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The Effect Of Framing And Sunk Costs On The Consumer-Brand Relationship
Ross B. Steinman, Widener University, USA

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to determine the effect of framing and sunk costs on the consumer-brand relationship. In a series of studies, the valence of the frame and the magnitude of the sunk cost were manipulated in an experimental manner using hypothetical scenarios. There is an emerging literature on the consumer-brand relationship; recent research suggests that this relationship is moderated by variables including brand personality, product classification, and consumer identification with the brand. However, there is a limited research on the role of framing and sunk costs on the consumer-brand relationship and how this might impact prospective choice. Participants completed a series of consumer attitude and behavior measures following assignment to different framing and sunk conditions. Overall, there was evidence of an interactive effect of framing and sunk costs on consumer choices. Future consumer research topics in the consumer decision-making literature are discussed as well as implications of the research.
NAFTA And The Implications Of Further North American Integration

Jorge Riveras, Framingham State University, USA
Joe Albanese, USA
Loide de Almeida, Republic of South Africa
Christian Probst, Federal Republic of Germany
Mikael Rahkamo, Republic of Finland

ABSTRACT

This paper employs a globalization model to examine the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) that was established between Canada, the United States and Mexico in 1994. The model will be used to focus analysis on both inner domains (relating to internal economic, political, social, business and physical factors) and outer domains (relating to factors concerning neighboring country dynamics, trade blocs and global institutions). The study takes a historical look at the benefits produced by the agreement for each country as well as at the areas where it has fallen short. Shortcomings include a lack of planning for the evolution of North America and a lack of vision for further integration that has encouraged evolution stagnation. The paper assesses further integration into a common market, immigration reform, the potential of the new level of integration to strengthen the position of the bloc, the potential of further cooperation to improve the economy of the bloc by increasing competitiveness and support for each member country in areas where they are weak.

Keywords: Globalization, Economic Integration, Systems Framework, NAFTA, Trade
Regulating The Supply Of Electricity
Chaim Elata, Ben Gurion University, Israel

INTRODUCTION

Network utilities are public services, which require a fixed network for delivering commodities, such as gas, electricity, water, rail, and communication. Their systems are durable and capital intensive. They serve mass markets and provide essential services. These primary industries, huge and of basic importance, which provide essential infrastructure goods and services, have been and will be in most countries subject to a high degree of political control. Frequently private companies own these industries. Otherwise, the state or municipalities own them publicly. In most cases, they are subject to regulatory procedures.

Electric power is one such a commodity, yet with unique characteristics. Unlike other commodities, electricity is invisible and flows directly from its generation plants to the customers. Even if the client has a purchase agreement for electric power with one producer, he may receive a supply of electricity produced by another. Unlike with other “products,” consumers do not see the price of electricity in the process of using it and do not know what they are paying. Certainly, there is no direct way to observe the connection between the tariff and the quality of the product and the reliability of service. There are other fundamental differences between the electric power industries and other industries. Since electricity cannot be stored, the capacity of the supply system has to be able to meet maximal demand. This lack of storage causes the system to operate most of the time below its full capacity. Resources have to be gathered, and investments must be made in the present, with a longer lead-time than in other industries to guarantee ample supply for years to come.

REGULATION OF THE INDUSTRY

More than a century ago the electrical industry was based on vertically integrated monopolies, regulated by governmental institutes. One of the presumptions on which regulation is built in this industry is the need for stability. The regulated rates for rural customers rarely covered the maintenance cost of the lines that carried the power. Regulated intercity transportation companies were required to transfer a portion of their high earnings from their main routes to sustain the operation of many local and rural services. Similarly, regulation allowed power companies to realize substantial gains in the larger towns to subsidize rural clients. This control served a political objective of providing low prices to voters in the outlying areas. The low prices were often well below the actual market prices for any particular location. Governments in several other countries owned the power stations and used the printing presses at their central banks to "subsidize" the low cost of electricity for their citizens.

In industries that were subject to decades of market regulation, this management did determine their evolution. This led to Possible mal-investment or misallocation of resources. While regulation may feasibly work in an unchanging economy that is free from any technological change, technological advancement ultimately causes a change in the world of business and the economy at large. When the pace of technical advance is slow, there may be cause to revise economic regulations to adapt to the ongoing change or in some way accommodate it. Current technological change has continually changed the world of business and can do so at a pace where economic regulation becomes detrimental to progress.

During the golden years, when construction of new power plants reduced the average cost of electricity, regulation-set rates, which were based on the average cost including the value of the new privatization equipment, worked well since rates decreased. The situation changed from the 1970’s onwards because of the increase in the cost of fuel and utility construction and the subsequent massive increase in prices. At that time, it gradually became apparent that the regulating system had inherent problems. The government searched for solutions to the regulation issues through deregulation. One of the problems with regulated, privately owned companies was that under the system existing at that time, non-profitable investments would not be risky, and the regulator could easily charge the cost to the customer. However, on the other hand, the status quo was often maintained since there was no incentive to develop cheaper and
more efficient production methods. An increasing sale of electricity meant greater profits, so the power industry did not consider conservation. It extended the utilization of their older generation units since, in any case, costs were covered. Any attempt to deregulate electric power during a time of a shortage of electrical generating capacity resulted in skyrocketing electricity prices in some regions, along with severe power shortages in others.

While market deregulation along with the closure of the regulatory agency was thought to be desirable, the method by which governments dismantled the regulatory regime contained, in many instances, dangerous pitfalls. A sudden dismantling of the system of market regulation did likely precipitate an economic upheaval as market forces endeavor to rectify decades of mal-investment imposed by the regulatory regime.

**COMPLETION IN POWER PRODUCTION**

There is an ideological belief in private ownership and that regulation and controls are unjustified so that the government should remove them. The public assumes that governmental involvement creates inefficiencies and that a free market provides better products and services to consumers than those produced under a heavy regulated or government-controlled system. The advocating of deregulation has been based on the premise that the introduction of competition would lead to better and cheaper service. Deregulation of industries became fashionable in the late seventies of the twentieth century, in such industries as telecommunications, airlines, railroads, trucking, banking and financial services. The government then introduced fundamental changes in the structure of most consumer services. A process of privatization was carried out adding competition and allowing a gradual deregulation.

Electric power was the last industry to consider regulation to be outmoded by time and technology. In the case of the electric industry, free competition could at most be partial, relating to production only. It could not apply to wiring, transmission, and distribution, that remained natural monopolies in their service areas. Deregulation was looked upon as a tool to introduce and enhance competition and allow customers to choose their supplier. It was realized, that the introduction of competition in the electricity industry and simultaneous deregulation, necessitated a restructuring of the industry. The vertically integrated utilities had to be unbundled. Independent, privately owned production plants could carry out competitive generation.

In addition to competition in production, the restructuring of the electricity system involved changes in the distribution network. One such change was to require “open access” to the power grid and distribution network under control by local monopolies. Independent System Operators (ISO’s) were created to determine access and pricing. By the end of the past century, deregulation allowed the customers to buy electricity from any company offering it.

The introduction in the market of new kinds of power plants highly facilitated deregulation and the restructuring of the electric system. The classic production of power was by plants burning coal, oil, nuclear power stations, and in some cases - hydroelectric power. During the past 40 years, a new technology for energy production based on gas turbines and fed by natural gas became a profitable and alternative method of production. Gas burning power plants based require less investment than conventional coal plants, and their construction may take one-third of the time. They can run without a constant supply of water for cooling, and the operator may start them within minutes. Their damage to the environment is minor. Gas turbines can be used economically for a medium load of energy and be located close to geographical areas with a need for supply, thus easing the pressure on the transmission system. In addition, gas-fired combined cycle power plants are more efficient than the large, coal-fired power ones.

Alternative sources of energy such as sun and wind power that have meanwhile been developed can only compete with fossil fuels, by taking their environmental advantages into account. Also, a drawback of these alternative energy sources is their dependence on climatic conditions. Even if Britain realizes its major plans for a wind farm, it will supply only 2.5% of the total power consumption, and in the USA - 2%.

One of the big disappointments of deregulation is that competition does not have the expected effect. Electricity deregulation was supposed to bring lower electricity prices and more choice of suppliers to householders. Instead, it brought wildly volatile wholesale prices and undermined the reliability of the power supply. The rising electricity prices and blackouts in California and the northeastern states of the US are the consequence of changes engineered by
vested interests; changes that were accomplished through a massive PR campaign to deceive politicians and opinion leaders about their benefits. The case for deregulation could not be presented in self-interested terms to the public.

Despite efforts to manufacture an appearance of grassroots support, large industrial users who thought they could save money, and energy companies that thought they could make money out of it, this primarily drove deregulation. Well-financed campaigns often presented grandiose claims of consumer benefit with free-market competition. Against an onslaught of high-powered corporate lobbying, warnings and questions from citizens groups were either ignored or buried as afterthoughts in news stories and legislative hearings. All too often, the rosy scenarios about consumer benefits have faded into horror stories of higher prices and poorer service and taxpayer-financed corporate bailouts.

PRICE AND SUPPLY

Deregulation promotes competition in the early stages. In the latter stages, it may eliminate competition, as rivals are driven out of business. Owners feel the need to cut every corner possible both workers and consumers pay the price. Energy generation is a capital-intensive industry. State or municipality owned companies may get cheap capital and may agree to a very small or even zero return on their equity. Their stocks do not require high levels of return and their bonds are highly rated. Unlike that, a private owner will ask for a return that will cover his investment including a premium for risk. As a result of privatization, tariffs have often increased rather than decreased. If for example, we assume that half the cost of generating electricity is capital cost and that deregulation enhances the expense of the capital from, say, 8 percent to 16 percent, deregulation will drive up the average cost of electricity by 50 percent. There have been huge additional costs and cost increases stemming from the reduced benefits of coordination, the growing complexity of the system, scheduling, and other operating procedures.

Energy has surely been the beleaguered sector in the USA lately. First, California has newly deregulated power system crashes, leaving bankruptcies and blackouts in its wake. Then Enron, the leader of energy trading, imploded. Publication of internal documents from Enron seems to confirm that Enron’s Energy traders manipulated California’s power market, creating artificial shortages to push prices up. They played games with the system with frauds known variously as Ricochet, Fat Boy, Get Shorty, Load Shift, and Death Star, apparently costing billions of dollars in damages to the state’s economy. The energy crisis in California is certainly an example to be studied and from which mistakes elsewhere can be avoided. In a report to the governor of California, several years ago, even before the Enron crisis, recommendations were made for a change in the plans, accepted at that time. Under California’s new system, California’s power consumers have paid much more for power than in the past and the system has been more vulnerable to supply shortages than ever before. Also, California’s electricity supplies have not kept pace with the state's economic growth. Lagging investments in power plants resulted in part from regulatory mistakes. Power plants aged and California’s economy grew. All this created a mismatch at the time between supply and demand for an essential service in an imperfect market, at a predetermined price. This situation teaches us that deregulation does not necessarily mean a cut in prices. Also, it may cause a dangerous shortage in power. Electric system governance is therefore not working for the benefit of California customers currently. In conclusion, power supply shortages, increased demand, and a dysfunctional market did converge to undermine California’s ability to assure its businesses and its citizens clean, reliable and reasonably priced electricity.

All this happened at the same time that the rest of the world was trying to push energy markets toward free competition. Again, we should be warned from experiencing similar catastrophic crises in other states and countries, as a result of careless restructuring and determining prices that have little to do with the changing economic conditions. At present, all states in the USA except Texas that has a 60% reserve margin, stopped deregulation and are reviewing their schedules. There is a consensus that regulation of power capacity is certainly necessary. California has lately redesigned its plans. More countries around the world are presently seeking the correct balance between regulated and deregulated parts of the market. For one, a more extensive, border crossing transmission system seems to be an essential requirement. The blackouts that occurred several winters ago in Catalonia, Spain, could have been avoided to a great extent, had more extensive grid interconnections with other neighboring provinces been in existence. Increased internal connections are a major cost saver. They lead to better and more efficient use of equipment and necessitate lower reserves of production capacity. It should be taken into account, that transmission contributes a relatively small part (often less than ten percent) to the price of electricity. The pricing system, in combination with only little elasticity in customer’s demand and the ability of power sellers to withhold supply, results in wholesale
prices that may bear no relationship to power producers' costs. At the same time, no government body is compelling power plant construction or maintenance during this period of aging plants and short supplies. This result has not been confined to developing countries. The same has been true in many parts of the developed world. Price manipulation has eclipsed the supposed disciplines of the market by private electricity companies seeking to boost the price of electricity and maximize profits. In places where government-imposed price caps remain in place, retail suppliers have not been able to pass these high wholesale prices on to consumers causing them to experience financial difficulties that have led to blackouts and government bailouts, as in California. Many blackouts, price spikes, price manipulation, bankruptcies, and electricity shortages have resulted from this worldwide wave of electricity privatization and deregulation. Despite the many failures of electricity privatization and deregulation around the world, there is still pressure on governments to privatize remaining government-owned systems. To support their claim, advocates need models of successful privatization and deregulation that they can use to persuade governments that the IMF and the World Bank cannot coerce. It is for this reason that Australia has been misrepresented as a case study of successful electricity deregulation and privatization.

