengguna kerana terdapat pelbagai kebaikan. Kebanyakan kajian yang telah dijalankan mendapati, faktor utama pemilihan produk berasaskan organik oleh pengguna kerana ia mengandungi nilai kesihatan yang lebih baik berbanding dengan produk konvensional (Chinnici *et al.*, 2002; Harper & Makatouni, 2002). Pengguna mempercayai bahawa kualiti daging ayam yang dihasilkan daripada sumber organik adalah lebih baik (Grashorn & Selini, 2004).

Organik merujuk kepada cara sesuatu haiwan ternakan dan produk agrikultur dihasilkan, iaitu bebas daripada penggunaan bahan agrikimia iaitu bahan

kimia yang digunakan dalam industri pertanian seperti pestisid dan baja sintetik (Fanatico, 2008). Penternakan haiwan secara organik mementingkan kesihatan dan kebajikan haiwan. Penternakan organik berbeza daripada penternakan konvensional yang lebih memberi tumpuan untuk pengurangan kos dan memaksimumkan pengeluaran. Ciri-ciri penternakan ayam organik bersifat mesra alam dan mampu meningkatkan tahap kesihatan manusia. Hal ini kerana dalam penternakan organik, bahan makanan ternakan adalah bebas daripada penggunaan bahan kimia dan tiada suntikan hormon, antibiotik dan vaksin berbahaya pada haiwan ternakan (Sundrum, 2005).

Ayam kampung juga merupakan daging ayam alternatif yang baik untuk kesihatan pengguna. Menurut kajian oleh Jaturasitha *et al.* (2008), kandungan lemak dan kolesterol daging ayam kampung adalah lebih rendah berbanding dengan daging ayam pedaging. Kandungan kolagen dalam daging ayam kampung di bahagian paha juga didapati lebih tinggi. Selain kandungan nutrien yang memberikan nilai kesihatan yang baik kepada pengguna, ciri lain yang dipertimbangkan oleh pengguna adalah keliatan daging (Weston *et al.*, 2002; Mentert *et al.*, 2000; Koohmarie, 1995). Kandungan kolagen dalam daging mempengaruhi keliatan dan kelembutan daging. Hal ini kerana kolagen terdiri daripada ikatan molekul bersilang yang membantu dalam membina struktur dan kekuatan tisu daging. Ikatan bersilang ini akan semakin berkurangan, namun diganti dengan ikatan bersilang yang lebih matang, stabil dan kurang larut. Ikatan bersilang matang menentukan tahap keliatan daging. Faktor yang mempengaruhi kadar ikatan ini adalah seperti kadar pertumbuhan, kandungan nutrien dan genetik. Kebanyakan pengguna lebih cenderung memilih daging yang mempunyai keliatan yang rendah (Weston *et al.*, 2002).

Daging ayam kampung juga kaya dengan protein ($20.42 \pm 0.27\%$) berbanding dengan ayam pedaging ($19.08 \pm 0.23\%$) dan rendah lemak ($0.58 \pm 0.06\%$) berbanding dengan daging ayam pedaging ($0.81 \pm 0.09\%$) pada bahagian otot bahagian belakang paha (*biceps femoris*) (Wattanachant *et al.*, 2004). Hasil kajian yang dijalankan oleh Chuaynukool *et al.*, (2007) juga didapati sama apabila dibandingkan dengan ayam pedaging dan ayam tua/pencen. Pada bahagian *biceps femoris*, kandungan protein ayam kampung lebih tinggi ($17.43 \pm 0.44\%$) berbanding dengan ayam pedaging ($16.98 \pm 0.32\%$) dan ayam penelur ($16.44 \pm 0.65\%$) dan rendah lemak ($1.14 \pm 0.47\%$) berbanding dengan ayam pedaging ($0.51 \pm 0.14\%$) dan ayam tua/pencen ($1.28 \pm 0.25\%$). Justeru, pengambilan daging ayam alternatif perlu diperluaskan di Malaysia bagi menjamin kesihatan yang lebih baik kepada pengguna.

Kajian pengguna berkenaan daging ayam telah dijalankan oleh Jamilah *et al.*, (2011) terhadap pengambilan dan pengetahuan pengguna terhadap daging

ayam pedaging. Namun, kajian berkenaan pengambilan daging ayam alternatif dalam kalangan pengguna di Malaysia masih belum dilaporkan. Oleh itu, kajian ini dijalankan untuk mengetahui pengambilan dan pengetahuan pengguna terhadap daging ayam alternatif. Daging ayam alternatif merujuk kepada daging ayam selain ayam pedaging iaitu daging ayam organik, daging ayam kampung dan daging ayam hutan.

Metodologi

Kajian soal selidik terhadap 487 responden yang terdiri daripada pelajar Pusat Pengajian Pendidikan Jarak Jauh (PPPJJ), Universiti Sains Malaysia telah dijalankan untuk mengetahui pengambilan dan pengetahuan pengguna tentang daging ayam alternatif. Kajian dijalankan semasa kursus intensif, iaitu bermula pada 29 November sehingga 19 Disember 2010. Jumlah responden ialah 10% daripada jumlah kesemua pelajar yang hadir pada kursus intensif tersebut. Pemilihan responden adalah secara rawak.

Terdapat tiga bahagian dalam soal selidik tersebut, iaitu latar belakang demografi dan sosioekonomi, pengambilan daging ayam alternatif dan pengetahuan responden terhadap daging ayam alternatif. Responden dikehendaki menjawab semua soalan pada kertas soal selidik yang diedarkan. Analisis statistik frekuensi dilakukan dengan aplikasi program SPSS (*Statistical Package for the Social Sciences*) versi 17.

Hasil dan perbincangan

Demografi dan sosioekonomi responden

Hasil kajian ditunjukkan dalam Jadual 1. Sejumlah 58.9% responden terdiri daripada responden perempuan dan 41.1% terdiri daripada responden lelaki. Responden terdiri daripada bangsa Melayu (74.5%), Cina (10.9%), India (8.2%) dan lain-lain sebanyak 6.4%. Kebanyakan responden terdiri daripada kakitangan kerajaan (79.1%) yang mempunyai pendapatan bulanan sebanyak RM 1001 - RM 1500 (25.1%), RM 2001 - RM 2500 (24.8%) dan melebihi RM 2501 (22.8%). Purata umur responden dalam kajian ini ialah 26-31 tahun. Purata pendapatan responden pula adalah antara RM 1001- RM 1500.

Jadual 1: Data Demografi dan Sosioekonomi Responden.

Perkara	Bilangan (n=487)	Peratus (%)
<u>Demografi</u>		
Jantina		
Lelaki	200	41.1
Perempuan	287	58.9
Bangsa		
Melayu	363	74.5
Cina	53	10.9
India	40	8.2
Lain-lain	31	6.4
Umur		
20-25	134	27.5
26-31	199	40.9
32-37	91	18.7
37-40	51	10.5
>40	12	2.5
Status		
Bujang	201	41.3
Berkahwin	279	57.3
Janda/duda/balu	7	1.4
<u>Sosioekonomi</u>		
Pekerjaan		
Kakitangan kerajaan	385	79.1
Bekerja sendiri	11	2.3
Tidak bekerja	7	1.4
Pelajar	2	0.4
Pendapatan bulanan		
<RM 500	12	2.5
RM 500 - RM 1000	16	3.3
RM 1001 – RM 1500	122	25.1
RM 1501 – RM 2000	105	21.6
RM 2001 – RM 2500	121	24.8
>RM 2501	111	22.8

Pengambilan daging ayam alternatif.

Jadual 2 menunjukkan kekerapan pengambilan daging ayam alternatif oleh responden. Bagi daging ayam kampung, hanya satu per empat responden (23.4%) pernah mengambilnya. Keadaan adalah sebaliknya bagi daging ayam organik, didapati hampir separuh responden (40.5%) pernah mengambilnya. Sementara, peratus responden yang pernah mengambil ayam hutan adalah 80.7%, iaitu paling tinggi berbanding dengan dua jenis daging ayam alternatif lain. Pengambilan daging ayam hutan paling tinggi mungkin kerana responden ingin merasa kelainan rasa atau bertukar selera. Ayam hutan juga mempunyai nilai kesihatan yang baik. Hal ini kerana ia mengandungi lemak yang lebih rendah ($0.17 \pm 0.09\%$) berbanding dengan ayam kampung ($5.5 \pm 2.06\%$) pada bahagian dada (Ganabadi *et al.*, 2009).

Jadual 2: Kekerapan Pengambilan Daging Ayam Alternatif oleh Responden

Kekerapan	Ayam kampung (%)	Jenis Ayam	
		Ayam organik (%)	Ayam hutan (%)
Tidak pernah	76.6	50.5	19.3
Setiap hari	0.6	2.3	0.6
1-2 kali seminggu	1.6	10.5	14.8
3-4 kali seminggu	0.6	7.0	4.1
2-3 kali sebulan	3.1	10.5	21.8
2 kali setahun	7.4	12.3	22.2
3-5 kali setahun	10.1	7.0	17.2
Peratusan kekerapan pengambilan dalam setahun	23.4	40.5	80.7

Peratusan kekerapan pengambilan daging ayam kampung tertinggi ialah 3-5 kali dalam setahun (10.1%), diikuti dengan dua kali dalam setahun. Bagi daging ayam organik, sejumlah 12.3% responden mengambilnya dua kali setahun, diikuti dengan 2-3 kali sebulan dan 1-2 kali seminggu (masing-masing 10.5%). Kekerapan pengambilan daging ayam hutan ialah dua kali dalam setahun (22.2%) melebihi kekerapan pengambilan daging ayam alternatif lain.

Jadual 3 menunjukkan hasil kajian terhadap faktor penyebab pemilihan daging ayam alternatif oleh responden. Soalan ini menghendaki responden

membuat pilihan terhadap tiga faktor penyebab mereka memilih daging ayam alternatif bagi tiga jenis daging ayam yang berbeza. Hasil kajian mendapati, faktor penyebab responden memilih daging ayam organik adalah ingin bertukar selera (75.8%), rasa yang lebih sedap berbanding dengan ayam lain (66.1%) dan kandungan nutrien yang lebih baik (37.6%). Begitu juga bagi pemilihan daging ayam hutan, iaitu faktor yang sama (bertukar selera 71.0%, diikuti rasa yang lebih sedap berbanding dengan ayam lain 48.0% dan kandungan nutrien yang lebih baik 46%) telah diberikan oleh responden. Namun, hasil yang sebaliknya diperoleh bagi ayam kampung, iaitu responden memilih daging ayam ini kerana kandungan nutrien yang lebih baik (67.8%), diikuti rasa yang lebih sedap berbanding dengan ayam lain (57.9%) dan bertukar selera (55.4%).

Jadual 3 : Faktor Penyebab Pemilihan Daging Ayam Alternatif oleh Responden

Faktor Penyebab	Jenis ayam		
	Ayam organik	Ayam hutan	Ayam kampung
Kandungan nutrien yang lebih baik	37.6	48.0	67.8
Rasa yang lebih sedap berbanding ayam lain	66.1	46.0	57.9
Bertukar selera	75.8	71.0	55.4

berdasarkan keputusan tersebut, didapati masih ramai responden yang tidak mengetahui kelebihan daging ayam organik daripada aspek kandungan nutrien. Responden memilih daging ayam organik hanyalah disebabkan oleh rasanya yang lebih sedap, selain faktor ingin bertukar selera. Hasil kajian juga mendapati, responden lebih menyakini daging ayam kampung dan ayam hutan dari segi kandungan nutrien berbanding dengan daging ayam organik. Hal ini mungkin disebabkan oleh pengetahuan mereka yang masih rendah mengenai khasiat daging ayam organik.

Kajian mendapati, daging ayam organik lebih tinggi kandungan nutrien berbanding dengan daging ayam yang lain (Castellini *et al.*, 2006; Castellini & Mourvaki, 2007; Husak *et al.*, 2008). Husak *et al.*, (2008) telah menjalankan kajian perbandingan nilai kualitatif dan kuantitatif terhadap daging ayam organik, ayam pedaging dan ayam kampung. Hasil kajian mendapati bahagian dada dan paha ayam organik adalah tinggi nilai protein sama ada mentah (dada-23.3 %; paha-19.3%) atau dimasak (dada-27%; paha-24.6%) berbanding dengan jenis ayam yang lain, iaitu ayam pedaging

(mentah, dada-22.26%; paha-17.82%; dimasak, dada-25.37%; paha-21.85%) dan ayam kampung (mentah, dada- 23.26%; paha- 19.49%; dimasak, dada-25.37%; paha-21.85%). Selain itu, analisis asid lemak juga membuktikan daging ayam organik mengandungi asid lemak tepu dan asid lemak monotaktepu yang lebih rendah dan asid lemak politatepu yang lebih tinggi berbanding dengan jenis ayam lain.

Pemakanan ayam organik juga mempengaruhi kandungan nutrien daging ayam. Daging yang terhasil daripada penternakan organik, bebas daripada produk berasaskan haiwan, tidak diubah suai genetik dan antimikrob. Kandungan α -tokoferol dan karotenoid juga tinggi dalam daging ayam organik disebabkan ayam organik boleh mengambil rumput dalam kuantiti yang banyak (Castellini *et al.*, 2003). Kandungan karotenoid yang banyak mampu meningkatkan antioksidan dalam tisu daging dan menjadikannya lebih berkualiti (Grashorn & Serini, 2006). Persekitaran ayam organik bersifat semula jadi telah terbukti menjadikan dagingnya lebih lembut berbanding dengan ayam yang dipelihara pada persekitaran tertutup (Farmer *et al.*, 1997).

Selain ayam organik, ayam kampung juga merupakan daging alternatif yang lebih baik kepada pengguna. Hal ini kerana ciri-ciri seperti pemakanan yang bersifat natural dan bebas daripada bahan kimia merbahaya. Selain itu, tekstur dan rasa daging ayam kampung agak unik berbanding dengan ayam jenis lain (Wattanachant, 2008). Aras nilai lemak, otot dan tulang yang sederhana menjadikan daging ayam kampung juga suatu alternatif yang baik untuk kesihatan (Ganabadi *et al.* 2009). Pengambilannya mampu mengurangkan risiko mendapat penyakit jantung dan diabetes.

Daging ayam organik dipilih oleh responden disebabkan rasanya yang sedap. Namun, perkara ini tidak boleh dianggap tepat. Penerimaan pengguna terhadap sesuatu produk hanya boleh dibuktikan melalui kajian sensori, terutamanya melalui kajian sensori yang melibatkan panel terlatih. Hal ini kerana panel sensori yang terlatih dapat mengenal pasti perbezaan tekstur dan rasa yang jelas pada daging ayam yang berbeza (Owens *et al.*, 2006).

Soalan seterusnya mengkehendaki responden menyatakan pendapat mengenai tekstur, bau dan rasa ketiga-tiga jenis daging ayam alternatif termasuk ayam pedaging (Jadual 4). Responden menyatakan tekstur daging ayam pedaging adalah paling lembut (91.4%), diikuti ayam organik (58.3%), ayam kampung (55.9%) dan paling liat ialah daging ayam hutan (13.6%). Pernyataan ini bertepatan dengan hasil kajian sensori terhadap daging ayam oleh Husak *et al.*, (2008) dan Castellini *et al.*, (2002). Hasil kajian tersebut mendapati bahagian paha ayam pedaging lebih lembut dan kurang liat berbanding dengan daging ayam kampung dan ayam organik. Namun, kajian

dijalankan oleh Jahan *et al.*, (2005) dan Grashorn & Serini (2006) membuktikan tekstur daging ayam organik lebih lembut berbanding dengan ayam pedaging. Keputusan berbeza diperoleh disebabkan panel sensori setiap kajian adalah berbeza.

Jadual 4 : Perbandingan Ciri Tekstur, Bau dan Rasa Ayam Pedaging, Ayam Organik, Ayam Kampung dan Ayam Hutan

Ciri	Jenis ayam			
	Pedaging	Organik	Kampung	Hutan
<u>Tekstur</u>				
Lembut	91.4	58.3	30.6	13.6
Liat	2.2	8.2	55.9	33.9
<u>Bau</u>				
Kurang hanyir	68.6	52.6	63.0	32.6
Hanyir	28.7	15.0	23.2	14.4
<u>Rasa</u>				
Enak	75.6	53.8	76.6	40.2
Kurang enak	2.2	13.8	9.7	7.2

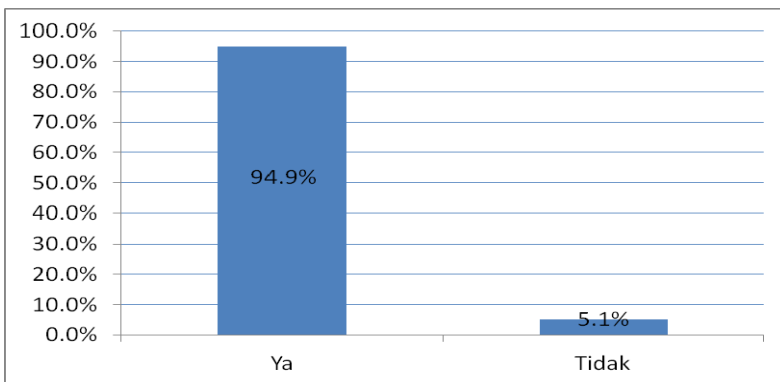
Daripada segi bau pula, ayam pedaging dikatakan paling kurang hanyir (68.6%), diikuti ayam kampung (63.0%), ayam organik (52.6%) dan ayam hutan (32.6%). Faktor seperti diet, keadaan persekitaran ternakan dan jangka masa simpanan sebelum diproses mempengaruhi bau yang terhasil pada daging. Contohnya, kandungan diet yang tinggi lemak meningkatkan kadar bau (hanyir) sesuatu jenis daging ayam tersebut (Northcutt, 2009).

Apabila responden diajukan soalan berkenaan rasa, ayam organik (76.6%) dan ayam pedaging (75.6%) dinyatakan oleh responden antara yang paling enak berbanding dengan ayam organik dan ayam hutan. Daging ayam hutan paling kurang enak (40.2%). Keputusan soal selidik ini menyamai kajian yang dijalankan oleh Castellini (2002); Jahan *et al.*, (2005); Grashorn dan Serini (2006). Namun, keputusan ini bersifat kontras dengan kajian yang dilakukan oleh Lawlor *et al.*, (2003) iaitu tiada bukti rasa daging ayam organik lebih sedap berbanding dengan ayam pedaging dan ayam kampung. Kajian yang dijalankan Lawlor (2003) mendapati para panel sensori lebih mudah membezakan ciri fizikal seperti warna dan tekstur daging berbanding dengan bau dan rasa jenis daging tersebut.

Sebahagian besar daripada responden (94.9%) ingin mencuba daging ayam organik atau ayam kampung sekiranya ia terbukti mengandungi nilai pemakanan dan nutrien yang baik untuk kesihatan dengan harga yang berpatutan dan senang diperoleh di pasaran. Hanya 5.1% responden tidak

menyetujui perkara tersebut (Rajah 1). Keputusan kajian ini menunjukkan hampir keseluruhan responden mementingkan kesihatan dalam pemilihan daging ayam.

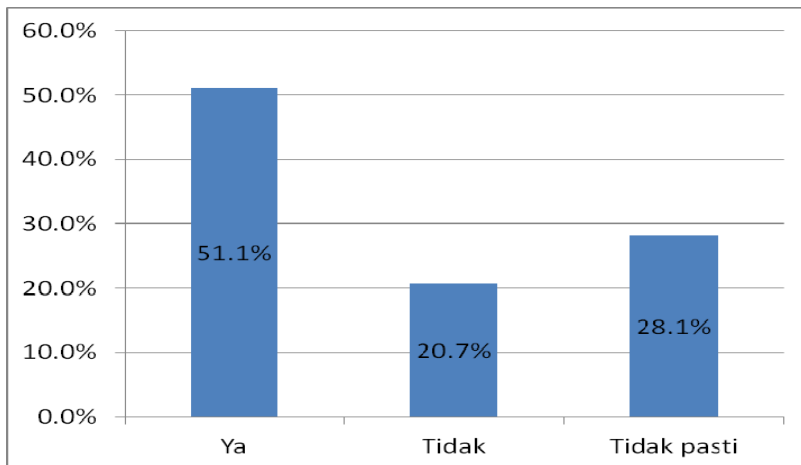
Pada masa kini, telah ramai pengguna menitikberatkan kesihatan dalam pemilihan sesuatu produk makanan. Menurut Pereira da Fonseca dan Salay (2008) dan Muchenje *et al.*, (2008), pemilihan sesuatu produk makanan oleh pengguna dipengaruhi oleh nilai kandungan nutrien dan keselamatan makanan tersebut. Berdasarkan pelbagai kajian yang telah dijalankan (Becker, 2000; Fearné *et al.*, 2001; Henson & Northen, 2000; Richardson, Shepherd, & Elliman, 1993; Roosen *et al.*, 2003; Vackier & Verbeke, 2003), perkara yang paling ditakuti pengguna berkenaan produk makanan ialah bahan kimia daripada hormon pertumbuhan dan antibiotik, kandungan lemak dan kolesterol yang tinggi, jangkitan mikrob (*Dioxin*, *Salmonella*, *Escherichia coli*) dan keracunan makanan, serta pengubahsuaian genetik dalam pemakanan haiwan yang membawa kepada penyakit seperti penyakit lembu gila (*Bovine spongiform encephalopathy*).



Rajah 1: Peratus Responden yang Ingin Mencuba Daging Ayam Organik/ Ayam Kampung

Selain kandungan nutrien yang mendatangkan kesan yang baik terhadap kesihatan, kajian juga mendapati pengguna memilih sesuatu produk makanan disebabkan beberapa faktor lain, seperti bebas daripada bahan kimia, rasa yang lebih sedap dan kaedah penternakan haiwan yang bersifat mesra alam (Fotopoulos & Kryskallis, 2002 ; Larue *et al.*, 2004 ; Wier & Calverley, 2002). Permintaan terhadap produk berasaskan daging pula bergantung pada harga, kualiti, kehendak pengguna, rasa dan pendapatan (Almeida *et al.*, 2009). Kandungan nutrien sesuatu produk makanan yang diingini pengguna perlulah mampu menepati diet yang seimbang. Hal ini kerana pengamalan

diet berkait rapat dengan penyakit yang dihadapi seseorang seperti obesiti, penyakit kardiovaskular dan kanser (Mente, 2009; Loff & Weiderpess, 2009). Separuh daripada responden (51.1%) menyatakan kesanggupan mereka membeli daging ayam organik atau ayam kampung sekiranya harga kedua-dua daging ayam tersebut lebih tinggi berbanding dengan daging ayam pedaging (Rajah 2). Harga memainkan peranan penting dalam pemilihan jenis daging ayam oleh pengguna. Hasil kajian menunjukkan responden sanggup membelanjakan wang yang lebih bagi menjamin kesihatan yang lebih baik. Dransfield *et al.*, (1998) melaporkan pengguna sanggup mengeluarkan wang yang lebih untuk membeli sesuatu produk daging sekiranya produk tersebut mempunyai kualiti yang baik. Hal ini juga membuktikan telah meningkat kesedaran terhadap penjagaan kesihatan dalam kalangan pengguna.



Rajah 2: Peratus Kesanggupan Responden Membeli Daging Ayam Organik/Ayam Kampung

Soalan seterusnya menghendaki responden menandakan berapakah harga ayam pedaging per kg di pasaran pada masa kini. Sejumlah 53.4% daripada responden menjawab RM 5-10/kg, 22.8% memilih RM 11-15/kg, 16.6% pula tidak pasti dan hanya 7.2% memilih jawapan RM 15-RM 20 (Jadual 5). Hampir keseluruhan responden mengetahui harga ayam pedaging di pasaran pada masa kini. Hal ini membuktikan mereka pernah dan sering membeli daging ayam pedaging. Antara faktor ayam pedaging masih mendapat permintaan yang tinggi adalah kerana di negara maju mahupun negara membangun, industri penternakan yang paling awal wujud ialah industri penternakan ayam pedaging iaitu sejak tahun 1960-an lagi (Chang, 2007). Hal ini membuatkan tabiat pemakanan pengguna sukar untuk diubah.

Jadual 5: Pengetahuan Responden Berkenaan Harga Pasaran Ayam Pedaging

Perkara	Bilangan (n = 487)	Peratus (%)
RM 5-10/kg	260	53.4
RM 11-15/kg	111	22.8
Tidak pasti	81	16.6
RM 15-RM20	35	7.2

Apabila disoal berkenaan harga daging ayam organik/ayam kampung, sejumlah 39.2% responden tidak pasti mengenai julat harga daging tersebut di pasaran. Sejumlah 26.7% memilih julat harga antara RM 12-15/kg dan hanya 17.7% responden menjawab dengan tepat, iaitu pada julat harga RM 16-20/kg (Jadual 6).

Jadual 6: Julat Harga Pasaran Daging Ayam Organik/Ayam Kampung

Perkara	Bilangan (n=487)	Peratus (%)
RM 12-15/kg	130	26.7
RM 16-20/kg	86	17.7
RM 7-10/kg	60	12.3
RM 21-25/kg	20	4.1
Tidak pasti	191	39.2

Walaupun peratus responden yang ingin mencuba daging ayam organik dan ayam kampung adalah tinggi (Rajah 2), namun mereka masih tidak mengetahui harga kedua-dua daging ayam tersebut di pasaran. Hal ini menunjukkan, sifat ingin mencuba mereka adalah tinggi walaupun mereka tidak mengetahui harga kedua-dua daging tersebut. Sifat ingin mencuba yang ditunjukkan ini mampu meningkatkan lagi permintaan daging ayam alternatif dalam kalangan pengguna.