The changes in electricity prices in the early years of electricity restructuring varied across states and customer classes and had not been as dramatic as some predicted. Except for Texas, all of the states that moved ahead with restructuring had retail electricity rates for every class of customers and for all customers taken together that were typically well above the national average price. In certain cases, such as Pennsylvania and Connecticut, the price gap started to close after restructuring, but for other states, the reduction in the price gap was more fleeting [13].

ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS

The exponential increase in energy consumption since the beginning of the industrial revolution produced significant changes in the global environment, chief of which is the increase of the average concentration of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. Fossil fuel power plants have the most widespread effect on the environment, as the combustion process produces airborne pollutants that spread over a wide area. Despite the efforts of the environmental community, there is not yet a global agreement for the mitigation of the effects of high carbon dioxide concentration, which poses the principal environmental threat of the twenty-first century. Climatologists predict that all of this will cause an increase in the average temperature of the planet as well as regional, global, and climatic changes.

The whole cycle of electricity generation in its entirety must, however, be considered when examining the environmental impact. The impact may be as powerful as emitting airborne pollutants, or may have a passive effect including aesthetic concerns or habitat modification. Not only does the production of electricity have an environmental impact, but the transmission of power also affects the environment with concerns over electromagnetic fields, aesthetics, and land use. Even methods considered environmentally friendly, e.g. wind, solar, and hydro, have some impact on the environment.

In particular, of course, the significant environmental effect is caused by the large quantities of fuel taken from the earth to operate fossil fuel and nuclear power plants that. This environmental impact consists of fuel recovery and production, fuel transportation, and spent fuel emissions. Coal is almost exclusively produced for electrical generation. Coal production is often viewed as only a local environmental problem. However, coal mining, particularly surface mining, has both long and short-term effects on land, including dust, noise, and water drainage/runoff. Preparation of coal produces both solid and liquid waste that must be treated and disposed of. Transportation of coal produces dust while coal storage produces dust and results in water runoff problems.

The fuel oil burned in power plants is a byproduct of the petroleum industry, so electricity production is partially responsible for environmental issues associated with oil and hydrocarbon burning. This fuel burning produces many "greenhouse" gasses. Other environmental impacts related to oil production include blowouts, spills, brine disposal, and the production of hydrogen sulfide. Transportation of oil involves spill and leak hazards. Oil refining includes environmental effects such as explosions, fires, air emissions, noise, odor, and water runoff.

During the natural gas production, possible environmental effects include blowouts, leaks, hydrocarbon emissions, and trace metal emissions. The treatment of natural gas involves air emissions and the disposal of liquid residuals, while transportation and storage effects include spills and explosions.
Uranium mining involves concerns such as radioactive dust releases, mine water seepage, protection of workers from radioactivity, and the disposal of a large quantity of mine waste containing a low level of radiation. Uranium treatment must dispose of mill tailings containing toxic metals and chemical wastes used in the treatment process, as well as radiological waste. The treatment of raw uranium also requires dealing with radioactive dust releases. The enrichment of uranium ore must account for liquid and gaseous effluent discharges, and must recycle fission products. Transportation involves the hazard of the accidental release of radioactive particles. Nuclear power plants have the most potentially dangerous effect. An operating accident at a nuclear station could allow a massive release of radioactive particles to occur.

Transmission of bulk electricity from the generating station to the load uses wires suspended on huge towers, known as transmission lines. Traditionally these lines have been viewed only as an aesthetic nuisance that could cause communications interference and be a hazard to low flying aircraft. Today, there are other issues to be considered concerning the effect of transmission lines on the environment. The effect of the lines on the natural habitat is, for instance, a primary concern. Another significant issue is the effect of electromagnetic fields (EMFs) on human health. In the mid-1990s, when the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission was preparing to release Order 888 requiring open access to the transmission grid, the Commission, environmental groups, and the Environmental Protection Agency, among others, raised the question of how public access and greater competition in wholesale electricity markets might affect the environment. If free access worked as expected, underutilized older coal-fired generators in the Midwest and elsewhere might find new markets for their power, leading to associated increases in air pollution emissions. The restructuring also might result in retirements of inefficient nuclear facilities, whose generation would be replaced by fossil generation, further increasing emissions. On the other hand, some suggested that in the long run, the anticipated increase in investment in new gas-fired generators might accelerate a switch from coal to gas that would decrease emissions. If restructuring produced the desired result of lower electricity prices, many observers suggested lately that an increase in electricity demand would lead to more generation and higher emissions. The counterargument was that restructuring would lead to product differentiation and customer choice, including the opportunity for customers to willingly select “green electricity.”

There is an extensive literature on the possible and anticipated effects of restructuring on the environment as well as on the evidence from changes in the intervening years to the utilization of coal facilities, the performance of existing nuclear plants, investment in natural gas generation, and electricity prices. An attempt is made to compare the experience with prior expectations; how other changes in upstream fuel markets, energy policy, and environmental regulations each play a role in the efforts in the environmental effects of restructuring. Today the movement toward restructuring has stalled, leaving the country divided into competitive and regulated regions. An answer should be found for the question how the implications of this division for the future of environmental policy and the complicated relationships between policy agendas concerning mitigation of climate change and further restructuring of the electricity industry.

CONCLUSION

The movement toward less regulation and more reliance on market processes in the electricity sector may have potential benefits but also potential risks. A move toward deregulation that does not take into account the issue of market power might undermine the goals of the industry in restructuring and even, as in the case of England, produce a regulatory backlash. Any restructuring initiative must recognize that the lack of economic storage and price-responsive demand could create severe market disruptions. Furthermore, levels of transmission capacity that may have been adequate under regulation may not be able to support effective competition. In restructured electricity markets, some degree of market power seems likely to persist. Given the enormous size of the industry, even small amounts of market power could mean significant transfers from consumers. Restructured electricity for consumers’ markets may, in fact, be more costly in the short term than their regulated predecessors. For restructuring that would benefit consumers, the long-term gains stemming from improved investment decisions on both the demand and supply sides of the industry must be sufficient to outweigh the potential short-run costs. Unfortunately, measuring those long-term benefits could prove difficult since it will rely on comparing the efficiency of investment under restructuring with the investment that would have occurred in traditional systems.
Deregulation and privatization are now reaching a stage where it is possible to discern several patterns and factors emerging, based on experience rather than a hypothesis about what ought to happen. Some of the outcomes are good, while others are not, and liberalization has advocates and critics. Liberalization proceeded at varying paces in different regions and countries, the most systematic regional development being in the EU. One of the advertised advantages of deregulation is that it gives a private customer the right to elect its supplier, the so-called ‘residential choice’. For competition to exist, the minimal available capacity in the system should be such that, with any competitor out of action, sufficient capacity will still be available to meet peak demand. This margin, the reserve between maximum capacity and peak demand, decreases with an increasing number of competitors. Experience has shown, that for real competition, there should be at least 5 to 6 opponents of about the same size. The guarantee of adequate supply, as well as the all-encompassing monitoring of the transmission system, should be in the hands of state-governed bodies.

Decisions about capital investments in grid expansion and a background of plans for generation plants have to be under the control of agencies and supervision of the government. The supply of electricity is a necessity of any state economy and has a major effect on its environment. The global energy landscape is changing quickly due to economic shifts and technological advancements. “Game-changers” such as the unconventional oil and gas revolutions, or the rapid retreat from nuclear power in some countries, will further accelerate this change. This transformation naturally has significant consequences for the energy policies of International Energy Agency (IEA) member countries, which must respond by employing efficient and cost-effective measures to ensure adaptable and flexible markets that safeguard energy security while remaining consistent with international commitments. The IEA has contributed to global energy discussions since its founding, providing member governments with the analysis and policy recommendations to address their respective challenges. Energy Policy Highlights reflect this well-established practice of sharing experience and lessons learned among peers. These are “real-time” systems that respond to many concerns, ranging from ensuring reliable energy supply to helping customers make the best choice in electricity provider, as well as to developing new programs to promote research and development. Governments have shown creativity and flexibility in finding these solutions; their experiences and insights will certainly be of great interest to other policymakers. It is also gratifying to see the success of some IEA policy recommendations. Energy Policy Highlights groups members’ contributions under six thematic sections: general energy policies, energy efficiency, electricity, renewables, oil and gas, and research and development. These policy examples and best cases illustrate the range of topics and extensive breadth of today’s energy challenges. Electricity and energy efficiency stand out as areas of particular interest. It is also striking how many governments emphasized the importance of proactive efforts to inform and engage stakeholders as critical to the success of their policy initiatives. Reducing greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions is a clear objective of many of the policies, targeted by both improved energy efficiency and a higher share of renewables in the energy system. Given the current economic climate, these submissions unsurprisingly highlight the concern among member countries to find cost-effective and economically sustainable solutions. Another trend among the contributions is the importance of empowering consumers and of raising public awareness using transparent procedures.

The supply of electricity is a necessity to the state’s economy and has a significant impact on its environment. The conclusion to be drawn from the recent crises is that governments should not withdraw their supervision, leaving control in private hands. Problems in this deregulated industry led to the recognition that governments need to maintain their control of this unique industry and not withdraw their all-encompassing supervision.

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The Impact Of Cash Management On Profitability And Sustainability Of Small Businesses In A Developing Community

Ms Avika Mungal, Durban University of Technology South Africa

ABSTRACT

Small businesses are vital for employment and job creation in South Africa. The implementation of sound cash management practices is essential to ensure profitability and sustainability of any successful business. The commonly used expression, “Cash is king” cannot be contested as its validity was more prevalent in this research study. The aim of the study was to identify the current cash management practices of small retail businesses in a developing community and identify the impact of such practices on their profitability and sustainability.

This descriptive, cross sectional study, using a quantitative research paradigm and a non-probability sampling method targeted a sample of 69 businesses in the chosen area. The sample structure consisted of small retail businesses.

There was a significant relationship between drawing budgets and sustainability. This finding suggests that the more often the business draws up cash budgets, the more viable and sustainable the business is. 78.3% of the respondents acknowledged the importance of keeping records in the business, however, only 29.9% drew up cash budgets.

The findings of this study could be useful to potential, emerging and established owners of all types of businesses since effective and efficient cash management is an integral component of any successful business. There should be more emphasis placed on the impact of how proper cash management practices can affect profitability and sustainability of a small retail business.

A recommendation that adds value to the study was to engage the final-year, National Diploma: Cost and Management Accounting students in an integrated project, where they can provide cash management advice to these businesses. This will enhance the small businesses’ knowledge of cash management and encourage implementation of these procedures to assist in increasing profitability and sustainability in their business. The engagement by students would not only expose them to some hands on, experiential learning to prepare them for the world of work, but, also allow them to provide a service to the community.

Keywords: Cash Management, Small businesses, Profitability, Sustainability, lack of cash management implementation.
The Impact Of An Integrated Assessment On The Critical Thinking Skills Of First-Year University Students

Mrs. Melanie Cloete, Durban University of Technology, South Africa

ABSTRACT

Empirical evidence highlighted the problem of underprepared graduates who lack critical thinking skills required in the work environment. Institutions of higher learning have been mandated to provide graduates with these critical thinking skills. However, in order to achieve this mandate, teaching, and, in particular, assessment practices at institutions of higher learning would need to be rethought and transformed.

Integrated assessments that mirror real life situations are particularly useful in the development of critical thinking skills. The purpose of this study was to investigate whether the integrated assessment conducted with the first-year students at a University of Technology has enhanced the critical thinking skills of these students.

This descriptive and inferential study employed a quantitative strategy, with a quasi-experimental, pre-test, post-test, non-equivalent group design and it was longitudinal in nature. The target population consisted of two groups an experimental and a control group. All five categories of the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal United Kingdom edition were administered to both the control and experimental groups in a pre-test and post-test measure. However, only the experimental group was exposed to the integrated assessment. The aim was to measure the change, if any, in the students’ critical thinking skills over a period of time.

The findings revealed a statistical significance in the overall post-test scores in favour of the experimental group. The norm group comparisons also revealed that, after the completion of the integrated assessment, the experimental group’s post-test mean scores were higher than the United States grade 12 students and were closely matched to the United States first year of 4 year colleges. In addition, the experimental group’s pre-and post-test mean scores were closely matched to the South African norm group. These results suggested that the experimental group experienced gains in their critical thinking ability in the post-integrated assessment.

It is, therefore, recommended that integrated assessments, which are based on real world problems, should be conducted in the first year and in subsequent years. It is not always possible for universities of technology to offer cooperative education/ in-service training to all students. Contextualized integrated assessments, therefore, bridge this gap by allowing students to experience workplace requirements without physically being in the work environment.

Keywords: critical thinking; integrated assessments; workplace requirements; employability; linking theory and practice
Smashing Boundaries: Conquering & Utilizing The Diversity Of Technology In The Classroom
Taunya Kline, Indiana Wesleyan University, USA

ABSTRACT
The word boundary is generally defined as a limit, perhaps in some spheres even impossible. In a society capable of so many things, boundaries are needed but when it concerns technology in the classroom, some boundaries need to be broken, smashed and leveled. Plutarch was a Greek historian that said, The mind is not a vessel to be filled, but a fire to be kindled. Technology has paved the way allowing educators to cross a digital divide powered with knowledge and application but how can teachers conquer and utilize the various types of technology in the classroom? How can one pick the appropriate technology based on student age, content and of course financial standing? This presentation will demonstrate various Web-enabled and cloud-based digital media for all classrooms no matter what the subject and age of students. Learning geared toward multiple modalities promotes student retention and enhances student success. Participants are welcomed to engage with certain technologies as they are being presented.
Multimodal Response To Information Books Through Computer Drawing
Ida Maduram, Ph.D., North Park University, USA

ABSTRACT

Recent interest in categorizing multimodal responses in early learners has implications in all the semiotic symbols children employ to response to information books such as reading, writing, and drawing. This article investigates a young child's multimodal responses to information books through computer drawings. The analysis of drawing in response to information books involved the evolution of symbolic representation through three cognitive processes such as negotiation, discussion of multiple shades of intertextual connections between life and literature, and the significance of visual and knowledge representation in the reconstruction of schema on diverse topics. Here, drawing—both paper-and-pencil and computer—are considered as multimodal representations. This paper concludes that technology and literacy can become co-processors in facilitating young children’s early literacy development.
Motivational Factors Effecting Faculty Collaboration And Engagement With Respect To The Professional Adjunct Faculty Member In The Online Environment

Joshua Bennett, University of Phoenix, USA
Steve MacLelland, University of Phoenix, USA
Sarita Reynolds, University of Phoenix, USA
June Wagner, University of Phoenix, USA

ABSTRACT

Collaboration in education has been practiced and promoted for decades by faculty and staff in educational organizations. The benefits of collaboration and engagement among faculty are far reaching and can spark scholarship opportunities, innovation, and growth within an educational organization, and the field of education itself. Additionally, a review of the literature has shown that faculty collaboration leads to the sharing of effective teaching practices, improves student learning outcomes and leads to a higher retention rate (Berry, Barnett; Daughtrey, Alesha; Wieder, Alan, 2009). Faculty collaboration, engagement, and camaraderie, especially in organizations of higher education, directly impact the university culture, course facilitation, and curriculum. Thus, a need to encourage collaboration, engagement, and sharing is necessary for all learning modalities.

Faculty collaboration in both the traditional classroom and the online environment has been highly reported in the literature. Unfortunately, the majority of this literature centers around full time faculty. That is, faculty that reports to a single organization as their primary source of employment. As colleges expand many community colleges now offer online degree programs. Additionally, to avoid costly faculty salaries in their online programs, many institutions have developed large pools of faculty from which to draw upon when offering their online classes. This has created a new academic professional, one whose employment is not tied to a single university: The Professional Adjunct faculty member.

Regardless of learning modality, faculty communicate, share ideas, and develop relationships. Within traditional higher education organizations, often faculty have facilities (faculty lounges) which promote face-to-face interaction. Unfortunately, as more and more educational organizations move toward programs that are totally online, the need for local (physical) full time faculty, with their associated full time costs, is slowly being replaced with the need for virtual part time faculty with a lower cost point. Although this part time, or adjunct, faculty member may have a lower dollar cost, it does come with a cost that was not anticipated: engagement. The question now facing higher education administrators is how to engage this new professional adjunct faculty member who may have teaching obligations at multiple organizations.

An eighteen-month study involving more than 1500 adjunct faculty was conducted to determine motivational factors that would be relevant to the professional adjunct. The results obtained from the study supported administrations concern that many online adjunct faculty feel a sense of isolation from their peers and subsequently believe that this leads to less than optimum student engagement and ultimately, student learning.

Collaboration and engagement among online faculty can spark scholarship opportunities, innovation, and growth within the industry itself. The challenge presented to administrators in higher education is to recognize and overcome negative motivational factors and encourage, support and provide the necessary resources for collaboration and engagement within the growing adjunct faculty community.
In this paper, the authors discuss the need for collaboration and engagement for the professional adjunct faculty member and identify best practices for accomplishing this as utilized at one of the largest online universities in the United States.

**Keywords:** Education, E-Learning, Faculty, Collaboration, Engagement, Best Practices, Student Success
Building The Organizational Leader Brand: Change Agent, Scholar, Thought Leader

Barbara Holmes, Winona State University, USA
Christopher Hahn, Winona State University, USA
Carson Perry, Winona State University, USA

“Regardless of age, regardless of position, regardless of the business we happen to be in, all of us need to understand the importance of branding,” management consultant Tom Peters writes in “the Brand Called You.” “We are CEOs of our own companies: Me Inc. to be in business today, our most important job is to be head marketer for the brand call You.” Martinuzzi (2014)

Who we are matters. Developing the personal brand communicates to the world the values that fuel everyday leadership habits and practices. Williams (2015), writing for Forbes Magazine, posits that a personal brand is essential in authentically communicating who you are. Yet, many educational leader preparation programs do not offer formal training in branding and marketing the organizational leader. Montoya (2002) captures the essence of the personal brand when he asserts “Personal branding is the powerful, clear, positive idea that comes to mind whenever other people think of you. It is what you stand for—the values, abilities and actions that others associate with you (p.11)”.

Building the organizational leader brand requires the same processes, strategies, and tactics as branding a traditional product. Just as leaders have innate personality traits and organizational makeup (Northouse, 2016), crafting a leadership brand also incorporates traits into its identity that makes it unique and approachable to the stakeholder. Brand exposure is constant in daily life as people are continuously surrounded by brands, from clothing, vehicles, food selection, recreation and media. Building a brand, however, is much more involved.

Successful brands are constructed to embody traits the target market or followers identify with and develop affinity affiliation. Credentials, quality, consistency, morality, and change (Reis & Reis, 2002), are essential in crafting a viable, successful leadership brand. LeBron James, for example, is his own brand. He is not just a man, but an athlete, philanthropist, businessman and NBA Champion (James, 2016). As a result, the “LeBron” brand, is presented to the public as including all of these essential components.

Demers (2016) advises that millennial audiences connect best with individuals, rather than organizations. Consequently, personal branding builds trust and reputation that supports such viable relationships. People want to know what values the leader holds and whether the leader is a principled person with integrity. In the 21st century, the organizational leader needs a personal brand and should build all actions and interactions with followers around that personal brand. Demers (2016) further explains that personal branding requires the leader to develop a signature image, vision, voice, and personal standards that are recognizable to followers. Therefore, the personal brand should reflect the person you are and the person you are trying to be (Lake, 2016).

Developers of leadership brands are encouraged to implement a strategy similar to that of branding a product or service, including having clearly defined goals, understanding where they wish to take the brand in the market, creating a path on how to get there, and establishing a methodology for evaluating brand success (Bedburry, 2002). It is also important that the brand itself be viewed as a person by both leader and stakeholder (Kapferer, 2004). In doing so, the organizational leader brand is positioned as a relationship partner with all stakeholders. This becomes the brand’s persona. In the same way that interactions take place in a personal relationship, Fournier (1998) acknowledges that the brand to consumer relationship is also “constituted of a series of repeated exchanges between two parties (p. 346)”.

Once the organizational leader brand is known and identified by stakeholders, the relationship can be allowed to “evolve in response to these interactions and to fluctuations in the contextual environment (Fournier, 1998, p. 346)”.
Branding as an Intentional Act

Branding at its best is thoughtful and intentional. The effective organizational leader cannot afford to have the personal brand develop in an unorganized, haphazard manner and needs to intentionally establish an intentional plan to develop image, vision and follower perception. Hyder (2014) points out that everyone has a personal brand including two year olds. The personal brand develops with or without the input of the individual. Therefore, organizational leaders benefit when brand characteristics translate into operational integrity, fairness, human relationships, effective communications and positive organizational outcomes. With every speech, meeting, presentation and organizational transaction, the organizational leader is marketing the personal brand to followers and stakeholders. Research now suggests that success comes from the effectiveness of this personal marketing. Kaputa (2003) advises that leaders should intentionally seek opportunities to become more visible within the organizational brand market and find ways to become more effective communicators externally and internally.

Personal Branding and Career Success

Saltzman (2015) in his article entitled Why Personal Branding is Essential to Career Success, suggests that the personal brand is essential for career advancement and for positioning yourself as an organizational thought leader. Saltzman further explains that there is a synergistic and dynamic relationship between career success and personal branding that when fully understood, has the potential to launch a person’s career to new heights. Therefore, attending to personal branding is essential to building a sustainable career. Followers want to identify with the brand characteristics of the leader and need to rely on these characteristics through the ups and downs of organizational changes.

Smale (2015) counsels that your personal brand is how the world perceives you. Therefore, it is preferable that a strong brand is developed rather than a brand that accumulates in an unorganized manner that is unpolished and uninteresting. For career success, it stands to reason that the organizational leader benefits from a brand that is polished and interesting. The organizational leader needs to be polished in appearance and image; polished in speech and voice; polished in idea generation, and polished in interpersonal interactions that uplift and empower followers.

Williams (2016) in his article The Basics of Branding, asserts that the personal brand is your promise to the people. Consequently, the leader’s brand strategy includes what, when, how and where the brand message is delivered. When the brand message is clear and consistent, followers get a distinct impression of who the leader is and are comfortable signing on as followers. When followers see that the leader is respectful, responsible and fair, they are assured of equity in the workplace and this fosters stronger attachment to the organization. The leader’s brand builds the leader’s reputation and the reputation positions the leader for a continuum of career success and potential as a change agent.

How to Build the Organizational Leader Personal Brand

The literature is rich with various ideas for building the personal brand. This article will focus on the practices for personal branding that align with organizational leaders charged with implementing change and transforming organizations. Some branding practices that may be useful for the organizational leader include:

1. Start thinking of yourself as a brand
2. Understand and be your authentic self (Smale, 2015)
3. Develop visible habits of professionalism
4. Deliver what you promise (Martinuzzi, 2014)
5. Respect and engage followers
6. Build a network of advocates and promoters
7. Position yourself as a thought leader in the profession
8. Develop a signature style when speaking and making presentations
9. Remain a student of the profession
10. Seek opportunities for personal exposure to leave a lasting impression
Leadership Identity: Change Agent, Scholar, Thought Leader

The organizational leader is expected to lead. To keep the organization current and vital, the leader must remain current in the profession and in evidence-based change strategies. This includes identifying and involving all stakeholders and sharing a vision around which everyone can coalesce. Leaders must be knowledgeable about how to build the personal brand and align that brand with organizational success.