Berdasarkan Jadual 7, julat harga RM 15-20/kg merupakan julat harga yang sanggup dibayar oleh sebahagian besar responden (90.3%) bagi mendapatkan daging ayam organik dan ayam kampung di pasaran. Hanya sejumlah kecil sahaja yang sanggup membayar dalam julat harga yang lebih tinggi (RM 21-25/kg - 6.6%), RM 26-30/kg - 2.5% dan RM 31-35/kg -

0.6%). Hal ini menunjukkan perbelanjaan untuk mendapatkan sesuatu produk sangat dititikberatkan oleh mereka.

Jadual 7: Julat Harga yang Sanggup Dibayar oleh Responden untuk Mendapatkan Daging Ayam Organik/ Ayam Kampung

Perkara	Bilangan (n = 487)	Peratus (%)
RM 15-20/kg	440	90.3
RM 21-25/kg	32	6.6
RM 26-30/kg	12	2.5
RM 31-35/kg	3	0.6

Menurut kajian yang dijalankan oleh Gardyn (2002), kebanyakan pengguna berpendapat makanan organik susah untuk diperolehi dan lebih mahal berbanding dengan makanan konvensional. Hasilnya, permintaan terhadap produk berasaskan organik masih ditahap yang rendah. *Organic Foods Trend Tracker* telah menjalankan soal selidik terhadap pengambilan makanan berasaskan bahan organik di seluruh pasar raya. Kajian tersebut telah dijalankan terhadap 1,000 responden dewasa di Amerika dan mendapati, harga merupakan penghalang utama pengguna (*Whole Foods Market*, 2003). Soal selidik yang serupa juga telah dilakukan pada tahun 2004 (*Whole Foods Market*, 2004). Sejumlah 73% responden dewasa menyetujui harga produk organik terlalu mahal. Hal ini menunjukkan peningkatan berbanding dengan kajian pada tahun 2003, iaitu hanya 69% responden dewasa berpendapat sedemikian.

Soalan seterusnya menghendaki responden menandakan kesukaran mereka untuk mendapatkan daging ayam organik dan ayam kampung. Sejumlah 68.8% responden berpendapat mereka sukar untuk mendapatkan kedua-dua daging ayam tersebut di pasaran dan 31.2% menyatakan sebaliknya (Jadual 8). Hal ini membuktikan bekalan daging ke dua-dua jenis ayam tersebut masih rendah di pasaran. Pasaran ayam di Malaysia masih tertumpu pada pengeluaran daging ayam pedaging. Harga yang mahal dan bekalan yang kurang mungkin antara faktor penghalang kurangnya penjualan daging ayam organik dan ayam kampung dalam pasaran di Malaysia.

Jadual 8: Peratus Kesukaran Mendapatkan Bekalan Daging Ayam Organik/Ayam Kampung di Pasaran

Perkara	Bilangan (487)	Peratus (%)
Ya	335	68.8
Tidak	152	31.2

Pengetahuan responden terhadap daging ayam alternative

Jadual 9 menunjukkan hasil kajian tentang pengetahuan responden terhadap daging ayam alternatif. Soalan satu hingga empat menguji pengetahuan responden terhadap daging ayam. Soalan pertama diajukan untuk mengetahui adakah responden mengetahui sumber makanan yang mahal membuatkan daging ayam organik lebih mahal di pasaran berbanding dengan daging ayam lain. Hasilnya, dua pertiga responden menjawab dengan tepat (75.6%), sebilangan kecil menjawab dengan salah (7.0%) dan selebihnya (17.5%) tidak pasti. Hampir keseluruhan responden mengetahui daging ayam organik lebih mahal berbanding dengan daging ayam yang lain. Makanan yang dibekalkan kepada ayam organik lengkap dengan semua nutrien yang diperlukan oleh tubuh seperti protein, karbohidrat, mineral dan vitamin (Fanatico, 2008). Makanan tambahan seperti vitamin dan mineral digunakan dalam kuantiti yang kecil bagi memenuhi keperluan nutrien ayam (Sundrum *et al.*, 2005).

Soalan seterusnya menguji pengetahuan responden berkenaan corak pemakanan ayam yang mempengaruhi kandungan lemak yang terdapat dalam daging haiwan tersebut. Sejumlah 71.7% responden menjawab dengan betul, 10.9% lagi menjawab salah dan 17.5% tidak pasti. Wood & Enser, (1997); Wiseman *et al.*, (1999) dan Bogosavljević-Bošković *et al.*, (2010), menyatakan kandungan dan komposisi lemak dipengaruhi oleh pemakanan haiwan yang seterusnya mengubah nilai asid lemak dalam daging. Menurut kajian yang telah dijalankan oleh Ganabadi *et al.*, (2009) pula, ayam pedaging mengandungi komposisi lemak yang lebih tinggi berbanding dengan ayam kampung dan ayam hutan. Hal ini kerana pemakanan ayam pedaging digunakan untuk mempercepatkan proses penambahan berat badan dan aktiviti fizikal yang sangat rendah berbanding dengan ayam hutan dan ayam kampung.

Jadual 9: Pengetahuan Responden Terhadap Daging Ayam Alternatif (n=487 responden)

Perkara	Betul	Salah	Tidak pasti
Sumber makanan yang mahal membuatkan daging ayam organik lebih mahal di pasaran berbanding dengan daging jenis ayam lain.	75.6	7.0	17.5
Kandungan lemak yang terkandung dalam daging ayam bergantung kepada corak pemakanan haiwan tersebut.	71.7	10.9	17.5
Faktor seperti jantina, umur dan corak pemakanan ayam mempengaruhi kandungan nutrien dalam daging ayam.	59.5	14.2	26.3
Pemakanan ayam pedaging mengandungi <i>roxarson</i> iaitu sejenis antimikrob yang berfungsi menggalakkan proses pertumbuhan.	39.0	7.0	54.0
Daging ayam kampung didapati agak liat, pejal dan manis berbanding dengan daging ayam pedaging.	82.3	6.0	11.7
Ayam hutan merupakan spesies haiwan liar yang dilindungi di bawah Akta PERHILITAN 76/72.	51.5	8.2	40.2

Selain itu, responden juga mampu menjawab dengan baik apabila diajukan soalan adakah faktor seperti jantina, umur dan corak pemakanan mempengaruhi kandungan nutrien dalam daging ayam. Hampir separuh daripada jumlah responden menjawab dengan betul (59.5%), hanya sedikit menjawab dengan salah (14.2%) dan selebihnya tidak pasti (26.3%). Perbezaan kandungan lemak sesuatu daging dan produk berasaskan daging juga bergantung pada spesies, umur dan bahagian karkas haiwan yang dianalisis (*Livsmedelsverket*, 2004; *Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries & Food*, 1998).

Hasil daripada soal selidik ini juga mendapati jumlah responden yang mengetahui kandungan makanan ayam pedaging mengandungi *roxarson* (sejenis antimikrob yang berfungsi menggalakkan proses tumbesaran) adalah masih di tahap sederhana. Hanya 39.0% daripada mereka menjawab dengan tepat. Sementara, 7% menjawab dengan salah dan jumlah responden yang tidak pasti adalah agak tinggi (54.0%). Menurut Brown (2003), *roxarson* ialah sejenis arsenik yang dicampur bersama makanan ayam pedaging pada kepekatan antara 22.7 sehingga 45.5 gram per ton. Bahan ini berfungsi sebagai agen penggalak pertumbuhan ayam pedaging. Selain itu, ia juga berfungsi untuk mengawal penyakit *coccidiosis* (sejenis penyakit yang disebabkan oleh jangkitan parasit *coccidia* dalam salur pencernaan) (Kennedy, 2001).

Bahan kimia ini tidak berkumpul dalam tisu haiwan tersebut tetapi dikumuhkan. Kesannya, berlaku peningkatan kepekatan arsenik dalam sisa

perkumuhan ayam pedaging (~40 mg/kg) (Brown, 2003). Sisa perkumuhan yang mengandungi bahan kimia *roxarson* boleh membawa kesan buruk kepada sistem tanah dan saliran. Kepekatan arsenik yang tinggi merendahkan aktiviti mikroba dalam tanah dan mendorong tindak balas fitotoksik dalam tumbuhan (Smith *et al.*, 1998).

Hampir keseluruhan responden (82.3%) mengetahui daging ayam kampung didapati agak liat, pejal dan manis berbanding dengan daging ayam pedaging. Sejumlah 6.0% responden sahaja yang menjawab dengan salah. Sementara, 11.7% responden tidak pasti jawabannya. Ayam kampung merupakan hasil daripada percantuman benih antara ayam hutan dan ayam domestik kacukan eksotik yang diperkenalkan di Eropah terutamanya British (Duguma, 2006). Makanan ayam kampung terdiri daripada sisa makanan yang dibuang manusia, seperti nasi dan hampas kelapa (Ramlah, 1996). Haiwan ini makan sekali atau dua kali sahaja dalam sehari dan kebiasaannya, ayam ini menghabiskan waktu seharian dengan mencari makanan termasuklah serangga, tumbuhan seperti rumput dan buah-buahan serta cacing tanah. Rutin harian inilah yang membuatkan daging ayam kampung mengandungi lemak dan berat otot yang lebih rendah berbanding dengan ayam pedaging. Hal ini kerana ayam kampung menggunakan tenaga yang lebih banyak untuk mencari makanan dan seterusnya menyebabkan dagingnya juga lebih liat kerana kandungan protein yang tinggi.

Soalan terakhir ialah berkenaan pengetahuan responden mengenai ayam hutan yang menjadi antara spesies haiwan liar yang dilindungi di bawah Akta PERHILITAN 76/72. Peratus responden yang menjawab dengan tepat adalah tinggi (51.5%), diikuti dengan jawapan salah (8.2%) dan tidak pasti (40.2%). Walaupun pengetahuan berkenaan status haiwan tersebut diketahui ramai, namun masih ada yang mendapatkannya tanpa kebenaran pihak PERHILITAN, seperti tiada lesen memburu dan memasang perangkap yang tidak dibenarkan. Menurut Akta tersebut, mana-mana orang yang memburu atau menyimpan mana-mana hidupan liar yang dilindungi (selain hidupan liar yang dilindungi yang tidak matang atau hidupan liar betina yang dilindungi); atau mengambil atau menyimpan mana-mana bahagian atau terbitan mana-mana hidupan liar yang dilindungi tanpa suatu lesen melakukan suatu kesalahan dan boleh, apabila disabitkan, didenda tidak melebihi lima puluh ribu ringgit atau dipenjarakan selama tempoh tidak melebihi dua tahun atau kedua-duanya (Akta Pemuliharaan Hidupan Liar 2010).

Kesimpulan

Pengambilan daging ayam alternatif dalam kalangan pengguna pada hari ini masih di tahap sederhana. Buktinya, hanya separuh responden pernah mengambil daging ayam organik dan hanya sebilangan kecil (satu per empat)

responden pernah mengambil daging ayam kampung. Antara puncanya adalah kurang kesedaran dalam kalangan mereka mengenai khasiat daging ayam alternatif berbanding dengan ayam pedaging yang diternak secara konvensional. Selain itu, harga daging ayam alternatif yang tinggi berbanding dengan ayam pedaging dan pengambilan daging ayam pedaging yang telah menjadi rutin sejak dahulu membuatkan mereka sukar untuk beralih kepada daging ayam yang lain. Walaupun telah banyak isu negatif berkaitan ayam pedaging, namun, ia masih menjadi pilihan utama pengguna di Malaysia. Hal ini membuktikan kebanyakan pengguna masih tidak mengambil serius isu kesihatan. Oleh itu, usaha meningkatkan kesedaran pengguna terhadap daging ayam alternatif adalah diperlukan untuk kesihatan masyarakat yang lebih baik.

Rujukan

Akta Pemuliharaan Hidupan Liar 2010 (Akta 716). 2010. Undang – undang Malaysia.

Alanis, A. J. (2005). Resistance to antibiotics: are we in the post-antibiotic era? *Archives of Medical Research*, 36, 697–705.

Almeida, I. L., Junqueira, A. M. R., & Zamudio, L. H. B. (2009). Consumers evolution and perception of chicken meat quality in Brasilia, Brazil as a function of family income. VII International PENSA Conference. Dimuat turun daripada http://www.pensaconference.org/vii_pensa_conference/flash/pdf/01/AGN%2052%20aprov.pdf

Barton, M. D. (2000). Antibiotic use in animal feed and its impact on human health. *Nutrition Research Reviews*, 13, 279-299.

Becker, T. (2000). Consumer perceptions of fresh meat quality: a framework for analysis. *British Food Journal*, 102, 158–176.

Brown, B. L. (2003). The absorption of roxarsone, an organoarsenical animal feed additive. Master Thesis. Faculty of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. Dimuat turun daripada <http://scholar.lib.vt.edu/theses/available/etd-05232003.../Brown.pdf>.