Franko (2015) outlined The Basic Building Blocks of Leadership Identity:

- Leadership brand. Each of us has a brand, whether we consciously shape it or allow others to do it for us. What are you known for that distinguishes you from the crowd, and are you visible to senior leadership?
- Behaviors. Our self-initiated behaviors communicate a lot about us. Do your self-initiated behaviors reflect assertiveness, decisiveness, and confidence?
- Responses. Our responses to situations and people also say a lot about us. What is your emotional intelligence in handling workplace situations and people around you?
- Presence. Do you dress the part of a leader? What does your physical presence exude? In addition, every communication, verbal or written, is an opportunity to showcase how well you organize your thoughts and articulate yourself. Do you sound like a leader?
- Habits. Our small actions, done day in and day out, are also known as habits. Who you are as a person is reflected in who you are as a leader, so it makes sense that your habits have a big stake in your leadership path and ultimate success. With the right habits, you stay on course. With the wrong ones, it’s easy to end up off the path.

Building Personal Brand Through Social Media

An important component of personal branding is making oneself visible, searchable, and accessible in the cyber world (Labrecque, Markos, & Milne, 2011). Social media and professional networking websites allow individuals to be found and to stay connected with not only friends and family, but also, potential employers, customers, or competitors. LinkedIn, ResearchGate, Twitter, and Facebook can be used intentionally to build a strong and recognizable personal brand. If used appropriately, these tools will have significant and lasting effects on the brand. However, becoming more searchable and visible does not come without sacrifice.

Separating personal and professional lives is more difficult thanks to social media. Labrecque, Markos, and Milne (2011) discovered that content placed online both implicitly and explicitly brands the individual poster and social media sites are principal tools for self-branding. Additionally, the study revealed pictures and content are equally as important to the self-brand, regardless of who posted the content. If a friend posts inappropriate content to the organizational leader’s page, brand promise and promotion may suffer because of the post.

It is not uncommon for employers, employees, or potential clients to search the Internet and social media for individuals encountered in professional settings. However, social media and Internet searches do not discriminate between personal and professional settings. If “Not Suitable for Work” (NSFW) content exists, it will surface when individuals are searched for. What the leader does outside of the workplace will arise and can be detrimental to the personal brand. However, when used intentionally and as a tool, social media and the Internet serve as aids in building a successful and well-rounded brand.

Before the Internet, the concept of the world being a small place had credence. The phrase “six degrees of separation” is common in movies and books and Travers and Milgram (1967) conducted a study to explore just how small the world actually is. Postcards, with predetermined recipients, were given to random people who could only pass the card onto someone they directly knew. Travers and Milgram discovered that the number of intermediaries averaged between 4.4 and 5.7. A 2012 study had similar aims, however, Facebook was used to determine the world has in fact shrunk to only four degrees of separation (Backstrom, Boldi, Rosa, Ugander, & Vigna, 2012).
The evolution of technology allows people to view organizational leader attributes and accomplishments as well as mistakes and failures. When promoting a personal brand, individuals must be aware of what they are putting into the world, not only about themselves but what others are posting as well, personally and professionally.

Companies and organizations use social media and advertisements to promote brand recognition and gain authority in the industry. A strategy for social media platforms is required to remain competitive in the fast-paced business world (Erdoğmuş & Çiçek, 2012). When thinking of a person as a brand, utilizing social media to perpetuate a similar agenda makes sense. Patel (2016) created a list of ways personal brand can be enhanced by using social media:

**Step 1. Find Appropriate Groups** Social media sites allow groups to be created for specific industries or topics. Becoming a member of appropriate groups allows individuals to stay current and communicate with other industry leaders.

**Step 2. Consistent Image** Names, pictures, and the message you are trying to send should be consistent across social media platforms. Consistency will allow the consumers ease of access in locating profiles and your personal brand will be reinforced.

**Step 3. Regularly Engage** Creating content regularly will engage followers and keep them coming back to check for new posts and information. Posting daily or multiple times a day is beneficial to maximize traffic to the profile.

**Step 4. Content Diversification** Changing content type increases the chance of engaging followers in posts. Photos, videos, series, articles, and going live are some of the various types of posts different followers may be inclined to react to.

**Step 5. Connect with Influencers.** Influencers are industry leaders, thought leaders, authors, or other public figures that inspire others to take action. Engaging influencers by consistently asking questions, posting remarks to photos, or sharing content is a way to be noticed by the influencer. Once noticed, working toward collaboration on a project or sharing each other’s content can be achieved.

**Step 6. Volunteer Services.** Being genuinely concerned with contacts or followers will reinforce a personal brand by conveying the message that you care. Asking how one’s day is going, if they need help with anything, or even wishing a happy birthday can go a long way and keep you in the front of their mind.

**Step 7. Provide Questions.** Posting questions to followers is a great way to get engagement and create dialogue amongst multiple parties.

**Step 8. Contribute to Discussions.** On group pages, influencers, and follower’s pages, contribute to discussions. Doing so will increase the online presence of the personal brand and increase followers, thus, increasing the brand recognition.

**Step 9. Monitor.** Tools that aid in monitoring a name or brand on social media exist for the sole purpose of keeping individuals connected to name brand and content. Any time an individual uses your brand or name, a notification will appear. Also, key words can be flagged to notify you when a discussion is happening that may be beneficial to join.

Using social media to build a personal brand can be time intensive and daunting at times. Social media websites typically incorporate tools that ease the process. Furthermore, online tutorials and applications alleviate some of the stress by showing how to simplify tasks such as posting to multiple platforms with a couple clicks of a mouse. Social media is changing the mode, method and frequency of brand communications and as organizational leaders, you remain in control of the narrative.

**The Leadership Brand Promise**

As soon as the organizational leader accepts a leadership position, positioning the personal brand becomes central to establishing credibility with organizational followers. The first 100 days in a new position provides multiple opportunities to display and reinforce the brand message and strategy. The manner in which the leader introduces change to the organization puts the brand message at the core of leadership actions. Through the leadership brand, the organizational leader promises integrity of message and actions. Franko (2015) advocates that leadership identity starts with your personal brand. It is the promise inherent in the personal brand that fuels leader effectiveness and accomplishments. Franko further explains that your presence in the workplace and in the professional world gives evidence of your personal brand. Therefore, the thoughts and ideas you manifest, the consistency of your actions,
your professional aptitude, your interactions with followers, and your readiness to take on new challenges make the brand impact statement.

Organizational outcomes can be improved as leaders gain competence in personal brand promise and personal brand promotion. Branding behaviors can be taught. Consequently, programs that prepare organizational leaders may consider including the basics of personal brand development in leader preparation curriculum.

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Bummer, Man! The High Cost Of Becoming- And Remaining- A Pot Entrepreneur: An Analysis Of Current Law And Possible Future Developments

Dwight E. Denman, Eastern Oregon University, USA

ABSTRACT

As of the writing of this paper, four states and the District of Columbia have voted to legalize the recreational use of marijuana. In addition, currently 16 states and the District of Columbia allow for the medicinal use of marijuana. In November, 2016 several more states will hold a ballot for the legalization of marijuana. Despite marijuana’s recent public acceptance, it remains a controlled substance banned by federal law. These States’ legalization of marijuana has created somewhat of a boom in pot entrepreneurs- however, the barriers to entering this market are still quite steep. On top of the onerous tax regulations at the federal and state level that make entry and sustenance in the pot business quite difficult, current banking laws make it even more so.

This paper will look at the current overlay of federal and state laws dealing with marijuana, primarily focusing on the tax and banking aspects at the federal and state levels. The paper will begin by briefly discussing the Controlled Substances Act and the development of the current state and federal regulation of the marijuana industry. The paper will then analyze the history and effect of Section 280E of the Internal Revenue Code on the marijuana industry. After that, the paper will briefly discuss some of the state law effects on the industry, as well as the federal banking laws and regulations affecting the industry. Finally, this paper will discuss some of the pending cases, proposed legislation and recent developments that may change the industry.
Students At Risk At A South African University: Are We Helping Them To Pass Or Setting Them Up For A Failure
Lawrence Meda, Cape Peninsula University of Technology, South Africa

ABSTRACT

The numbers of poor performing students who are considered to be at risk in South African Universities have reached alarming levels. It has been a trend that most of these ‘at risk students’ eventually drop out of university education before completing their studies because of academic challenges. This has been a subject of concern in various academic forums in the country. One wonders what kind of support these students are given if the number of dropouts keeps escalating. This paper is a presentation of the quality of support given to students who are at risk at a university of technology in South Africa. The study was guided by two critical questions: i) what kind of support is given to students at risk? And ii) How does the support given to students at risk enable them to perform in their academic studies? The study was done using a qualitative case study and its paradigmatic position was interpretive. Heads of Departments, lecturers and students at risk were purposively selected to participate in semi-structured interviews. Data was analysed using content analysis. Guided by a theoretical framework of Bronfenbrenner’s Social Ecological Model, it was concluded that the fragmented approach employed by various academics to support students at risk is tantamount to setting them up for a failure.

Keywords: Student, Risk, Support, Digital
Fifth Graders’ Understanding Of Fractions On The Number Line: A Standard Introduced In The Common Core State Standards For Third Graders
Taajah Felder Witherspoon, University of Alabama at Birmingham, USA

ABSTRACT
This paper reports on a case-study design of the various ways students represented fractions on number lines. Student responded to task-based interview questions based on identifying fractions as a number on the number line as well as equivalency and problem solving. The tasks were administered individually to 26 fifth-grade students over a 15-minute time frame in their respective school. The two groups of 10-year-old students answered most questions in written form on pencil and paper. The students were often asked to explain how they arrived at an answer. Student performance was highest when instructed to plot \( \frac{1}{2} \) on a number line 0 to 1 as well as naming a fraction less than \( \frac{1}{2} \). Although no students attempted to solve the word problem with the number line as indicated, they performed lowest when they attempted to plot \( \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \text{ and } 1 \) on a number line with a predetermined unit from 0-3, identifying \( \frac{1}{4} \) on a non-routine number line, and plotting a unit fraction with an equivalent fraction as well as an improper fraction on a common number line.

Keywords: Fractional Numbers, Understanding Fractions, Elementary Mathematics, Number Line Representation
It’s Not Homework, Just More Lessons In Your House
Lloyd Goldberg, Clark County School District, USA
Carie Thibault, Clark County School District, USA
Sara Boucher, Clark County School District, USA

ABSTRACT

Differentiation and process based learning are the hallmarks of the Common Core State Standards, as is a lack of ready-made materials on a variety of ability levels. Therefore, in an era of increasing technological access, and heightened expectations for computer literacy, and the expectation to implement 21st century standards, why are teachers and schools still relying on one size fits all, paper/pencil homework packets? How does this benefit the advanced student, or the one needing remediation? How is this more efficient for the teachers who are growing shorter each year on time and resources? What type of authentic and valuable feedback are the student getting from this process? Is this approach actually getting results on student growth measures and/or standardized testing?

In Clark County the recommended policy is to give students 10 minutes of homework per grade level. Alfie Kohn, in ‘The Homework Myth’ argues against many of the current / traditional homework practices. So how can teachers remedy these seemingly divergent strains of thought? Our presentation covers the use of technology that is readily accessible to teachers, free of charge, to generate differentiated homework practices that are both rigorous and authentic. We will discuss how these practices are able to be applied to any grade level and any ability level of student. In addition to the homework focus, we will also discuss how these practices can be altered and utilized within the general classroom experience, either through differentiated centers or rotations.

The presentation will begin with the discussion of the need for differentiated homework / practice. It will incorporate the practice of using the same standard within the CCSS but generating a process in which students of all ability levels can show their personal level of mastery. We will then show examples that have been used within both primary and intermediate elementary classes, and how these examples perfectly illustrate the application of standards. All the while showing how this can be only done through the use of commonly applied technology, and requires less work and effort on the part of the classroom teacher. The participants will then have the opportunity to create their own assignments and engage in professional discussions with the presenters and other participants on how to further modify their ideas to be applicable in their classrooms. We will then show the use of individual feedback to further differentiate and to continue the lessons in an effort to make instruction more efficient and effective. A discussion on the benefits of feedback and the research will help illustrate the practice, as opposed to traditional grading methods. Again, we will show how this can be only done with online and app based technologies. Finally, we will facilitate a discussion on how these lessons easily transcend the specific CCSS focus and incorporate a multitude of 21st century learning standards in addition to other curricular areas, netiquette, and cyber bullying.

In summary this presentation will show teachers how to use online and app tools to create at home and in class assignments based on the CCSS that individualize instruction (mainly focused within math instruction), provide specific feedback, grow student accountability, create a community of learners, and increase teacher effectiveness and efficiency all the while generating additional student growth and comprehension.
The Law And Its Role In The Proliferation Of Oppressive Child Labor
Michelle Alarcon, Hawaii Pacific University, USA

ABSTRACT

Child labor is a global social and human rights problem. Global statistics indicate that between 190 million to 250 million children between the ages of 5 and 14 are at work. The “worst forms of child labor” as established by ILO Convention No. 182 enacted in 1999, comprises of (i) slavery or economic activity in slave-like conditions, (ii) prostitution or pornography, (iii) illicit activities such as drug production and trafficking, and (iv) economic activities that are likely to harm the health, safety, or morals of the child. The ILO classifies the first three types as “unconditional worst forms of child labor.” The primary author believes that all four types must be treated with unconditional force by the law and proposes the elimination of all legal conditions in the type involving economic activities in its most oppressive form. Following this trend, most country-level laws contain loopholes that lack the punishment that would deter such crime, thereby allowing the global proliferation of these practices.

This paper examines 1.) the major causes of oppressive child labor; 2.) the relevant laws of the United States and the United Nations; 3.) the loopholes in these laws: treating most economic type of oppressive child labor as a civil offense with puny civil penalties and quasi-criminal enforcement; and placing exemptions on parents, employers, and certain industries; 4.) how these loopholes enable the proliferation of the problem, and 5.) proposes legal revisions that uphold all forms of oppressive child labor as crimes per se, attach criminal sanctions with strict enforcement, and eliminate all types of exemptions.
Post-Secondary Students Experiences With A Stress Reduction Tool
Patricia Kostouros, Mount Royal University, Canada
Deb Bennett, Mount Royal University, Canada

ABSTRACT

National College Health Assessment (NCHA) data is not only relevant to student support service personnel. When shared broadly across an institution, others, such as faculty, can take up student support in their classrooms. In this presentation, we describe the data related to the NCHA and describe a research project taken on by two faculty members at Mount Royal University to support students. An existing tool BreathingRoom™ was used to assist with stress reduction and skill building for resilience. Data from the research project will be discussed, highlighting the importance of collaborating across an institution.
Not Answers! Questions!! Notes On The Teaching Of Poetry In Grade - And High-Schools As Inferred From University Classes In Poetry

Gerda Eiata-Alster, Ben Gurion University, Israel

“We have all the answers; what we need, is the questions”
Dostojewsky, Notes from the Underground

In my career as a university Professor in literature, the “Introduction to Poetry” class has been among my favorites. Unable at this point to discern what came first (egg or chicken), but one of my challenges soon turned out to consist of undoing what I had become to see as the destruction of the essence of what poetry, and for that matter, literature was meant to do: make you think and question.

Let me illustrate my point by a life anecdote:

More than once it happened, that, after a few weeks of teaching, a delegation of my class came to my office hour with the question: “what are you teaching us”? My first, and subsequently identical, reply was: nothing of substance, but the art of thinking and questioning.” Some left. Some of those who stayed ended up calling the course to have been one of the most exciting and challenging of their literary studies.

So how did I go about teaching the abstract notions of ‘thinking’ and ‘questioning’? In a way, it’s, the wrong question, since it presupposes the anteriority of the idea to the praxis, whereas, in fact, the idea of ‘how to’ was mostly distilled from the praxis; in a process of ongoing refinement, which ended in my final poetry class.

Let me end this abstract with a confession. I was, at the time, putting it mildly, not an expert in literature. A philologist by education, I had been trained to extract (the ‘true’) meaning from texts by close attention to their linguistic, stylistic and rhetorical devices. Well, that’s what lit. people do as well, isn’t it? Yes and no. As I was preparing my course, in the middle and late sixties, I entered the fray at the transitional point where the non-decidability of texts, all texts!, became the hallmark of reading, with at the front, literary texts, which used language to tell many stories by means of a single text, with at the front of those the poetic text; the poem. And all this, while using the very methods by which I had been trained to look for the ‘true’ meaning; expansion as oppose to reduction, enrichment as opposed to impoverishment. One question, many -equivalent – answers - each with its own ‘remnant’.

However, as is always the case; the proof will be in the pudding. My lecture today will be a poetry class with you as my students.

Good luck!
Persistence Of DACA Mexico Origin Students In Higher Education Institutions In The United States-Mexican Borderlands

Maggie Dominguez, University of Phoenix, USA
Lili C. Melton, University of Phoenix, USA

ABSTRACT

DeAngelo, Schuster, and Stebleton (2016) report that 65,000 high school graduates each year are undocumented students. The term “undocumented” is often used to describe these young adults because they do not have the documents required by the United States to remain in the country legally (Ritz, 2011). Although these students have legal rights to access kindergarten to 12-grade education via Plyler v. Doe (1982), these same rights do not exist at higher education institutions (Lopez & Lopez, 2010; Seo, 2011).

Undocumented young adults have united to work for equal access to higher education. On August 15, 2012, the Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) memorandum was implemented as a form of prosecutorial discretion, providing noncitizens who meet certain requirements a lawful presence in the United States for a two-year renewal period (Bruno, 2014; NCID, 2014). A majority of current research conducted on undocumented student experiences focuses on qualitative methods and groups all undocumented students together regardless of their country of origin (Cuevas & Cheung, 2015; Sanchez & So, 2015). However, undocumented students come from multiple countries and have unique immigration experiences that possibly influence their current student experience in various ways (Cebulko & Silver, 2016; Sanchez & So, 2015).

The focus of this research centers on the DACA Mexico Origin students in the United States-Mexican Borderlands. This paper explores two predictor variables (college climate for diversity and sense of belonging) studied in relation to the criterion variable (student's intent to persist) in a correlational study.

It is the authors' contention that investigating the relationship between these factors and a student's intent to persist toward degree completion will provide college and university administrators, staff and faculty with a greater understanding of the significant influence of these two predictor variables. The authors believe that this information will prove instrumental when creating programs and providing support services to DACA students. This paper addresses the findings of an 18-month study conducted during the 2016 United States presidential election when the political climate created an often-hostile environment for this student population as a result of the American attitude toward undocumented immigrants. The authors also make recommendations for best practices in helping this marginalized group of student’s progress towards degree completion.

Keywords: DACA, Undocumented, Degree Completion, Student Engagement, Diversity In Education, Inclusive Education, Student Persistence

REFERENCES


Idea At Age Forty: Weathering Common Core Standards And Data Driven Decision Making

Vaughn Bicehouse, Slippery Rock University of Pennsylvania, USA
Jean C. Faieta, Edinboro University of Pennsylvania, USA

ABSTRACT

Special education, a discipline that aims to provide specialized instruction to meet the unique needs of each child with a disability, has turned 40 years old in the United States. Ever since the passage of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (P.L. 94-142) in 1975, every state has been directed to provide a free and appropriate education for all students with disabilities (Gallagher, 2000; Rothstein, 1995). The focus of this paper is to revisit the foundations of the special education movement in the United States to show how special education has progressed since 1975. The current Race to the Top movement impacts school districts across the nation, creating great concern about what this means for students with disabilities and how it affects their struggle to succeed within the public school domain. In fact, after 40 years, (P.L. 94-142) known as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, IDEA, is the current high stakes standards and assessment climate taking the “special” out of special education?

Keywords: IDEA, Inclusion, Race to the Top, No Child Left Behind, Special Education
Comparative Study Of Teacher-Trainees’ Standing-Position And Instructional Categories In Lessons: Case Of Japan And Korea
Masanobu Sakamoto, Aichi Institute of Technology, Japan

1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to determine the teaching patterns or routines by analyzing the individual movements (standing positions) of teachers in front of blackboard and the changing instructional behaviors in lessons by categorizing with Flanders Interactional Analysis System, and to compare the differences of lessons across the two countries. The authors analyze teachers’ standing positions in front of blackboard and changing instructional categories using recorded lessons. They developed computer software that can automatically analyze teachers’ movement through graphical illustration.

2. METHOD

The authors used computer software which was developed by Sakamoto to analyze the microteaching in both countries. The software gets teachers’ standing positions automatically using motion-tracking technology twice per a second, so it measures 6,000 times to get the data in full-length a lesson. We can visualize teachers’ standing positions using the data as diagram. The software gets categorized the classroom situation by researchers with watching the lesson, too. In this study, in order to understand clearly the over-all teaching behaviors, the authors set fourteen categories referred from Flanders’ Interaction Analysis System (1970), as follows; explanation, question, instruction to all, instruction to each student, repeat, reply, answer, advise, small talk, long time statement by students, short time statement by students, free talk by students, board writing, and walking among students for checking. Flanders said that we were able to comprehend the mood or atmosphere of lessons by analyzing the interchange of thoughts between teachers and students. And, in order to understand better the quality of classroom experience it is important to consider how teachers act or react in various parts of lesson in a particular session. Being aware of teacher’s behavior in particular part of the lesson would provide a clearer comparison with others which is necessary for lesson improvement (jugyo-kaizen).

After categorizing the scene of the lesson, we can make a pie chart which is shown rate of categories and a matrix which is shown the changing categories in the lesson. In this study the authors used the Flanders’ approach, we employ 196 matrixes (categories 14 x 14), count frequencies, and consider features of 25 areas (A to Y). We can understand from square 1-2 teacher questions (category 2) to students after his explanation (category 1). The total numbers inside of matrixes are different from each lesson because of variance in minutes of teaching, however we can understand these categories by looking closely to each packet.

3. RESEARCH SUBJECTS

The subjects of this study are university students who want be teachers in Japan and Korea. The authors analyzed microteaching by six teacher-trainees. Three Japanese students who belong to institute of technology try to get the teacher licenses of technology and information science in high school. Three Korean students who belong to university of education try to get the teacher licenses of social study in elementary school. You wonder the kind of school is different from both countries, however it would be different lessons if you teach the same contents. Therefor the authors don’t consider the result of their study will not be influenced.
4. FINDING

The cross-country comparison in Japan and Korea reveals the following results; 1) both countries’ teacher-trainees stand on center of the blackboard. We know from our past study (SAKAMOTO & CHEON 2015) that it’s relation with their number of doing microteaching or with their degree of interest to students. 2) Japanese teachers use blackboard as a part of social construct functions, however Korean teachers use it as a part of presentation tools. We can see three stages in Japanese students microteaching; first is “almost immobile stage”, next is “stage of moving left to right in front of blackboard or repeating it several times”, and final stage is “stage of complex movement to the left and right, sometimes walking around the students to observe or give instructions”. 3) Japanese teacher-trainees use most of the lesson time to explain contents of textbooks. When they want to confirm the degree of students’ understanding or to check the ease of their explanation, they ask something to students. However the turns of question and answer are just as if IRE (initiation, response, evaluation) model by Mehan(1979); “what is this?”, “this is xx”, “that’s all right”. They cannot take off this teaching style until experiencing teaching-practice. 4) Korean teacher-trainees use most of the lesson time to doing question and answer, so we can observe interaction between teacher and students. With a critical eyes, the reason of asking to students frequently is not to deviate from their lesson plans and to correct the course of their plans.

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Fig. 1: Korean Teacher-Trainee W & X  
Fig. 2: Japanese Teacher-Trainee Y & Z
Instructional Strategies For Faculty Working With Underprepared Online Adult Learners
Beth Bigler, University of Phoenix, USA
Therez Moya, University of Phoenix, USA

ABSTRACT

Given the rise of distance learning in recent years, online undergraduate instructors are continually faced with the challenge of working with a wide-variety of students, including an increasing number of underprepared students. Jones and Becker (2002) define underprepared students as “first-generation college students, adults returning to school after many years because they need more skills, students who come to a college because they do not know what else to do, transfer students, students from low socioeconomic backgrounds, and minorities.” These learners differ from traditional college students in that many of them are already established in their careers, but still lack one or more of the basic skills necessary to succeed in higher education, such as reading, writing, or computer skills. Faculty are in a position to positively impact these students through use of a number of best practices, contributing to a positive student outcome and increased student engagement.

The authors examined a variety of instructional strategies that online faculty use to help adult learners succeed in returning to school after an extended absence and found several strategies to be helpful in working with these students in undergraduate education: 1) encourage contact between students and faculty, 2) develop reciprocity and cooperation among students, 3) encourage active learning, 4) give prompt feedback, 5) emphasize time on task, 6) communicate high expectations, and 7) respect diverse talents and ways of learning (Chickering and Gamson, 1987). These principles have been extensively analyzed (Tirrell, 2009), and applied to evolving educational practices. The results also indicate a gap exists between faculty teaching skills and the skills required for successful online teaching” (p. 78).