Bogaard, A. E. V. D. & Stobberingh, E. E. (2000). Epidemiology of resistance to antibiotics. Links between animals and humans. *International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents*, 14, 327-335.

Bogosavljević-Bošković, S. , Pavlovski, Zlatica., Petrović, M. D., Dosković, V., & Rakonjac, S. (2010). Broiler meat quality: Proteins and lipids of muscle tissue. *African Journal of Biotechnology*, 9 (54), 9177-9182.

Castellini, C., Dal Bosco, A., Mugnai, C., & Bernardini, M. (2002). Performance and behaviour of chickens with different growing rate reared according to the organic system. *Italian Journal Animal Science*, 1, 291.

Castellini C., Dal Bosco A, Mugnai, C., & Pedrazzoli M. (2006). Comparison of two chicken genotypes organically reared: oxidative stability and other qualitative traits. *Italian Journal Animal Science*, 5, 29.

Castellini, C. & Mourvaki, E. (2007). Sensory attributes of organic poultry meat and consumer perception. European Symposium on the quality of poultry meat. Dimuat turun daripada http://www.equizoobio.it/downloads/castellini_03.pdf, pada Sept. 2-5,2007.

Chang, H.S. (2007). Overview of the world broiler industry: implications for the Philippines. *Asian Journal of Agriculture and Development*, 4(2), 68 - 82.

Chinnici G., D'Amigo, M., & Pecorino B. (2002). A multivariate statistical analysis on the consumers of organic products. *British Food Journal*, 104(3-5), 187–199.

Chuaynukool, K., Wattanachant, S., & Siripongvutikorn, S. (2007). Chemical and physical properties of raw and cooked spent hen, broiler and Thai Indigenous chicken muscles in mixed herbs acidified soup (Tom Yum). *Journal of Food Technology*, 5(2), 180-186.

Collignon, P. (2009). The use of antibiotics in food production animals; does this cause human health problems? RSPCA Australia Scientific Seminar. Dimuat turun daripada http://www.rspca.org.au/assets/files/seminars09_paper_collignon.pdf.

Donoghue, D. J. (2003). Antibiotic residues in poultry tissues and eggs: human health concerns? *Poultry Science*, 82, 618–621.

Dransfield, E., Zamora, F., & Bayle, M.C. (1998). Consumer selection of steaks as influenced by information and price index. *Food Quality and Preference*, 9(5), 321-326.

Duguma R. (2006). Phenotypic characterization of some indigenous chicken ecotypes of Ethiopia. *Livestock Research For Rural Development*, 18, 131.

Farmer, L.J., Perry, G. C, Lewis., P.D., Nute, G.R., Piggott, J.R., & Patterson, R.L.S. (1997). Responses of two genotypes of chicken to the diets and stocking densities of conventional UK and Label Rouge production systems. II. Sensory attributes. *Meat Science*, 47, 77.

Fanatico, A. (2008). Organic poultry production in the United States. *National Sustainable Agriculture*. Dimuat turun daripada [http:// www.attra.ncat.org/attra-pub/PDF/organicpoultry.pdf](http://www.attra.ncat.org/attra-pub/PDF/organicpoultry.pdf).

Farina, T. M. Q. & Almeida, S. F. (2003). Consumer Perception on Alternative Poultry. *International Food and Agribusiness Management Review*, 5. Dimuat turun daripada [http:// www.bc.edu/tatiana-farina/Tatiana files/AlternativeChicken.pdf](http://www.bc.edu/tatiana-farina/Tatiana_files/AlternativeChicken.pdf).

Fearne, A., Hornibrook, S., & Dedman, S. (2001). The management of perceived risk in the food supply chain: A comparative study of retailer-led beef quality assurance schemes in Germany and Italy. *International Food and Agribusiness Management Review*, 4, 19–36.

Fotopolous, C. & Krystallis, A. (2002). Purchasing motives and profile of Greek organic consumer: a countrywide survey. *British Food Journal*, 9(104), 730 – 764.

Gardyn, R. (2002). The big O. *American Demographics*, 26(2), 20.

Gandhi, R. & Snedeker, S. M. (2000). Consumer concerns about hormones in food. *Cornell University Program on Breast Cancer and Environmental Risk Factors in New York State (BCERF)*. 37th Edition. Dimuat turun daripada <http://www.envirocancer.cornell.edu/Factsheet/Diet/fs37.hormones.cfm>.

Ganabadi S., Mutuviren S., Hilmi M. A., Babjee S. M. A., Yaakub H., & Fakurazi S. (2009). Carcass composition of jungle fowl in comparison with broilers and indigenous chicken. *Asian Journal of Animal Science*, 3(1), 13–17.

Grashorn, M.A. & Serini C. (2006). Quality of chicken meat from conventional and organic production. OP XII European Poultry Conference, Verona 210237. Dimuat turun daripada <http://www.cabi.org/animalscience/Uploads/File/.../10237.pdf>.

Henson, S. & Northen, J. (2000). Consumer assessment of the safety of beef at the point of purchase: A Pan-European study. *Journal of Agricultural Economics*, 51, 90–105.

Harmon, J. (2011). *What are antibiotics?* Dimuat turun daripada <http://www.bionewsonline.com/l/what-is-antibiotic.html>

Harper, G.C. & Makatouni, A. (2002). Consumer perception of organic food production and farm animal welfare, *British Food Journal*, 104,3-5, 287-99.

Husak, R. L., Sebranek, J. G., & Bregendahl, K. (2008). A survey of commercially available broilers marketed as organic, free-range, and conventional broilers for cooked meat yields, meat composition, and relative value. *Poultry Science*, 87, 2367–2376.

Jahan, K., Paterson, A., & Piggott, J.R. (2005). Sensory quality in retailed organic, free range and corn-fed chicken breast. *Food Research International*, 38, 495.

Jamilah, I., Norsuhana A.H., & Marina, M. (2011), Pengambilan dan pengetahuan pelajar Pusat Pengajian Pendidikan Jarak Jauh (PPPJJ), Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), Pulau Pinang terhadap daging ayam. *Jurnal Pengguna*,55-69.

Jaturasitha, S., R. Khiaosaard, A. Pongpaew, A. Leawtharakul, S. Saitong, T. Apichatsarangkul., & Leungwunta,V. (2004). Carcass and indirect meat quality of native and Kai Baan Thai chickens with different sex and slaughter weight. Pg 116–126 in Proceeding 42nd Annual Conference Kasetsart University. Bangkok, Thailand. (in Thai). Dimuat turun daripada <http://www.ps.fass.org/content/87/1/160.full>.

Jaturasitha, S., Srikanchai, T., Kreuzer, M., & Wicke, M. (2008). Differences in carcass and meat characteristics between chicken indigenous to Northern Thailand (Black-Boned and Thai Native) and imported extensive breeds (Bresse and Rhode Island Red). *Poultry Science*, 87,160–169.

Jime´nez-Colmenero, F. Carballo, J., & Cofrades, S. (2001). Healthier meat and meat products: their role as functional foods. *Meat Science*, 59, 5–13.

Kennedy, M.J. (2001). Reviewed paper presentation at the European Coccidiosis discussion group organised by the Central Veterinary Laboratory, Weybride, United Kingdom. Dimuat turun daripada <http://www.poultry-health.com/fora/inthelth/eurcoc01.htm>.

Koohmarie, M. (1995). The biological basis of meat tenderness and potential genetic approaches for its control and prediction. In Proceeding 48th Annual Recipient Meat Conference,48,69. Dimuat turun daripada <http://www.ars.usda.gov/SP2UserFiles/Place/54380530/1995480069.pdf>

Lawlor, J. B., Sheehan, E. M., Delahunty, C. M., Kerry, J. P., & Morrissey, P. A. (2003). Sensory characteristics and consumer preference for cooked chicken breasts from organic, corn-fed, free-range and conventionally reared animals. *International Journal of Poultry Science*, 2, 409-416.

Larue, B., West, G., Gendron, C., & Lambert, R. (2004). Consumer response to functional foods produced by conventional, organic, or genetic manipulation. *Agribusiness*, 20(2), 155-156.

Livsmedelsverket. (2004). *Livmedelsdatabasen*. Dimuat turun daripada <http://www.slv.se>.

Lofa, M. & Weiderpassa, E. (2009). Impact of diet on breast cancer risk. *Current Opinion in Obstetrics and Gynecology*, 21,80-85.

McCormick, R. J. (1994). The flexibility of the collagen compartment of muscle. *Meat Science*, 36,79.

Mente, A., Koning, L., & Shannon, H. S. (2009). Systematic review of the evidence supporting a causal link between dietary factors and coronary heart disease. *Archives of Internal Medicine*, 169(7),659-669.

Mintert, J., Lusk, J. L., Schroeder, T. C., Fox, J. A., & Valuing, K. M. (2000). Beef tenderness. Technology Bulletin. MF-2464. Kansas State University Agricultural Experiment Station and Cooperative Extension Service, Kansas City, KS. Dimuat turun daripada http://www.agmanager.info/livestock/marketing/bulletins_2/industry/demand/MF2464.pdf.

Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food. (1998). *Fatty acids. Seventh supplement to McCance & Widdowson's The composition of foods*. London: Royal Society of Chemistry, Cambridge, and the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food. Dimuat turun daripada <http://www.nelfood.com/help/library/Composition-of-Foods.pdf>.

Muchenje, V., Dzama, K., Chimonyo, M., Strydom, P. E., & Raats, J. G. (2008). Meat quality of Nguni, Bonsmara and Angus steers raised on natural pasture on the Eastern Cape of South Africa. *Meat Science*, 79, 20-28.

Northcutt, J. K. (2009). *Factors affecting poultry meat quality*. Dimuat turun daripada <http://www.thepoultrysite.com/articles/1312/factors-affecting-poultry-meat-quality>

Owens, C.M., Fanatico, A.C., Pillai, P.B., Meullenet, J.F., & Emmert, J. L. (2006). *Evaluation of alternative genotypes and production systems for natural and organic poultry markets in the U.S.* XII European Poultry Conference, Verona 10730. Dimuat turun daripada <http://www.cabdirect.org/abstracts/20093210435.html>.

Pereira da Fonseca, M. C. & Salay, E. (2008). Beef, chicken and pork consumption and consumer safety and nutritional concerns in the City of Campinas, Brazil. *Food Control*, 19, 1051–1058.

Probst, Y. (2009). *Nutrient composition of chicken meat*. Rural Industries Research and Development Corporation (RIRDC) Publication No 08/210. Dimuat turun daripada <http://www.rirdc.infoservices.com.au/downloads/08-210.pdf>.

Ramlah, A. H. (1996). Performance of village fowl in Malaysia. *World Poultry Science Journal*. 527,75 – 79.

Richardson, N. J., Shepherd, R., & Elliman, N. A. (1993). Current attitudes and future influences on meat consumption in the UK. *Appetite*, 21,41–51.

Roosen, J., Lusk, J. L., & Fox, J. A. (2003). Consumer demand for and attitudes toward alternative beef labeling strategies in France, Germany and the UK. *Agribusiness*, 19, 77–90.

Sundrum, A. Schneider, K., & Richter, U. (2005). Possibilities and limitations of protein supply in organic poultry and pig production, Research to support revision of the EU Regulation on organic agriculture. *Organic Revision*. Dimuat turun daripada www.organicrevision.org/.../Preliminary_Report_Feed_EC2092_Revision_WP4_1.pdf.

Smith, E., Naidu, R., & Alston, A. (1998). Arsenic in the soil environment: a review. *Advances in Agronomy*, 64,149-195.

Vackier, I. & Verbeke, W. (2003). *The science - Consumer Perception gap on meat quality and safety: Impact of consumer characteristics*. In Food quality products in the advent of 21st century: Production, demand and public policy, 83rd EAAE seminar, Chania, Greece, September. Dimuat turun daripada <http://edepot.wur.nl/119309>.

Wattanachant, S., Benjakul, S., & Ledward D. A. (2004). Composition, Color, and Texture of Thai Indigenous and Broiler Chicken Muscles. *Poultry Science*, 83,123–128.

Wattanachant, S. (2009). Factors affecting the quality characteristics of Thai indigenous chicken meat. *Suranaree Journal of Science and Technology*, 317-322.

Weston, A. R., Rogers, W., & Althen, G. (2002). Review: the role of collagen in meat tenderness. *The Profesional Animal Scientist*, 18, 107-111.

Wier, M. & Calverly, C. (2002). Market potential for organic foods in Europe. *British Food Journal*, 104(1), 45 – 62.

Whole Foods Market. (2003). *One year after USDA organic standards are enacted more Americans are consuming organic food*. Dimuat turun daripada http://www.wholefoods.com/company/pr_10-14-03.html.

Whole Foods Market. (2004). *Organic foods continue to grow in popularity according to Whole Foods Market survey*. Dimuat turun daripada http://www.wholefoods.com/company/pr_10-21-04.html.