The authors contend that current research demonstrates the need for solid strategies that faculty can implement to be successful in the online educational environment, particularly when working with at-risk students. As students re-enter the online learning environment after an absence, the need for clear instructional strategies, which encourage active learning, are necessary for success. A variety of tools can be used to enhance classroom learning and retention as they pertain to Chickering’s Seven Principles of Success, particularly “encourages active learning”.

For the purposes of this paper, the authors focus on the use of worksheets, guided (video) instructions, and graphic organizers, as instructional practices which will lead to active learning and student success. From the authors’ research, it was determined that a positive connection exists regarding the use of worksheets, video instruction, and graphic organizers, in an online undergraduate classroom. Specific instructional strategies such as worksheets that reinforce weekly learning and build upon concepts, video instruction for assignments that engages the senses, and graphic organizers as study guides to organize reading, are methods teachers can implement in their classrooms to further engage students and help them establish the study skills needed for success as they continue on in their program of study.

Considering the vast number of online students and students returning to the classroom after an absence, the authors believe additional study is warranted in order to measure the effectiveness of implementing the previously mentioned strategies, across the curriculum, with a diverse student population. In this paper, the authors share instructional strategies that encourage a guided approach and active learning, that have proven to be successful in elevating student success at a large online higher educational organization.

Keywords: Active Learning, Instructional Strategies, Distance Education, Online Learning
A Model For Teaching Practice In Higher Education
Astrid M. Sølvberg, The Norwegian University of Science and Technology, NTNU, Norway
Marit Rismark, The Norwegian University of Science and Technology, NTNU, Norway

ABSTRACT

In today’s society there is a need and demand for continuous competence development. Employees within many professions need to keep track with new developments and they need to renew and optimize their work practice accordingly. Universities have played a key role in meeting the competence developments needs that workers have. Following this, higher education has initiated a range of post-graduate programs to respond to and to manage the increasing and diversified demand for learning. There are concerns, however, about how courses can be designed in ways that support employees’ learning needs. For example, authors note that there is a gap between what practitioners are asked to learn when attending post-graduate education and what they do at their everyday work (e.g. Noda & Kim, 2014; Roth, 2010). Sølvberg & Rismark (2016) suggest that there is a need to put employees’ workplace experiences at center stage when designing post-graduate courses. They have developed a model for teaching practice in higher education that emphasizes employees’ workplace experiences. The model is grounded in research findings from a three-year study of post-graduate courses for engineers at the Norwegian University of Science and Technology, NTNU.

In the Clute Conference presentation we discuss this model and develop the model a step further by discussing how the model may be adapted and how it may be used as a tool for planning post-graduate courses. In the model, teaching practice is described according to the following teaching timeline: preparations before course start-up, activities during the course and concerns when the course is ended. Following the model, it is essential that course participants’ workplace experience is included in all three phases of this teaching timeline. A main challenge to be discussed is how the model may be used within the wide range of university subjects and how the model may be applied into varying study arrangements.

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Considerations For Post Secondary ADA Accommodations

Dawn Baker Ingram, University of Phoenix, USA
Gary Grimm, University of Phoenix, USA

ABSTRACT

Schools, from birth to postsecondary education, are required to provide students that have disabilities with accommodations. At the post-secondary level, accommodations are frequently provided based on ease of implementation, rather than on the student’s needs. Extended time is one of the most common accommodations for students with disabilities at all levels of education. The benefit of this accommodation, though, is not clearly evident. Extended time is an easy and often “one size fits all” approach to post secondary ADA accommodations both for standardized and timed assessment, and as a classroom accommodation. Unfortunately, other accommodations are frequently not considered. Although extended time can be a major benefit for some students, it can also be detrimental to others. The authors believe that a more careful evaluation must be made to weigh the costs and benefits for each student as this accommodation is added.

According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (2014), the number of students with diagnosed disabilities is slowly increasing at the post secondary level. Additionally, colleges are increasingly being held responsible for the ultimate employability of their graduates, as an extension of the Americans with Disabilities Act (Itkonen, 2007). These students require added support in education, but also need the skills required by employers.

A review of the literature reveals that considerable study has been devoted to extended time for timed assessments, such as state tests and the SATs. Additionally, the literature reveals that relatively little attention has been given to how this accommodation applies to classroom use, other than the acknowledgment that it should be provided. For example, the authors note that organizational skills are mentioned in the literature as a need. However, very little data is available on the addition of organizational strategies to post-secondary education plans and how they are addressed with respect to accommodations.

The authors performed an online review of current organizational needs of secondary education students with special needs and additionally, a review of an accredited university’s working model of student accommodations. The authors found that students are more successful academically with added guidance and parameters for self monitoring and budgeting time in advance of due dates for classroom accommodations. The authors believe that if a management strategy was implemented for students now, while slowly fading support over time, this will increase student success in college as well as increase the student’s success as a graduate in long term employment (White, 2013).

Students with disabilities are provided with accommodations per the Americans with Disabilities Act, but the specifics of accommodations should be tailored to the student, always keeping in mind that specific needs and abilities of the student. Careful consideration of student learning outcomes should determine the type and level of accommodation that best meets the student’s long term goals. In this paper, the authors propose a long term and short term accommodation option platform for post-secondary settings that provide a sustainable framework for a successful transition by the student into the workforce.

Keywords: Special Needs, Accommodations, Extended Time, Classroom Accommodations, Postsecondary Education
Arizona Schools Provided With K-8 Professional Development To Extend Teacher Knowledge On Literacy, Thinking, And Writing Through A University Partnership

Dr. Yvette Dix, Arizona State University, USA
Rebecca Grijalva, Arizona State University, USA

K-12 Education Workshop

A university partnership with 30 Arizona schools provides professional development focusing on literacy skills, thinking, and writing to increase student understanding of content across the curriculum. Fourteen professional development sessions for teachers over three years are designed to have a positive impact on student achievement in reading and math scores on high stakes tests. A quantitative methodology will measure the impact on student scores, as well as teacher growth in assessment and student work. This hands-on workshop would engage participants by having them experience the informal writing/drawing strategy in a low risk environment by taking on the role of a student, in order to have first-hand knowledge of the ease of use and benefits of the strategy. Participants would then debrief the experience and provide reflection and connections to their current roles and needs.

ABSTRACT

Arizona State University and the National Institute for Excellence in Teaching are partnering with 30 schools in five districts across Arizona through a federal Supporting Effective Educator Development (SEED) Grant to provide the teachers in these schools with professional development to increase their understanding related to literacy, thinking, writing, assessment of writing, and the analysis of student work. The focus for this objective of the SEED Grant is to increase student literacy skills and to have teachers use writing as a lens to view student thinking and understanding of content in all subject areas. Fourteen professional development sessions over three years are designed to deepen teacher understanding related to an expanded definition of literacy that includes reading, writing, speaking, listening, and viewing. Teachers are also coached to creating high quality writing prompts, to utilize appropriate assessment practices, and how to analyze student work. This intense focus on writing in all content areas is based upon an anticipated positive impact on student achievement in reading and math on the Arizona high stakes test. A quantitative methodology will be utilized to measure the impact on student scores for reading and math on the Arizona high stakes test, AzMERIT, as well as teacher evaluation scores in the areas of assessment and student work. It is anticipated that there will be a positive impact on teacher evaluation scores and student learning by the end of the 2016-2017 school year, which marks the completion of the current SEED Grant awarded to Arizona State University and the National Institute for Excellence in Teaching. This will be accomplished through the fourteen targeted professional development sessions provided to teachers during the 2014-2015, 2015-2016, and 2016-2017 school years.
Engagement Tools Help Online Students Curb Feelings Of Isolation
Allison Mintz, University of Phoenix, USA
Mary Lynn Cluff, University of Phoenix, USA

ABSTRACT

In this paper, the authors examine university students’ experience with isolation in an online, asynchronous classroom as understood through the student viewpoint and how it relates to student performance. The questions that this study hopes to address are as follows:

1. What types of activities do students themselves see as having the greatest potential for reducing isolation in the online classroom and to what degree are students engaging in these activities?
2. Does engagement in these activities result in higher academic performance?

It is hypothesized that students who engage in activities which promote connectivity not only feel less isolation in the online classroom, but have better academic performance than those who do not.

Some studies have shown that students desire high connectivity and achieve it to the degree they desire it (Schroeder, Baker, Terras, Mahar, P. & Chiasson, 2016), while others argue that isolation is a persistent problem (Willging & Johnson, 2004; Falloon, 2012; Goldingay & Land, 2014). Additionally, the assumption is that higher participation rates in the classroom lead to better academic performance (Rovai & Barnum, 2003). Unfortunately, studies have failed to explore which activities promote the most connectivity. In this paper, the authors explore the voluntary activities that students engage in in order to minimize their sense of isolation and to determine which are most effective. Furthermore, the authors seek to confirm that isolation is an ongoing problem, and that involvement in said activities indeed results in more connectivity and higher academic performance.

Approximately 200 students in an online university’s Critical Thinking course were given the chance to respond to a discussion question that asked them to share their best practices for managing isolation in the online classroom. Topics for discussion included various “actions of engagement,” e.g. phone calls, private messaging, conferencing, texting, having a study buddy, etc. Some of these actions were possible in the online classroom; some were not. The authors chose the following five topics to consider with respect to reducing feelings of isolation by students:

1) Fully participating in class discussions, or, in other words, making at least 40 discussion posts total.
2) Initiating private messages to the instructor and/or responding to instructor generated private messages.
3) Initiating phone calls to the instructor and/or answering/returning a call from the instructor.
4) Initiating informal discussions with classmates in “class messages” unrelated to class topics.
5) Posting to the school’s social media site either before the start of class or during the class.

It was demonstrated that certain activities were more desired than others, with the use of Skype and study buddies being the most popular requests. It was also demonstrated that some of the available activities were more fully utilized than others. Participation and messaging were the most common, while phone calls and class messages, the least.

This study concluded that effective engagement tools should be included as part of the course curriculum in order to change this isolating culture and to promote a more inclusive and engaging classroom experience. Online classrooms and curriculum should be built and designed in ways that consciously create such opportunities. For example, activities such as podcasts could be added to the online classroom to increase involvement; a study buddy system could be developed and more synchronous activities and regularly held Skype meetings could be offered. The authors demonstrate that with proper planning, online students can significantly increase their connectivity to instructors and...
fellow students and thereby improve student learning outcomes and greatly reduce their feelings of isolation in an online educational environment.

**Keywords:** Online Classroom, Isolation, Student Engagement, Curriculum Design

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The Importance Of Encouraging Student Peer Social Support In The Online Undergraduate Classroom

Jane L. King, University of Phoenix, USA  
Erin Lyden, University of Phoenix, USA

ABSTRACT

The practice of creating support between faculty and students in the online classroom is often researched and explored, with best practices being identified and implemented. For student-to-student support among online university students, though, faculty tend not to focus on encouraging students to make connections with one another. The question, then, is how faculty can encourage peer social support in their online classroom, especially for students in entry-level classes?

The term “student peer social support” refers to students helping one another in the classroom, studying together, providing emotional support, and, also, forming friendships which can continue throughout a student’s undergraduate education. Although studies from 2009 and earlier have proven the importance of student peer social support in the on-ground and the on-line classroom, the authors have been unable to find further research conducted to add to these findings or to explore the most efficient strategies faculty can use to encourage and facilitate it (Voigt, 2009, citing Grant-Vallone et al, 2003-2004; Gordon et al, 2001; Oehlkers & Gibson, 2001; Schwitzer & Lovell, 1999).

Through observation, the authors detected that the majority of students displayed little interaction with one another, especially in the early weeks of the class. To minimize the sense of isolation, the authors experimented with techniques to encourage students to engage in peer social support. Based on the successful use of these practices, the authors have confirmed that encouraging student peer social support in the classroom results in more comfortable and confident online students.

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Powering Education Through Solar Energy In Rural Schools: Challenges And Opportunities
Mubina Kirmani, Towson University, USA
Muneer Kirmani, Towson University, USA

ABSTRACT
As we face serious ecological challenges there is need to seek renewable and alternative forms of energy to combat carbon emissions and climate change. These ecological challenges can be used as opportunities in rural parts of Africa and elsewhere to not only address climate change but also to improve the social sectors such as health and education. This paper focuses on a pilot project conducted in a rural village of Kychom, in Sierra Leone, where solar energy was used to improve education. The project was initiated because of consistently low performance of students in the Basic Education Certificate Exam (BECE) at a village secondary school in the part of the country with no electricity and running water. Out of 56 students in the school who were required to sit for the BECE, 18 students participated. Role of school and community members in partnership with the American Peace Corps, and support from United Nations International Development Organization will be discussed. Some of the economic and sociocultural constraints of the community will be discussed and how these challenges were overcome. Results of the pilot study and broader implications of solar and other renewable initiatives to promote education in rural Africa and elsewhere will be presented.

Keywords: Solar, Renewable, Education, Rural
LOL! Laughter in Online Learning
Humor’s Role in Student Motivation
Barbara Lombardi, University of Phoenix, USA
Lisa Thompson, University of Phoenix, USA

ABSTRACT

T.S. Eliot once wrote, “Humor is also a way of saying something serious.” As enrollment in the online environment increases, it becomes incumbent upon faculty to understand the dynamics of student motivation and retention in this non-traditional setting. A goal of every instructor is to be effective in the class by engaging students. One possible way to effectively engage students is by the interjection of humor into the classroom. It has been shown that humor has the ability to encourage that engagement (Powers, 2005). This may be true for a traditional classroom setting where visual cues are readily apparent, but what of the online classroom?

A study conducted by Powell & Andresen (2006) between the humor and learning connection designates that “…humour, provided it is not used to excess, can increase attention and interest and help to illustrate and reinforce what is being taught. It is suggested that the presentation of humorous material involves skills which can be learnt through practice and that staff development programmes should provide opportunities for academics to acquire such skills” (pg. 79). It is important to note that studies such as these emphasize the significance of humor’s connection to course content.

However, the authors' survey of the literature revealed that relatively little previous work had been undertaken to adequately address the challenges of adding humor in the online arena. Humor is not a skill that comes naturally to faculty, and the classroom is not generally the place where students go to be amused. One of the considerations when incorporating humor is what type of humor is appropriate and how is it best implemented. Students desire to feel connected to one another and to their instructor. By interspersing bits of humor in their creative approach, educators build a closeness and sense of community. As faculty strive to create an open, relaxed atmosphere of learning, online instructors struggle with this concept as online instructors who cannot “see” their audience must attempt to “see” each student and help form both individual and group cohesion. In the end, the instructor becomes a “real” person to the online student with humor becoming the vehicle that connects students intimately to the real world and to their own understanding of class concepts and theories.

Questioning humor’s role in student engagement, the authors undertook a review of current literature, and found examples that probed humor’s influence in the online classroom. These findings supported the belief that learning can be enhanced by helping someone to view all sides of an issue with humor. Through the authors’ creation of assignments and discussions, the authors developed a strategy for purposefully interjecting humor into the classroom for determining humor’s tangible role in the online setting and undertook a small pilot study to determine its effects on student learning. The authors then compared student survey results from a variety of online classes in which humor was deliberately added to one class and excluded from the other.

From the pilot study, it was determined that students not only appreciate and learn better with humor in the classroom, but additionally feel more connected to the instructor and fellow students as a result of it. Additionally, student satisfaction markedly increased as a result of interjecting humor into the classroom. In general, students found it easier to focus on lessons, and they remembered certain concepts and readings that were paired with humorous tidbits (Stambor, 2006).

Adding humor to the classroom can result in an increase in student retention, student engagement and elevated student learning in the online classroom. Further research is necessary to determine the impact of humor in online education and to help ease the minds of academia who continue to question its effectiveness. In this paper, the authors present successful strategies for the purposeful interjection of humor into the classroom that have proven effective at a large online university in the United States.

Keywords: Humor, Online Instruction, Curriculum Design, Classroom Strategies, Student Engagement
Impact Of Socratic Questioning On Student Engagement In Online Learning Environments
Beth L. Myers, University of Phoenix, USA

ABSTRACT
The growth of online learning / web-based learning as a mode of education has grown significantly in the twenty-first century (Vander Ark, 2011). Lawson (2010), noted “distance education in the form of online learning is growing exponentially, enabling working adults, career-changes, and any professional in between to sharpen their academic skills for the prospective of a better professional future” (p.2). Despite this popularity, questions have risen on whether online instruction can provide a quality education for students (Lee, Kim, & Kim, 2014). Numerous studies have provided mixed findings on the effectiveness (Nguyen, 2015). A study conducted by Brown and Liedholm in 2002 concluded that students in an online setting “performed significantly worse on tests than the students in the traditional format even though they had better GPA and ACT scores” (p. 447). In contrast a study by Navarro and Shoemaker in 2000 determined that students in the online format performed “as good or better” than traditional students “regardless of background characteristics” (p. 362). Because results are mixed, it is important that online instructors be aware of how to effectively teach in this mode to help students be successful. Instructors need teaching methods that not only impart knowledge, but also maintain engagement and connection.

The Socratic Method has a long history as a “useful pedagogical tool” and can be used in an asynchronous classroom (Hlinak, 2014, p.10). The impact of using the Socratic Method online has been found to be positive as it allows students to reflect on their answers and provide more thoughtful discussion (Yang, Newby & Bill, 2005, Gullier, Durndell & Ross, 2007, Lee, Kim & Kim, 2014). Additionally, studies of online classrooms have revealed that students’ perception of engagement and the role that instructional support plays is important to the online educational experience and the successful accomplishment of student learning outcomes (Lawson 2010, Aydin & Gumus, 2016).

The online setting allows universities to provide educational opportunities to individuals without restriction to location and time. This flexibility, allows students who previously would not have had the opportunity to engage in this learning (Lee, Kim, & Kim, 2014). However, it is important to note the limitations of online education as well. Learners in an online educational environment can feel disconnected and isolated from many aspects of the “college experience” when compared to those from a traditional classroom learning venue (Cerniglia, 2011). Students that do not feel connected are less likely to be successful in completing course requirements which ultimately significantly impacts degree completion (Donhardt, 2013, Nash 2005). Therefore, when looking at the pedagogy that can be most effective in an online environment, instructors and curriculum designers should consider how the online mode impacts student engagement and perception of connectedness.

Being able to successfully transfer information to students is the foundation of any effective institution. By using the Socratic method, this would allow instructors, “to instill the ability to recognize the deeper structure of questions and begin the critical thinking process” Oyler D.R., & Romanelli 2014, p.6). Additionally, Lee, Kim and Kim (2014) stated, “Socratic questioning contributes to enhancing the learning experience in a web-based environment and enables students to engage in scholarly discussion beyond the simple exchange of information” (p.298). However, there is a gap in the literature in regard to how Socratic questioning impacts students’ perception of engagement. In an asynchronous online setting, students are removed from their instructors and peers. This can impact their motivation and engagement in discussion. In order to be successful in gaining skills, the students must be engaged in and motivated to continue.
For the purpose of this research study, the author posed the question: “How does the use of Socratic questioning impact the students’ perception of engagement? “

The author used qualitative data analysis to evaluate students’ responses on perception of engagement. Students were asked to evaluate the type of questions used by their instructors. Postings were classified as low level postings (such as “I agree”) versus postings that indicated an advanced level of thinking. Additionally, students were asked to evaluate their perceptions of the instructor, their peers and the university and specifically the students’ perceptions on connectedness and if it impacted their course completion.

From the research, the author demonstrates in this paper that students who reported an instructor using a Socratic Method in discussion were more likely to feel engaged and successfully complete the course. The author believes that further research is needed to determine if a link exists between Socratic questioning in the online environment to graduation rates and long term student retention.

Keywords: Distance Learning; Online Learning; Socratic Method; Socratic Questioning; Student Engagement; Student Motivation; Teaching Strategies
A Descriptive Analysis Of Public School Educators Arrested For Sex Offenses: Lessons For Administrators

Lindon J. Ratliff, Mississippi State University, USA
Lisa Rose Johnson, Mississippi State University, USA

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine sentencing for public school educators that had been arrested convicted, or pled guilty to sex crimes and to provide an analysis of the varying lengths. Analysis of arrest records, news reports, court proceedings, teacher licensure, and age of victims was conducted in order to determine if patterns existed. The study examined data from 2008-2016 convictions across the United States.

Keywords: Sex Offenders, Education, Schools, Arrested, Certification, Sexual Assault
Delivering True Personalized Learning Through A Rules Engine And Goals Engine

By Graham Glass, CEO of Cypher Learning, USA

One of the “holy grails” of education is to find a way to allow students to learn at their own pace. And ideally, to do this in a way that leverages technology to support hundreds of millions of students. Personalized learning is a very popular trend right now, as the purpose of e-learning and education is constantly moving towards student-oriented teaching approaches.

This presentation describes an approach for building a personalized learning system using a combination of rules engine and goals engine. The goals engine helps to guide the student towards their learning objectives, while the rules engine can trigger actions to be taken during the learning process.

The purpose of this presentation is to show educators how to create a personalized learning system using a rules and a goals engine. They will discover how they can control every aspect of a class by defining if-then statements that will meet the individual learning needs of students on every step of their learning process.

After this lecture, attendees will know how the combination of a rules engine and a goals engine can pave the way to delivering a true personalized learning experience.

Achieving a true personalized experience for students helps them take over the learning process, because they will be able to receive the knowledge and information they need and want, based on their unique traits. These traits could be their learning style, their interests, their past knowledge, and so on. A personalized experience empowers students to learn at their own pace and this helps improve results. Personalized experiences are always more interactive, individualized, and have better results than traditional teaching methods.

Having a personalized system enables teachers to deliver better learning experiences to their students and the ability to help each of them when needed.

Teachers nowadays can take advantage of the technology available and track student progress and mastery at any point in the learning process. A rules engine and goals engine are innovative concepts that help teachers plan their teaching material in a way that is engaging and effective for students.

Nowadays, tools like e-learning platforms, educational apps, LMSs, and more, all offer interactive content based on the students’ individual needs to provide an overall better learning experience and improve academic results. The future is also going to be about even more advanced personalized learning concepts and technology, so tapping into this concept and applying it starting now would be very valuable to the ISTE audience.

Teachers want to help their students, and students want more personalized experiences, so why not solve both problems by grasping one concept?

The classroom has been transformed and teachers can no longer go into a class and present the same pre-built materials for all students. Each student is different, learns at a different pace, has an individual set of skills, a certain level of knowledge, interests, background and so on. Imagine being able to easily take into account all these aspects when delivering class content, for every single student?

Seems like a lot of work for teachers, but it’s actually not. There are already tools that help teachers enable technology and achieve this level of personalized learning. Teachers just need to learn how to use them to their advantage.

Attendees of this session will see a practical example of how the combination of a rules engine and a goals engine can pave the way to delivering personalized learning. They will discover how they can control every aspect of a course by
defining if-then statements that will meet the individual learning needs of students on every step of their learning process.

**Presenter knowledge and experience**

Graham Glass is a serial entrepreneur, e-learning enthusiast, published author and trainer. Even though most of his career belongs to the enterprise software space, his passion for education has always been a significant part of it. He gave speeches on educational topics, held a TED Talk on The Future of Education, and was interviewed for The Education Talk Radio Show.
Older Adults Coping
With The Digital Everyday Life
Astrid M. Sølvberg, The Norwegian University of Science and Technology, Norway
Wenche M. Rønning, The Norwegian University of Science and Technology, Norway

ABSTRACT
Over the past 20 years, technology has infused every aspect of society, and use of digital technology is becoming an integrated part of people’s everyday life. We live in a constantly changing society with many services and resources accessible only through digital means. Along with this trend, virtually every country in the world is experiencing growth in the number and proportion of older persons in their populations (United Nations, 2015). These changes bring many challenges to the surface. For instance how do we go about ensuring that older adults are able to participate fully as competent citizens in today’s digital society? Although older adults represent an increasing group of technology users (Vroman, Arthanat, & Lysack, 2015) many find themselves without sufficient user skills (Hill, Betts & Gardner, 2015). Without appropriate skills they may be at risk of being excluded from participating fully in society. In addition, the digital divide is likely to widen as more information, public and private services, migrate to the virtual world. Gaining a greater understanding of older adults’ technology use may facilitate the implementation of approaches to increase their digital competence and sense of inclusion. The purpose of this paper is to address this issue through discussing findings from a study of the lived experiences of older adults’ digital technology use in Norway.