Wiseman, J., Redshaw, M. S., Jagger, S., Nute, G. R., Whittington, F. M., & Wood, J. D. (1999). Influence of type and dietary rate of inclusion of non-starch polysaccharides on skatole content and meat quality of finishing pigs. *Animal Science*, 69,123–133.

Wood, J. D. & Enser, M. (1997). Factors influencing fatty acids in meat and the role of antioxidants in improving meat quality. *British Journal of Nutrition*, 78,S49–S60.

AKTIVITI MASA LAPANG DALAM KALANGAN REMAJA

Siti Balkis Bari
Naimah Mohd Salleh
Jabatan Pengurusan Sumber dan Pengajian Pengguna
Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Putra Malaysia

Pengenalan

Secara umumnya setiap remaja mempunyai masa yang tidak menuntutnya untuk melakukan kerja-kerja rasmi, seperti belajar bagi yang masih bersekolah. Oleh itu, pada waktu tersebut selalunya golongan ini akan melibatkan diri dalam pelbagai aktiviti yang dianjurkan oleh pihak kerajaan, swasta atau organisasi bagi memenuhi masa yang terluang. Jenis aktiviti yang ingin disertai dan jumlah jam yang ingin digunakan adalah mengikut kehendak remaja itu sendiri tanpa diatur atau dipaksa oleh mana-mana pihak. Namun begitu, masa dan jenis aktiviti akan dihadkan kepada golongan remaja jika sesuatu aktiviti yang dilakukan terdapat unsur-unsur jenayah dan boleh mengundang bahaya kepada mereka. Selain itu, latar belakang keluarga seperti lokasi tempat tinggal dan pendapatan juga boleh mempengaruhi jenis aktiviti yang akan dilakukan pada masa lapang dalam kalangan remaja. Pengisian aktiviti-aktiviti yang berfaedah dalam masa lapang boleh mengurangkan masalah salah laku dalam kalangan remaja dan dapat membantu mematangkan diri bagi menjadi manusia yang berguna kepada agama, bangsa dan negara.

Pelbagai definisi masa lapang yang diutarakan oleh golongan cendiakiawan. Namun begitu, kebanyakan daripada golongan ini bersetuju bahawa masa lapang didefinisikan sebagai waktu atau masa yang diperolehi oleh seseorang itu yang tidak digunakan untuk kerja-kerja rasmi seperti membuat kerja-kerja sekolah, menghadiri kelas tambahan dan lain-lain (*World Youth Report*, 2003). Jumlah masa lapang yang diperolehi oleh golongan remaja adalah berbeza mengikut budaya, gender, bangsa, agama dan tempat tinggal. Di negara membangun, didapati remaja lelaki mempunyai jumlah masa lapang yang melebihi remaja perempuan. Laporan ini ditambah lagi dengan hanya setengah warga Amerika mempunyai masa lapang, sementara hanya sedikit sahaja warga Eropah mempunyai masa lapang manakala, $\frac{1}{4}$ daripada bilangan penduduk Asia mempunyai masa lapang (*World Youth Report*, 2003).

Dalam konteks Malaysia, negeri Selangor dipilih bagi melihat aktiviti yang dilakukan oleh golongan remaja pada masa lapang. Hal ini kerana Selangor merupakan antara negeri yang termaju di Malaysia. Infrastruktur yang mudah diperolehi di kawasan tersebut memudahkan penduduk-penduduk, terutamanya golongan remaja melakukan aktiviti yang disukai. Waktu persekolahan di Malaysia biasanya bermula pada jam 7.00 pagi hingga 2.00 petang. Hari persekolahan bagi kawasan Selangor adalah pada hari Isnin hingga Jumaat. Cuti sekolah yang diperuntukan oleh kerajaan Malaysia pada tahun 2011 ialah sebanyak empat kali. Cuti tersebut adalah pada pertengahan Mac, akhir Mei, akhir Ogos dan awal November. Oleh itu, secara teknikalnya cuti sekolah merupakan waktu senggang bagi kebanyakan remaja yang bersekolah di Malaysia. Pelbagai aktiviti yang dilakukan oleh golongan remaja agar waktu senggangnya terisi. Pemilihan aktiviti yang hendak dilakukan pada waktu tersebut penting agar aktiviti yang dilakukan bukan sahaja memenuhi masa lapang, malah ia juga mendatangkan kebaikan kepada remaja tersebut. Tambahan, aktiviti yang dilakukan seharusnya memberi faedah kepada remaja, keluarga serta negara dan bukannya aktiviti negatif yang akan meningkatkan data statistik masalah sosial di negara ini. Oleh itu, jenis aktiviti yang dilakukan perlu diambil kira oleh golongan remaja agar aktiviti yang bakal dilakukan memberi kebaikan kepada semua.

Aktiviti masa lapang yang berbentuk fizikal bukan sahaja dilakukan bagi merehatkan minda malah ia boleh mendatangkan kebaikan kepada kesihatan tubuh badan. Aktiviti yang bertujuan untuk merehatkan diri selepas penat belajar juga boleh menjana pendapatan sekiranya individu tersebut bijak memilih aktiviti yang mendatangkan sumber pendapatan. Selain itu, aktiviti yang kurang memerlukan pergerakan fizikal seperti menonton televisyen boleh mengundang kesan yang tidak baik kepada kesihatan sekiranya aktiviti ini terlalu banyak dilakukan berbanding dengan aktiviti fizikal lain. Aktiviti yang kurang pergerakan fizikal jika dilakukan terlalu kerap tanpa diselangi dengan aktiviti fizikal boleh meyumbang kepada serangan penyakit terhadap tubuh badan.

Jenis aktiviti yang dilakukan pada masa lapang bergantung kepada keupayaan diri seseorang individu itu. Jika seseorang itu memiliki tubuh yang gemuk, kemungkinan mereka tidak gemar melakukan aktiviti yang berat atau lasak. Mereka lebih suka melakukan aktiviti yang ringan seperti menonton televisyen, membaca buku dan melayari Internet. Kemampuan diri, umur dan jantina mempunyai kaitan dengan aktiviti-aktiviti yang dilakukan pada masa lapang (Mota, Santos & Ribeiro, 2008). Aktiviti-aktiviti yang dilakukan pada masa remaja akan mempengaruhi tahap kesihatan pada masa tua. Di samping itu, aktif atau pasifnya aktiviti pada peringkat umur tua dipengaruhi oleh jenis aktiviti yang dilakukan pada masa muda. Oleh yang

demikian, pemilihan aktiviti masa lapang pada masa remaja penting untuk kesihatan pada masa tua.

Aktiviti yang aktif pada masa lapang selalunya aktiviti yang dikaitkan dengan pergerakan anggota badan. Perkumuhan tubuh badan seperti perpeluhan akan berlaku sekiranya seseorang itu melakukan aktiviti-aktiviti yang aktif seperti berbasikal, berlari dan bersukan. Aktiviti fizikal selalunya dilakukan selepas waktu pembelajaran di sekolah bagi remaja yang masih bersekolah. Aktiviti seperti bergotong-royong dalam komuniti adalah salah satu aktiviti fizikal yang bukan sahaja boleh menyumbangkan kepada kesihatan tubuh badan, malah mampu memupuk semangat kekitaan dalam kalangan masyarakat.

Peredaran satu zaman ke zaman yang lain boleh mengubah jenis aktiviti yang dilakukan oleh golongan remaja pada masa lapang. Hobi seperti bermain alat muzik, bersukan, berdrama, berseni dan menari merupakan aktiviti yang sentiasa dipilih oleh remaja pada zaman akhir 90-an (Aittola,1998). Pada abad ke-21 pula, kewujudan laman sosial *facebook* pada masa ini menyebabkan ramai remaja Malaysia seakan-akan melupakan aktiviti seperti bersukan, memancing dan melukis pada masa lapang. Mereka lebih gemar duduk berjam-jam di hadapan komputer melayari Internet dan bermain permainan video. Aktiviti ini jika dilakukan berterusan tanpa diselangi dengan aktiviti yang aktif ditakuti akan menurunkan tahap kesihatan tubuh badan.

Golongan remaja lebih dikenali sebagai golongan yang berdarah muda. Tindakan mereka yang bersemangat untuk mencuba sesuatu yang baharu dan mencabar tidak boleh dihalang sekiranya mereka berkeinginan melakukan sesuatu walaupun ia memberi kemudahan kepada diri dan keluarga. Selain itu, golongan ini juga gemar mencerap sesuatu tingkah laku dan mudah dipengaruhi oleh rakan-rakan sebaya. Dalam memenuhi masa senggang, terdapat juga sesetengah remaja memilih aktiviti yang tidak bermoral seperti lumba haram, merokok, melepak dan menonton video lucu. Oleh itu, kebijaksanaan golongan remaja memilih jenis aktiviti yang ingin dilakukan pada masa lapang boleh memberi implikasi yang baik kepada diri, keluarga dan masyarakat.

Objektif kajian

Kajian ini dijalankan bagi mengenal pasti jenis aktiviti masa lapang dalam kalangan remaja.

Kajian literatur

Pada masa kini, isu yang sering dibincangkan ialah mengenai obesiti atau lebih berat badan dalam kalangan pelajar sekolah menengah dan rendah di Malaysia. Kegemukan dan lebih berat badan yang melanda remaja boleh menyebabkan mereka kurang memilih melakukan aktiviti fizikal pada masa lapang dan ini akan meningkatkan aktiviti sedentari seperti menonton televisyen (Biddle, Mashall, Gorely & Cameron, 2009). Gaya hidup sedentari ialah gaya hidup yang tidak mempunyai aktiviti fizikal yang teratur (Koezuke, Koo, Allison, Adlaf & Gooden, 2006). Keseimbangan antara aktiviti sedentari dan aktiviti fizikal mempunyai hubungan dengan bilangan jumlah tenaga yang digunakan dalam melakukan aktiviti pada masa lapang. Gaya hidup sedentari boleh menyumbang kepada penyakit-penyakit penyebab kematian. Hal ini dikukuhkan lagi dengan pernyataan bahawa gaya hidup sedentari dan kurangnya aktiviti fizikal meyumbang kepada faktor-faktor penyakit seperti diabetes, darah tinggi, obesiti dan lain-lain (Langdon & Roberts, 2001).

Walau bagaimanapun, kegemukan yang melanda pelajar di Malaysia dewasa ini dikatakan berpunca daripada pengambilan nasi lemak yang dibeli di kantin sekolah. Namun begitu, nasi lemak bukanlah penyumbang 100 peratus kegemukan seseorang individu. Kegemukan boleh terjadi disebabkan kurang aktiviti yang boleh mengeluarkan peluh. Banyaknya aktiviti seperti menonton televisyen boleh menyebabkan golongan remaja mengalami lebih berat badan dan obesiti (Gortmaker, Must & Sobol, 1996). Menurut penyelidik-penyelidik ini lagi, program-program televisyen yang menarik minat remaja menontonnya dan pengenalan teknologi baharu mempunyai kaitan dengan aktiviti sedentari atau aktiviti yang kurang menggunakan pergerakan fizikal yang banyak. Selain itu, pandangan yang dikemukakan melalui majalah-majalah akademik dan media massa mengatakan bahawa aktiviti menonton televisyen dan kemunculan teknologi baharu mampu menggantikan aktiviti fizikal remaja sekolah (Utter, Neumark-Sztainer, Jeffrey & Story, 2003).

Menghadapi masalah lebih berat badan dalam kalangan remaja sekolah adalah salah satu implikasi negatif berikutan banyaknya melakukan aktiviti sedentari pada masa lapang. Berlebihan berat badan boleh menyebabkan seseorang mudah menghadapi penyakit obesiti. Penyakit obesiti boleh disebabkan oleh keturunan, pemakanan dan aktiviti-aktiviti yang dilakukan. Aktiviti senaman yang berjadual boleh mengelakkan seseorang individu itu diserang penyakit ini. Aktiviti fizikal seperti berbasikal, berlari-lari anak dan berenang boleh mencegah penyakit-penyakit yang kronik antaranya adalah obesiti (Herman, Hopmann & Craig, 2010). Kajian lepas mendapati 59% remaja Kanada mempunyai lebih berat badan dan obesiti manakala 51% melakukan aktiviti-aktiviti yang aktif pada masa lapang bagi mengekalkan

tubuh badan yang sihat tanpa penyakit (*Statistik Kanada*, 2006). Kajian di Amerika mendapati penghidap obesiti melakukan aktiviti yang memerlukan pergerakan fizikal, seperti bersenam sekurang-kurangnya 14 hari dalam sebulan. Malahan, mereka juga mengalami masalah kesihatan dari segi mental dan fizikal menyebabkan mereka tidak mengawal jenis makanan yang diambil.

Di Malaysia, peningkatan masalah obesiti dalam kalangan kanak-kanak berumur 10 hingga 17 tahun, menunjukkan peratusan yang membimbangkan iaitu daripada 6.6% kepada 13.8% dalam tempoh lima tahun kebelakangan ini (Kajian Kementerian Kesihatan, 2011). Masalah obesiti selalunya dikaitkan dengan aktiviti yang dilakukan dan pemakanan seharian yang diambil. Masalah ini menjadi semakin memburuk sekiranya makanan yang diambil tidak seimbang dengan aktiviti fizikal yang dilakukan. Individu yang mengamalkan aktiviti yang memerlukan pergerakan fizikal lebih berkualiti kesihatannya berbanding dengan individu yang banyak menjalankan aktiviti yang pasif seperti membaca buku, menonton televisyen dan melayari Internet (Sanchez-Lopez, Soleedo-Aguilez, Solera-Martinez, Moya Martinez, Notario-Polero & Martinez Valcaino, 2008). Kanak-kanak yang mengalami lebih berat dan menghidap obesiti akan mengalami estim diri yang rendah yang akan dibawa hingga ke zaman remaja (Janssen & Strauss, 1999). Pada umur remaja, mereka yang mempunyai estim diri yang rendah disebabkan lebih berat badan mudah mengalami kemurungan dan akan mudah menjadi mangsa buli oleh rakan sebaya (Janssen, Craig, Boyce & Pickett, 2004). Aktiviti-aktiviti fizikal mempunyai kaitan yang positif dengan peningkatan estim diri, serta boleh mengurangkan perasaan cemas dalam diri dan boleh mengelakkan daripada berlakunya tekanan fikiran (Strong, Malina, Blimkie, Daniels, Dishen & Fulhem, 2005). Aktiviti-aktiviti fizikal juga boleh memberi kesan kepada kehidupan sosial, psikologi dan perkembangan kognitif. Oleh itu, pada hakikatnya lebih berat badan akan mempengaruhi kehidupan yang berkualiti pada masa akan datang (Story, Neumark, Strainer, Sherwood & Holt, 2002).

Indeks jisim tubuh (BMI) seseorang individu boleh menentukan sama ada mereka berada pada tahap obesiti atau sebaliknya. BMI boleh diperoleh dengan menggunakan formula, iaitu berat dalam senti meter dibahagi dengan tinggi dalam meter di kuasa dua. Kategori kurang berat badan ialah sekiranya BMI individu terbabit berada pada julat antara 16 hingga 18.5. Kategori normal ialah BMI 18.5 hingga 25. Kategori lebih berat ialah 25 hingga 30 dan kategori obes ialah BMI 30 ke atas. Kesimpulannya, pemilihan aktiviti-aktiviti yang aktif perlu dilakukan oleh remaja pada masa lapang kerana ia dapat memberikan impak yang baik kepada kesihatan bukan sahaja untuk jangka masa pendek, malah ia turut memberi kesejahteraan hidup untuk jangka masa yang panjang. Tambahan, badan yang sihat seperti tidak

mengalami kegemukan berlebihan akan meningkatkan keyakinan diri apabila berada dalam khalayak ramai. Badan yang sihat lebih mempunyai ketrampilan yang menarik pada mata masyarakat umum.

Terdapat juga aktiviti yang berbentuk fizikal, namun ia merupakan aktiviti yang tidak bermoral. Berlumba haram merupakan aktiviti fizikal tidak bermoral yang menjadi kegemaran sesetengah remaja melakukannya pada waktu senggang. Merokok pula merupakan aktiviti bukan fizikal yang boleh memberi kesan yang tidak baik kepada kesihatan. Isu ini sentiasa menjadi perbualan dan perbincangan utama masyarakat umum. Merokok bukan sahaja memberi kesan negatif kepada perokok malah kepada masyarakat sekeliling yang tidak merokok. Asap rokok yang dihidu oleh masyarakat sekeliling boleh menjejaskan tahap kefungsihan paru-paru dan jantung. Dianggarkan 5 juta penduduk dunia mati disebabkan asap rokok (Ezzati & Lopez, 2003). Merokok dan jarang melakukan aktiviti yang berbentuk fizikal boleh menurunkan sistem kefungsihan badan. Tambahan, jika perokok tidak menjaga makanan yang diambil ini akan memburukkan lagi kesihatan si perokok. Si perokok juga mudah dijangkiti pelbagai jenis penyakit. Aktiviti-aktiviti yang tidak bermoral ini bukan sahaja mendatangkan kemudaratan kepada diri malah ia menjadi punca berlakunya penyakit sosial dalam kalangan masyarakat.

Setiap individu mempunyai kegemaran tersendiri berkenaan dengan aktiviti yang dilakukan pada masa lapang. Aktiviti yang dilakukan biasanya bergantung kepada kemampuan diri, umur dan jantina. Pasif atau aktifnya aktiviti yang dilakukan adalah bergantung pada minat dan keinginan diri seseorang itu. Namun begitu, bentuk aktiviti yang hendak dilakukan sama ada pasif atau aktif perlu diambil kira oleh golongan remaja. Kawan menjadi salah satu sebab mengapa seseorang remaja itu melakukan aktiviti tersebut. Sekiranya seseorang individu itu mempunyai teman untuk melakukan aktiviti tersebut, semangat mereka lebih tinggi berbanding dengan jika mereka berseorangan.

Remaja perempuan dan lelaki mempunyai pandangan masing-masing mengenai aktiviti yang dilakukan pada masa lapang. Remaja lelaki lebih gemar melakukan aktiviti yang lasak berbanding dengan remaja perempuan. Remaja perempuan yang berumur 13 tahun memperuntukkan masa sebanyak 10 minit sehari bagi aktiviti berjalan (Pahkala, Heinonen, Langshore, Hakala, Sillamaki & Siwell, 2007). Namun begitu, remaja lelaki lebih memilih aktiviti yang aktif berbanding dengan remaja perempuan (Trost *et al.*, 2003). Kajian di United Kingdom mendapati bahawa remaja lelaki dan perempuan lebih cenderung menonton teliviesyen selepas waktu sekolah berbanding dengan melakukan aktiviti riadah yang lain dengan laporan tontonan televisyen menunjukkan sekurang-kurangnya dua kali sehari bagi remaja

lelaki manakala tiga kali sehari bagi remaja perempuan (Biddle *et al.*, 2009). Penemuan lepas tersebut seperti menunjukkan bahawa remaja perempuan kebanyakannya mempamerkan tahap kecergasan yang rendah berbanding dengan remaja lelaki. Tambahan, pada waktu-waktu mencapai kematangan (Sallis, Prochaska & Taylor, 2000). Apabila mencapai akil baligh, didapati remaja perempuan akan mengalami penurunan dari segi melibatkan diri dengan aktiviti fizikal seperti berbasikal dan berlari berbanding dengan remaja lelaki (Davison, Cutting & Birch, 2003). Namun begitu, *Laporan Remaja Dunia* pada tahun 2003 mendapati remaja Asia Timur, Eropah dan Amerika Utara memperuntukan masa menonton televisyen sebanyak dua jam sehari, dengan remaja lelaki lebih gemar menonton berbanding dengan remaja perempuan. Bagi aktiviti membaca, kesemua kawasan ini kurang melakukan aktiviti ini pada waktu lapang.

Selain faktor kematangan diri, bebanan sebagai seorang pelajar sekolah juga merupakan faktor penyebab aktiviti berbentuk fizikal jarang dilakukan pada masa lapang. Tuntutan dan keinginan untuk mencapai semua “A” dalam subjek yang diambil menyebabkan remaja yang bersekolah lebih suka memilih aktiviti sendentari, seperti membaca buku ilmiah dan mencari maklumat berkenaan pelajaran di Internet. Tanggungjawab menyiapkan tugas-tugas sekolah dan kesibukan sebagai pelajar sekolah menyebabkan pelajar kurang mempunyai masa untuk beriadah dengan melakukan aktiviti seperti bermain bola sepak, bola keranjang dan badminton. Kepenatan badan setelah seharian belajar mendorong para pelajar memilih melakukan aktiviti-aktiviti sedentari seperti menonton televisyen, melayari internet dan bermain permainan video (Marshall, Biddle, Sallis, McKenzie & Conway, 2002; Sallis, Prochaska & Taylor, 2000). Adanya subjek Pendidikan Jasmani (PJK) yang diperkenalkan di sekolah membolehkan pelajar bersenam atau bersukan sekurang-kurangnya seminggu sekali. Tambahan, aktiviti fizikal seperti bersukan boleh memberikan kecergasan pada badan dalam kalangan kanak-kanak dan aktiviti ini perlu ditingkatkan bagi mendapatkan tubuh badan yang sihat (Wedderkopp, Froberg & Hansen, 2004).

Namun begitu, terdapat pelajar yang tidak melibatkan diri dalam aktiviti fizikal yang diberi guru sewaktu subjek PJK berlangsung. Ada kalanya pelajar hanya duduk di dalam kelas menyiapkan tugas atau membaca buku. Sepatutnya para pelajar perlu memanfaatkan sepenuhnya masa PJK ini untuk kebaikan diri sendiri. Oleh itu, golongan remaja seharusnya melibatkan diri dalam aktiviti fizikal yang mengeluarkan peluh bagi merehatkan minda dan badan setelah penat belajar. Selain itu, aktiviti ini juga boleh dijadikan pencetus idea kepada aktiviti yang ingin dilakukan pada masa lapang di luar waktu sekolah.

Aktiviti masa senggang golongan remaja ada kalanya dipengaruhi oleh aktiviti yang dilakukan oleh ibu bapa mereka pada waktu senggang. Sekiranya ibu bapa suka bersenam pada waktu lapang, kemungkinan aktiviti tersebut juga diikuti oleh anak mereka. Hal ini kerana aktiviti fizikal yang dilakukan oleh ibu bapa boleh mempengaruhi anak-anak dalam melakukan aktiviti yang sihat ketika waktu senggang (Davidson, 2003). Teladan daripada sikap ibu bapa sangat diperlukan dalam melibatkan anak-anak dengan aktiviti yang berfaedah dan sihat ketika masa lapang (Trost, 2003). Ibu bapa merupakan guru dan perujuk sosial yang penting kepada anak-anak. Disebabkan ibu bapa berfungsi sebagai model dalam rumah tangga, mereka perlu mengatur dan melibatkan diri dalam aktiviti fizikal dan menjadikannya salah satu aktiviti wajib dalam jadual mingguannya (Davidson, 2003). Tidak dinafikan bahawa ibu bapa merupakan panduan utama dalam menggagalkan anak-anak melibatkan diri dalam aktiviti fizikal. Namun begitu, terdapat faktor lain yang juga mendorong remaja melibatkan diri dalam aktiviti berbentuk fizikal pada waktu lapang. Antara faktor tersebut ialah rakan sebaya, latar belakang remaja, persekitaran sekolah, taman permainan yang selamat dan kawasan kejiranan yang memberangsangkan melakukan aktiviti-aktiviti berbentuk fizikal (Sallis, Bauman & Prett, 2000). Namun begitu, ibu bapa tetap menjadi perujuk utama dalam menggerakkan golongan remaja melakukan aktiviti-aktiviti yang berfaedah pada masa lapang.

Oleh itu, golongan remaja perlu memilih aktiviti yang sihat dan berfaedah pada masa lapang agar masa lapang yang ada diisi dengan perkara-perkara yang memberi manfaat kepada diri, keluarga dan masyarakat. Aktiviti yang sihat seperti berbasikal, berlari anak dan berenang berupaya menjadikan jantung kita berfungsi dengan baik dan secara tidak langsung tubuh badan akan menjadi sihat. Aktiviti berbentuk fizikal yang bermoral juga perlu dititikberatkan agar aktiviti yang terisi pada waktu lapang bukan semata-mata menyihatkan badan dan minda, malah ia memberikan kesan yang mendalam terhadap pembentukan sahsiah diri seseorang remaja itu.

Metodologi

Bahagian ini membincangkan kaedah yang digunakan dalam menjalankan kajian. Aspek yang dibincangkan adalah seperti lokasi dan persampelan, instrumen serta pengumpulan data dan penganalisan data.

Kajian dijalankan ke atas remaja yang bersekolah di Sekolah Menengah Kebangsaan (SMK) Rahman Putra, Sungai Buluh, SMK Bukit Sentosa, SMK Jeram, Kuala Selangor, SMK Rantau Panjang dan SMK Rawang. Lokasi dan jumlah bilangan kajian ini boleh dilihat melalui Jadual 1.

Jadual 1: Lokasi dan Bilangan Responden Kajian

Sekolah	Bil. Responden
SMK Bukit Rahman Putra, Sungai buluh	105
SMK Bukit Sentosa	243
SMK Jeram Kuala Selangor	115
SMK Rantau Panjang	121
SMK Rawang	131

Sampel kajian terdiri daripada pelajar tingkatan dua, tiga, empat dan lima yang dipilih secara gabungan persempalan rawak mudah dan berlapis. Sampel kajian telah ditentukan dengan persampelan rawak mudah dan senarai sekolah menengah yang terdapat di negeri Selangor diperoleh daripada Pejabat Pelajaran Negeri. Setiap sekolah telah diberikan nombor. Dengan menggunakan jadual nombor rawak mudah, enam sekolah telah dipilih sebagai lokasi kajian. Bagi memilih responden kajian, persempalan berlapis telah digunakan. Penyelidik telah memutuskan bahawa hanya memilih pelajar menengah atas sahaja. Hal ini kerana penyelidik menjangkakan pelajar menengah atas dapat menjawab soalan yang diajukan berkenaan dengan pengetahuan lestari. Oleh itu pelajar menengah atas dikategorikan mengikut tingkatan empat dan lima. Penyelidik juga memutuskan hanya memilih pelajar tingkatan empat sebagai responden memandangkan pada tahun tersebut pelajar-pelajar ini tidak mengambil peperiksaan Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (SPM). Selepas itu, pelajar-pelajar tingkatan empat tersebut dibahagikan pula mengikut kelas iaitu kelas aliran sains tulen, sains tulen agama, sastera, teknik dan vokasional, agama dan perakaunan. Bagi pemilihan responden, penyelidik telah memilih secara rawak dalam setiap aliran.

Borang soal selidik telah digunakan sebagai instrumen kajian. Borang soal selidik mengandungi aktiviti-aktiviti masa lapang yang kerap dilakukan iaitu menonton televisyen, memasak, melepak, menjahit, bermain permainan video, menonton wayang, berpelesenan, membelibelah, merokok, berbasikal, membaiki alat (radio, televisyen, basikal), mendengar radio atau MP3 (*Moving Picture Experts Group Audio layer 3*), menonton video lucah, melayari Internet, berlumba haram, bersolek, melukis, membaca, bersukan, bermain alat muzik, berehat dan bermain SMS (*Short Massage Service*). Responden perlu menjawab “ya=1” atau “tidak=0” terhadap soalan yang diajukan.

Maklumat dikumpul secara mengedarkan borang soal selidik yang diisi sendiri oleh responden di kelas masing-masing. Pengumpulan data dilakukan

pada awal tahun 2009 dan telah dianalisis menggunakan program SPSS (*Statistical Package for Social Science*). Hasil kajian dibentangkan secara deskriptif.

Hasil kajian

Seramai 915 orang responden yang bersekolah di sekolah menengah di Wilayah Persekutuan Kuala Lumpur dan Selangor terlibat dalam kajian ini. Jadual 2 menunjukkan remaja yang berumur 14 hingga 20 tahun terlibat dalam kajian ini. Kebanyakan (95.4%) responden kajian berumur 16 tahun. Hal ini berlaku kemungkinan disebabkan mereka tidak mengambil peperiksaan besar pada tahun tersebut, iaitu SPM. Oleh itu, mereka mudah memberi kerjasama dan ia tidak mengganggu konsentrasi mereka terhadap pelajaran. Tambahan, penyelidik lebih menfokuskan kepada golongan ini. Dari segi jantina, remaja perempuan (60.1%) lebih ramai yang terlibat dalam kajian ini berbanding dengan remaja lelaki (39.9%). Seramai (40.9%) responden merupakan anak tengah dalam keluarga. Terdapat (35.4%) responden ialah pelajar daripada aliran sains tulen. Kebanyakan (81.3%) responden terlibat dalam aktiviti kokurikulum.

Jadual 2: Maklumat Latar Belakang Responden

Latar Belakang Responden	N	Peratus (%)
Umur (Tahun)		
14	1	0.1
15	7	0.8
16	873	95.9
17	28	3.1
20	1	0.1
Susunan adik – beradik		
Tunggal	54	5.9
Sulung	299	32.7
Tengah	374	40.9
Bongsu	178	19.5

Jadual 2 (sambungan)

Latar Belakang Responden	N	Peratus (%)
Jenis aliran		
Sains tulen	324	35.4
Sains tulen agama	7	0.8
Sains ikthisas	206	22.5
Sains Tambahan	201	22.0
Perdagangan	28	3.1
Sastera	20	2.2
Teknik dan Vokasional	24	2.6
Agama	2	0.2
Perakaunan	4	0.4
Terlibat dalam aktiviti kokurikulum		
Ya	744	81.3
Tidak	161	17.6

Aktiviti masa lapang responden

Jadual 3 menunjukkan aktiviti-aktiviti yang dilakukan oleh responden. Didapati responden kajian kebanyakan gemar menonton televisyen (85.6%) ketika waktu terluang. Hal ini kerana aktiviti ini mudah dilakukan memandangkan pada zaman ini setiap rumah memiliki televisyen. Pada masa ini, terdapat banyak program berbentuk hiburan berbanding dengan program-program yang berfaedah yang dipaparkan di media massa. Keadaan ini sesuai dengan jiwa remaja yang gemarkan hiburan. Justeru, tidak hairanlah ramai responden kajian melakukan aktiviti ini ketika masa lapang. Tambahan lagi, aktiviti ini mudah dilakukan dan tidak memerlukan tenaga yang lebih untuk melakukannya. Jika aktiviti ini sering dilakukan pada masa lapang ia mungkin akan menurunkan tahap kesihatan badan kerana sistem badan terlalu dimanjakan dengan aktiviti yang mudah ini. Banyaknya aktiviti sedentari seperti menonton televisyen boleh menyebabkan golongan remaja mengalami lebihan berat badan dan obesiti (Gortmaker *et al.*, 1996).

Aktiviti kedua yang menjadi kegemaran responden ketika masa lapang ialah melayari Internet (68.7%). Namun begitu, tidak semua rumah mempunyai komputer dan talian Internet. Walau bagaimanapun, kebanjiran pusat siber yang seperti cendawan tumbuh tidak mengekang aktiviti ini sebagai pilihan para remaja ketika waktu senggang. Kewujudan Internet membantu remaja

mencari pelbagai maklumat, sama ada yang berkaitan dengan persekolahan atau sebaliknya. Selain mencari maklumat melalui Internet, responden juga mencari maklumat melalui pembacaan seperti buku, majalah dan sebagainya. Hal ini dapat ditunjukkan melalui Jadual 3, iaitu aktiviti membaca mencatatkan peratusan sebanyak 62.6%. Hasil ini menunjukkan ramai responden kajian gemar membaca buku pada masa lapang. Penemuan kajian di Perak mendapati, aktiviti membaca menjadi aktiviti kedua selepas mendengar radio bagi remaja berumur 14 tahun (Mariyatunnitha, 2006). Selain itu, aktiviti yang menjadi kegemaran remaja ketika waktu lapang ialah bermain SMS (59.9%) dan berehat (59.3%). Mendengar radio juga merupakan salah satu aktiviti yang gemar dilakukan oleh remaja pada waktu lapang (57.5%). Kajian lepas di Perak mendapati, aktiviti mendengar radio menjadi aktiviti kegemaran pada waktu lapang bagi remaja yang berumur 14 tahun (Mariyatunnitha, 2006).

Didapati responden kajian tidak suka melibatkan diri dalam aktiviti yang tidak bermoral pada waktu lapang. Jadual 3 menunjukkan hanya 3.3% responden terlibat dengan tabiat merokok dan lumba haram. Responden juga kurang melibatkan diri dengan aktiviti kerja rumah seperti memasak (26.3%) dan menjahit (5.8%).

Jadual 3: Aktiviti Masa Lapang Responden

Aktiviti	Ya		Tidak	
	N	%	N	%
Memasak	241	26.3	674	73.7
Menonton televisyen	783	85.6	132	14.5
Melepak	326	35.6	589	64.4
Menjahit	53	5.8	862	94.2
Bermain permainan video	315	34.4	600	65.6
Menonton wayang	290	31.7	625	68.3
Berpeleseran	43	4.7	872	95.3
Membeli belah	256	28	659	72
Merokok	30	3.3	885	96.7
Berbasikal	165	18	750	82.0
Membaiki alatan (basikal, radio, tv)	71	7.8	844	92.2
Mendengar radio	526	57.5	389	42.5
Mendengar MP3/Ipod	486	53.1	429	46.0
Menonton video lucu	40	5.0	869	95.1

Jadual 3 (sambungan)

Aktiviti	Ya		Tidak	
	N	%	N	%
Melayari internet	629	68.7	286	31.3
Lumba haram	30	3.3	885	96.7
Bersolek	79	8.6	836	91.4
Melukis	199	21.7	716	78.3
Membaca	573	62.6	342	37.3
Bersukan	292	31.9	623	68.1
Bermain alat muzik	171	18.7	744	81.3
Berehat	543	59.3	372	40.7
Bermain SMS	548	59.9	367	40.0

Aktiviti masa lapang mengikut jantina responden

Jadual 4 menunjukkan peratus aktiviti yang dilakukan pada masa lapang mengikut jantina. Aktiviti yang hampir sama dipilih oleh kedua-dua jantina pada masa lapang ialah menonton wayang, berbasikal, mendengar MP3/Ipod, melukis, bermain alat muzik dan bermain SMS. Terdapat 16 aktiviti yang mempunyai jurang peratus yang ketara antara jantina. Daripada jadual didapati responden perempuan lebih gemar memasak (32.36%) berbanding dengan responden lelaki (17.26%). Bagi permainan video, seramai 58.9% responden lelaki memilih aktiviti ini pada masa lapang berbanding dengan responden perempuan hanya 17.8%.

Bagi aktiviti mendengar radio didapati responden perempuan (64%) lebih gemar memilih aktiviti ini pada masa lapang jika dibandingkan dengan responden lelaki (47.12%). Begitu juga bagi aktiviti mendengar MP3, responden perempuan lebih gemar akan aktiviti ini berbanding dengan responden lelaki. Namun begitu, bagi aktiviti menonton video lucu, didapati responden lelaki (10.96%) lebih menggemarinya berbanding dengan responden perempuan (0.9%). Begitu juga dengan aktiviti lumba haram dan merokok. Penemuan ini disokong oleh kajian lepas yang mendapati remaja lelaki berani dan suka mencuba sesuatu benda baharu walaupun ia sesuatu perkara yang buruk dan tidak bermoral seperti merokok (Verkooijen, Nielsen & Kremers, 2008).

Terdapat jurang peratus yang ketara bagi aktiviti bersukan antara responden lelaki dan perempuan, Didapati responden lelaki (50.68%) lebih ramai

bersukan pada waktu lapang berbanding dengan responden perempuan (19.45%). Penemuan kajian lepas di Perak mendapati aktiviti bersukan menjadi pilihan utama kepada remaja lelaki berumur 16 tahun (Mariathunnitha, 2006). Hasil ini menunjukkan bahawa remaja perempuan kurang gemar melakukan aktiviti yang memerlukan pengeluaran peluh kerana bagi mereka aktiviti tersebut meletihkan dan menyusahkan. Penemuan ini dikukuhkan lagi dengan pernyataan daripada kajian lepas yang menyatakan bahawa remaja perempuan kebanyakannya mempamerkan tahap kecergasan yang rendah berbanding dengan remaja lelaki, tambahan pada waktu-waktu mencapai kematangan (Sallis, Prochaska & Taylor, 2000). Hal ini selari dengan aktiviti berehat (Jadual 4), iaitu responden perempuan (64.7%) lebih gemar melakukan aktiviti ini berbanding dengan responden lelaki (50.95%). Tambahan, bagi aktiviti membaca didapati responden perempuan (72.36%) lebih gemar memilih aktiviti ini pada waktu senggang berbanding dengan responden lelaki (47.9%). Kemungkinan sambil berehat responden perempuan membaca buku. Tidak dinafikan bahawa pelajar perempuan lebih terdedah dengan ilmu pengetahuan yang diperoleh daripada pembacaan. Hal ini dapat dibuktikan melalui pencapaian pelajar cemerlang Malaysia yang mencatat 21 A pada SPM 2008 ialah seorang remaja perempuan. Tambahan, pemenang Anugerah Nilam 2011, kebanyakannya ialah pelajar perempuan.

Jadual 4: Aktiviti Masa Lapang Responden Lelaki dan Perempuan

Aktiviti	Lelaki (%)	Perempuan (%)
Memasak	17.26	32.36
Melepak	45.5	28.9
Menjahit	3	8
Bermain permainan video	58.9	17.8
Berpelesenan	6.85	3.2
Membeli belah	20	33
Merokok	7.9	0.002
Membaiki alatan (basikal, radio, TV)	15.9	2.18
Mendengar radio	47.12	64
Menonton video lucu	10.96	0.9
Melayari internet	72	66.18
Lumba haram	7.3	0.5
Bersolek	1.6	13.27
Membaca	47.9	72.36
Bersukan	50.68	19.45
Berehat	50.95	64.7

Perbincangan dan kesimpulan

Kajian ini mengenal pasti aktiviti-aktiviti yang dilakukan oleh remaja pada waktu senggang. Didapati responden kajian menjadikan menonton televisyen sebagai pilihan dalam memenuhi masa lapang. Kewujudan laman-laman sosial seperti *Facebook*’ dan *Tweeter*’ menjadikan responden gemar melayari internet pada masa lapang. Oleh yang demikian, pihak yang terlibat seperti Kementerian Penerangan Malaysia perlu mengambil kira kesesuaian program yang hendak ditayangkan di media massa. Mereka perlu membuat undang-undang yang ketat berkaitan kemasukan filem-filem daripada negara luar, khususnya dari negara Eropah. Hal ini kerana kebanyakan filem-filem dari negara Eropah yang dipaparkan tidak sesuai sebagai tontonan orang timur berikutan perbezaan budaya yang diamalkan. Bukan itu sahaja, malah filem dan drama dari dalam negara juga perlu dipantau. Hal ini kerana, sejak akhir-akhir ini banyak filem dan drama yang tidak sesuai ditayangkan kepada umum ditayang pada waktu utama. Penapisan filem seharusnya bukan sahaja terhad pada keseksian atau aksi ganas pelakon, malah isu-isu akidah dan sensitiviti agama perlu diambil kira. Disebabkan remaja menjadikan menonton televisyen sebagai aktiviti utama dalam mengisi masa lapang, maka dengan itu ditakuti remaja menjadikan drama dan filem yang ditonton sebagai panduan dan rujukan dalam kehidupannya.

Selain itu, aktiviti kemahiran seperti menjahit dan memperbaiki alatan elektronik adalah antara aktiviti berfaedah yang kurang menjadi pilihan kepada responden. Aktiviti kemahiran ini sepatutnya disuburkan dalam jiwa remaja agar ia menjadi pilihan dalam memenuhi masa lapang kerana aktiviti ini bukan sahaja murni pada mata masyarakat, bahkan ia boleh menambah duit poket remaja. Oleh itu, saranan yang boleh diberikan bagi menggalakkan aktiviti ini adalah dengan menganjurkan pertandingan menjahit pakaian tradisional atau moden bagi pelajar pada hari kokurikulum sekolah. Pemenang pertandingan atau mereka yang mempunyai bakat menjahit boleh diketengahkan dengan menggalakkan mereka menerima tempahan jahitan pada musim cuti sekolah. Pihak sekolah juga boleh berperanan dalam mengiklankan perniagaan ini di kawasan sekolah dan dibangkitkan dalam mesyuarat PIBG. Aktiviti ini bukan sahaja dapat mengisi masa lapang pelajar, malah ia dapat mendatangkan keuntungan dan meringankan bebanan keluarga yang berpendapatan rendah. Dengan aktiviti sebegini, sekurang-kurangnya perkakas yang dibeli oleh sekolah seperti mesin jahit untuk subjek Sains Rumah Tangga tidak terbiar begitu sahaja tanpa mendatangkan hasil. Oleh itu, semua pihak perlu sama-sama berganding bahu agar cadangan ini boleh direalisasikan dan akan mendatangkan kebaikan kepada pelajar Malaysia.

Selain itu, peratus aktiviti yang dilakukan antara jantina juga turut diteliti. Didapati terdapat persamaan antara jantina bagi aktiviti seperti menonton televisyen, melayari Internet dan bermain SMS ketika masa lapang. Bagi aktiviti tidak bermoral seperti merokok dan lumba haram, didapati responden lelaki lebih ramai terlibat dalam aktiviti ini ketika masa lapang. Oleh yang demikian, pihak yang terlibat perlu merancang sesuatu aktiviti yang berfaedah untuk remaja lelaki agar aktiviti masa lapangnya tidak membarah menjadi penyakit sosial. Kemungkinan pihak yang berkenaan boleh menyediakan litar yang diawasi dengan sistem keselamatan kepada penggemar lumba motosikal atau kereta khususnya penggemar yang masih remaja. Dengan itu, remaja akan menggunakan sistem yang betul jika mereka mahu melakukan aktiviti seperti berlumba pada masa lapang. Maka, masalah lumba haram dalam kalangan remaja sekolah dapat dikurangkan. Bagi aktiviti merokok pula, pihak kementerian perlu memperhebatkan lagi hebahnya berkenaan dengan bahaya merokok. Kemungkinan pihak kementerian boleh mengeluarkan satu pengalaman perokok yang sangat sadis kepada khalayak, khususnya remaja agar menimbulkan perasaan takut kepada perokok yang mahu meneruskan habit mereka.

Bagi aktiviti bersukan pula, didapati responden perempuan kurang gemar memilih aktiviti ini pada masa lapang berbanding dengan responden lelaki. Pihak sekolah perlu menggalakkan pelajar perempuan melibatkan diri dengan sukan. Pihak sekolah perlu memberi pendedahan bahawa bersukan juga penting bagi mencergaskan badan dan menyihatkan minda. Minda tidak boleh berfungsi dengan baik jika badan tidak sihat. Minda akan mudah letih sekiranya badan kurang bergerak melakukan aktiviti yang mengeluarkan peluh. Hanya dengan membaca buku, minda tidak seratus peratus boleh berfungsi dengan baik. Ia perlu diseimbangkan dengan gerakan fizikal badan.

Bagi aktiviti membaca pula, responden lelaki kurang melakukan aktiviti ini berbanding dengan responden perempuan. Guru di sekolah perlu memainkan peranan bagi menggalakkan pelajar lelaki memilih aktiviti ini pada waktu lapang. Kemungkinan ganjaran bagi program Nilam yang dijalankan di peringkat sekolah boleh ditingkatkan bagi menggalakkan pelajar lelaki membaca buku. Disebabkan pelajar lelaki lebih gemar bersukan, bahan bacaan mengenai sukan mungkin boleh diletakkan agar dapat menarik minat pelajar lelaki ke arah aktiviti ini.

Rumusannya, semua pihak harus memainkan peranan agar aktiviti masa lapang remaja terisi dengan perkara-perkara yang berfaedah. Pemantauan ibu bapa, guru dan pihak yang berkaitan terhadap aktiviti remaja pada waktu lapang mampu melahirkan generasi yang sihat minda dan badan pada masa akan datang.

Rujukan

- Aittola, T. (1998). Unconventional learning environments of young people. *The Finnish Youth Research Society*, 151-160.
- Biddle, S.J.H., Mashall, S.J., Gorely, T., & Cameron, N. (2009). Temporal and environment patterns of sedentary and active behaviors during adolescents' leisure time. *International Journal Behavior Medical*, 16, 278-286.
- Davidson, K.K. (2003). Parents' activity related parenting practise girls' physical activity. *Medical Science Sports*, 35(9), 1589-1595.
- Ezzati, M. & Lopez, A.D. (2003). Estimates of global mortality attributable to smoking in 2000. *Lancet*, 362, 847-852.
- Gortmaker, S.L., Must, A., & Sobol, T.M. (1996). Television viewing as course of increasing obesity among children in the United Stated. *Pediatric Adolescent Medical*, 150, 356-362.
- Herman, K.M., Hopmann, W.M., & Craig, C.L. (2010). Are youth BMI and physical activity associated with better or worse than expected health related quality of life in adulthood? The physical activity logitudinal study. *Quality Life Research*, 19, 339-349.
- Janssen, I., Craig, W.M., Boyce, W.F., & Pickett, W. (2004). Association between overweight and obesity with bullying behaviours in school aged children. *Pediatric*, 113, 1187-1194.
- Kajian Kementerian Kesihatan. (2011). Dimuat turun dari <http://www.geocities/hamba66/kesihatan.html>, pada Januari 26, 2012.
- Koezuke, N., Koo, M., Allison, K.R., Adlaf, E.M., & Gooden, M.E. (2006). Relationships Between sedentary activity and physical inactivity among adolescents results from Canadian Community Health Survey. *Journal Adolescent Health*, 39 (4), 515-552.
- Langdon, N.P. & Roberts, C. (2001). Physical activity, sedentary behavior and obesity. Health behavior in School Aged Children (HBC) Survey Series 1. Research and Evaluation Branch Health.
- Davison, K.K., Cutting, T.M., & Birch, L.L. (2003). Parents' activity related parenting predict girls' physical activity. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*, 35(9), 1589-1595.

index, physical activity and dietary behaviors among adolescents? *Journal Am Diet Associated*, 103(10), 298-305.

Verkooijen, K.T., Nielsen, G.A., & Kremers, P.J. (2008). The association between leisure time physical activity and smoking in adolescence: an examination of potential mediating and moderating factors. *International Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 15, 157-163.

Wedderkopp, N., Froberg, K., & Hansen, H.S. (2004). Secular trend in physical fitness and obesity in Danish 9 years old girls and boys. *Medical Science Sport Journal*, 14(3), 150-155.

World Youth Report. (2003). rethinking leisure time :expanding opportunities for young people & communities. Chapter 8, 213-244.

JURNAL PENGGUNA MALAYSIA

MALAYSIAN JOURNAL OF CONSUMER

Lembaga Pengarang

Dr. Elistina binti Abu Bakar (Ketua Editor)	Fakulti Ekologi Manusia Universiti Putra Malaysia
Pn. Leylawati binti Joremi	Fakulti Pengurusan Perniagaan Universiti Teknologi Mara
Pn. Nor Rashidah binti Zainal	Fakulti Pengurusan Perniagaan Universiti Teknologi Mara
Dr. Syuhaily binti Osman	Fakulti Ekologi Manusia Universiti Putra Malaysia
Dr. Husniyah binti Abdul Rahim	Fakulti Ekologi Manusia Universiti Putra Malaysia
Prof. Madya Fauziah binti Abu Bakar	Fakulti Pengurusan Perniagaan Universiti Teknologi Mara
Dr. Norhasmah binti Sulaiman	Fakulti Ekologi Manusia Universiti Putra Malaysia
Dr. Rika Fatimah	Fakulti Ekonomi dan Pengurusan Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia

JURNAL PENGGUNA MALAYSIA adalah keluaran bersama Kementerian Perdagangan Dalam Negeri Koperasi dan Kepenggunaan dan Persatuan Ekonomi Pengguna dan Keluarga Malaysia. Ia bertujuan untuk menyebar, menambah dan berkongsi maklumat berkaitan hal ehwal, undang-undang, penyelidikan dan isu semasa pengguna. Jurnal ini juga menggalakkan penulisan dan perkongsian idea tentang masalah dan keperluan pengguna dalam bentuk rencana, ulasan, dan penyelidikan. Sila rujuk panduan kepada penulis untuk penghantaran bahan artikel.

Alamat surat-menyurat:

Ketua Pengarang
Jurnal Pengguna Malaysia
Jabatan Pengurusan Sumber dan Pengajian Pengguna,
Fakulti Ekologi Manusia,
Universiti Putra Malaysia
43400 Serdang, Selangor.
Email: macfea@putra.upm.edu.my

PANDUAN KEPADA PENULIS

Jadual

Kesemua jadual perlu diletakkan di akhir manuskrip selepas rujukan dan menggunakan angka Arab. Setiap jadual perlu dinyatakan dan perlu diberi penjelasan dalam teks.

Ilustrasi

Ilustrasi termasuk gambarajah-gambarajah dan graf-graf perlu dinyatakan di dalam teks. Kesemua foto yang sesuai perlu dicetak hitam dan putih. Ilustrasi perlu dicetak pada kertas yang berasingan.

Ejaan dan pengukuran

Bagi merujuk ejaan, Kamus bahasa Inggeris Oxford dan Kamus Dewan Bahasa yang terkini hendaklah digunakan. Unit-unit metrik mesti digunakan untuk ukuran empirikal.

Rujukan

Rujukan ditulis mengikut gaya penulisan APA.

Jurnal Pengguna Malaysia mengalu-alukan sumbangan manuskrip berkaitan isu ekonomi pengguna dan keluarga samada di dalam Bahasa Melayu atau Bahasa Inggeris. Manuskrip akan dinilai oleh Lembaga Pengarang. Sila kemukakan artikel anda berdasarkan garis panduan berikut kepada Ketua Pengarang Jurnal Pengguna Malaysia, Fakulti Ekologi Manusia, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 Serdang, Selangor. Email: macfea@putra.upm.edu.my

Penulisan dan Kertas Kerja

Manuskrip perlu ditaip selang dua baris menggunakan kertas A4 dengan 1" margin untuk bahagian atas muka surat, 1.5" kiri dan 1" kanan. Bilangan muka surat tidak melebihi 15 muka surat. Semua teks mesti menggunakan saiz 12 dan Times New Roman.

Tajuk

Tajuk artikel, nama pengarang dan pengarang yang lain, alamat lengkap institusi dan email perlu dinyatakan. Tajuk atau sub-tajuk menggunakan fon 14. Sila kemukakan dua salinan kertas manuskrip dan satu salinan lembut untuk tujuan pengeditan.

Kata kunci

Berikan antara tiga hingga lima kata kunci dan letakkan di bahagian bawah abstrak.

Pendapat yang terkandung di dalam jurnal ini tidak semestinya menggambarkan pendapat Lembaga Pengarang dan Kementerian Perdagangan Dalam Negeri, Koperasi Dan Kepenggunaan