In Norway, the population is facing major changes in terms of a nearly complete digitalization of the society. For instance, the public sector has announced that from 2017 all communication with the citizens will be carried out electronically. The idea is to “renew, simplify and improve” all public activities and services (White paper ST27, 2015). A “digital mailbox” was developed in order to facilitate data exchange with enterprises and private persons. It was introduced at the beginning of 2016 as a tool through which all information from the public sector is given to the citizens.

The banking system and many private organizations have “gone digital” as well; many services and resources are accessible only through digital means. Digital technologies also provide access to a range of information (e.g. news), goods, entertainment / leisure activities, and social networking opportunities. In other words, it is crucial to become a competent digital citizen quickly, if one isn’t already. To be online and manage to use the Internet is thus essential for being able to participate fully in society as well as maintaining a sense of inclusion.

The greater part of the Norwegian population has submitted to this fact, and they are fairly or highly competent users of the Internet. Most people are well equipped for this purpose with tablets, smartphones, computers etc., and a large proportion of the population use the Internet on a daily basis (SSB, 2016). Although Norway is ranked as a modern, equal and highly developed technological society (OECD, 2016), around 24 % of the adult Norwegian population are non-users or “weak” users of technology (Guthu & Lønvik, 2011). Among these, many are older adults (65+). They lack skills and knowledge, and quite a few also lack the motivation to learn (Wagner, Hassanein & Head, 2010). This will probably turn out to represent an obstacle when they very soon need to master their new, digital everyday life (Slettemæs, 2014; DIFI 2014:1; Ingulfsen & Gilje, 2014). In other words, the pressure on non-users or “weak” users of digital technology is strong, although indirect.

The current study was guided by the overall research question: “how do older adults use ICT, and to what extent does this affect their perception of mastering their everyday life?” The study was motivated by concerns that older adults may be at risk of being excluded from participating fully in society. How do the older adults perceive the new developments? What are their lived experiences with digital technology use? And, do they try to counteract the risk of being “left behind” and excluded? Altogether 18 older adults (62-90 years) participated in the study. We carried out semi-structured interviews with the participants that lasted up to one hour. The interviews were recorded and
thoroughly transcribed. Analysis of the data material yielded three main categories. In the Clute Conference presentation we describe the current study and discuss the findings.

REFERENCES


Depictions Of Suffering In The Post-Secondary Classroom
Dr. Patricia Kostouros, Mount Royal University, Canada

ABSTRACT

In this presentation, the reactions of students after being exposed to graphic and disturbing material in a Sociology of Disaster course will be described. Students were interviewed after the course concluded and were asked to provide insights on their general experience of the course, including emotional reactions, their perspective on course delivery, and suggestions for instructors who use depictions of suffering in their curriculum. The benefits of using trigger warnings in courses that use potentially disturbing material, was also explored. The primary goal of this study was for student participants to inform teaching practice when using depictions of suffering. Students had very personal and emotional responses to the material being taught, which shed light on notions of compassion fatigue and vicarious trauma; distress from having been a secondary witness to suffering, which new studies show is also moving from helper as witness to student as witness.
Online Learners: Are They Prepared For The Environment?

Doris D. Yates, California State University, USA

This hour long workshop will focus on online learners and how prepared they are for the online learning environment. I have taught in the online learning environment for the last five years and find that the following are a few of the pitfalls of the online learners:

- **Lack of communication:** following discussion board posting instructions and communicating with the professor and classmates
- **Time management:** Not adhering to posted timelines for assignments and discussion boards and not understanding the lag time between when a comment is sent, received and time to response.
- **Lack of dedication to Online Learning:** Students seem to start out engaged but as the term progresses they seem to become disengaged as other courses, work, travel and other nonrelated “excuses” impede engagement. Want exceptions to submit work when timelines have not been adhered to or have past.
- **Lack of adherence to rubrics:** Information for presentations is included in the syllabus, a checklist is available for the two presentations and ignored while preparing for the assignment.
- **Academic dishonesty:** Submitting work as their own when they did not participate in the preparation of the presentations.

The “ah ha” of teaching online is that those that indicate that they have never taken an online course (via a bio questionnaire) seem to do better than those that are more “seasoned” online learners. It also does not seem to matter whether a millennial of other generations the behaviors seems to be the same.

This session will be interactive, and participants will be able to discuss and examine the pitfalls they experience as a result of the online learning environment. A draft of a questionnaire will be available for discussion regarding the behaviors of the learners, and how currently faculty prepares courses for delivery and participation of the students.
Leading And Teaching In Urban Schools:
Using Competency Based Criteria

Dr. Donald Leake, The College of New Jersey, USA
Dr. Brenda Leake, The College of New Jersey, USA

ABSTRACT

The quality of an educational system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers and leaders. There is a strong correlation between the racial achievement gaps and the gaps in the number of experienced, qualified teachers and leaders in schools where many youngsters are failing and leaving schools prematurely. Urban schools have traditionally been staffed by well-meaning educators who are typically overwhelmed and underprepared for the litany of issues endemic to urban communities. There are many different ways to improve a school system, and the complexity of this task is reflected in the reality, that some do so successfully, while most do not. The experience of top school systems, both here and abroad suggest that the single most important factor in improving a school is getting the right people to become teachers and leaders. This poster session is designed to examine the competencies that contribute to outstanding performance in urban settings. That is, the underlying traits and habits, patterns of thinking, feeling, acting, and speaking that cause a person to be successful in an urban setting.

The notion of competencies as a more valid predictor of on the job performance was introduced in a seminal paper by David McClelland in 1973. In the Harvard professor’s paper, entitled, “Testing for Competence Rather than Intelligence “, McClelland discussed skills and behaviors that lead to superior on the job performance. While McClelland acknowledged the saliency of academic tests as valid predictors of academic performance, he introduced the concept of “competencies” as “underlying characteristics of people that indicate ways of behaving or thinking” critical to successful job performance. If we then fast forward to the 2015 work by Ron Ferguson et. al. which focuses on the impact of “agency” related competencies and dispositions in addressing the achievement gap, the potential significance of a competency-based discourse becomes even more evident.
Web-Based Applications For Learning Programming Languages
Akiyoshi Wakatani, Konan University, Japan
Toshiyuki Maeda, Hannan University, Japan

ABSTRACT

Recently, a new teaching technique, called flip teaching, has attracted a large attention. In order to apply the flip teaching to the programming language education, many exercises for programming are required even as preparation. However, since learners are just beginners, they cannot evaluate programming exercises by themselves. So, in order to overcome such a problem, our tool automatically generates the two kinds of programming exercises: the first is syntax practices for understanding the grammar, and the second is semantics practices for understanding the flow of a program. Then we construct a web-based system that automatically generates a variety of programming exercises by using program templates and script language, such as PHP language. Furthermore, our system can also grade the exercises automatically.

In order to evaluate the effectiveness of our web-based application, our experiment consists of 5 parts as follows: 1) Learning as preparation (about 12 minutes), 2) Pre-test (10 minutes), 3) Practices (syntax practice + semantics practice) (18 minutes), and 4) Post-test (10 minutes). By comparing the results of the pre-test and the post-test, the effectiveness of the practices is empirically evaluated. The results of our experiments show that the time of the semantics practices should be longer than the time of the syntax practices, because it is hard to find semantics bugs if users do not understand the semantics of the program completely. So, a variety of practice patterns (different difficulties) should be prepared for understanding the semantics of programs thoroughly.

Keywords: Flip Teaching, Script Language, Auto-Generation, Powerpoint
A Co-Curricular Approach To Online Students Entering The Workforce
Jasmine D. Darnell, Pepperdine University, USA
Lani Fraizer, Pepperdine University, USA

ABSTRACT

Colleges and universities have left employers concerned about their ability to provide online students with real-world experience for practical workforce application. As online learning becomes more prevalent in higher education, students are challenged in their ability to engage in workforce preparation opportunities. Traditional universities found success in campus based opportunities, but such prospects are non-existent in the online learning environment. Therefore, the objective of this presentation is to introduce a three-tiered co-curricular model for experiential learning in the online classroom.
The Impact Of One-To-One Computing On Students’ Academic Excellence At Kuwait University

Dr. Ammar H. Safar, Kuwait University, Kuwait

ABSTRACT

Using computers and various forms of information and communication technology (ICT) in educational institutions around the world is commonplace among students, faculty, and administrators. Numerous studies focusing on the impact of ICT on students’ achievement have acknowledged significant increases in students’ achievement measures across disciplines and grade levels. One of the modern trends of education involves the integration of one-to-one (1:1) computing (i.e., 1:1 laptop program or initiative) in higher education institutions as well as PK-12 schools. The study’s objective is to investigate and identify the effect and usefulness of the application of 1:1 computing on students’ learning and academic excellence at Kuwait University (KU). A quasi-experimental research model was used. This research design compares classroom assessment scores and final grades for control (i.e., non-1:1 computing) and experimental (i.e., 1:1 computing) student groups in two undergraduate two-hundred-level education course designed for senior students. The results derived from both the quantitative and qualitative analyses pronounced clearly that ICT—through an e-learning intervention such as 1:1 computing/laptop program—did have a statistically significant positive impact on students’ learning and achievement—in terms of improvement in test scores, final grades, the quality of work on assigned projects, as well as heightening students’ motivation, attitudes, and involvement with the academic course. Findings of this research provide a profile and reference for policy and decision makers as well as professionals, working in the field of education and at the Ministry of Education (MOE) and the Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE), regarding the integration of 1:1 computing into education.

Working Capital Variations By Industry And Implications For Profitable Financial Management

Dr. Walid Masadeh, Hasemite University, Jordan

ABSTRACT

This research investigated variations in working capital and firms’ financial performance by industry, and implication for profitable working capital management, to further confirm or mitigate assumption that working capital correlates strongly with profitability. Working capital and profitability in 360 companies were categorized under three types of industry, retailing, production, and services. A correlation analysis was run on the mean current ratios of the companies and their profitability. The results were compared and used to test the hypothesis, using U.S. Data on Corporations. No significance difference in profitability given working capital variations, particularly current and sales inventory ratios was found. However, within industries or by industries, a correlation was found between current ratio, sales inventory ratios, and profit margin. Results indicated a positive correlation between current ratio and profit margin in the production industry. In the retail industry, no correlation was found between current ratio and profit margin, but a negative correlation was found between sales inventory ratio and profit margin in the retail industry. In the services industry, a correlation was found between current ratio and profit margin, and a negative correlation between sales inventory and profitability. High inventory volumes are profitable to manufacturing and production industries. Low inventory volumes are profitable in retail industries, and none if not very little inventory is profitable for the services industry.

Keywords: Working Capital; Current Ratio; Profitability, Industry
Digging Into Changes In CO₂ Emissions In The Ghanaian Energy Economy: A Decomposition Analysis

Michael Owusu Appiah, City University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong
School of Business, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast, Ghana

Preliminary version, do not quote

ABSTRACT

Environmental quality concerns have in the recent years remained very topical in many global summits raising a lot of passionate debates in both scientific and political circles about how to mitigate global warming which mainly derives from GHG emissions without compromising economic growth and development. This is particularly so because of the serious implications of GHG emissions for the quality of the environment; unleashing its concomitant effects on economic activities as well as the health of the citizens. This paper seeks to explore the underlying drivers of changes in energy-related emissions of the Ghanaian economy by employing decomposition analysis based on the Log Mean Divisia Index (LMDI) proposed by Ang (2005) with data spanning 1990-2014. The data is divided into five main periods to make the analysis parsimonious and more comprehensible. The Ghanaian economy is separated into five cardinal sectors, namely, manufacturing, construction, mining, agriculture and services. Moreover, the main energy sources are petroleum, traditional biomass fuels, natural gas and electricity. The structural adjustments partially impacted the consumption of energy of the Ghanaian economy as the service sector is less energy-intensive compared with the other sectors of the economy therefore reflecting its impact on the emissions through energy intensity. The results also show that economic activity (industrial activity) effects are the principal underlying drivers of positive changes in carbon emissions whiles carbon intensity and energy intensity are the dominant drivers of adverse movements in emissions. Finally, policy prescriptions are made to be adopted to mitigate emissions in the Ghanaian economy.

Keywords: Index Decomposition Analysis, Log Mean Divisia Index, Carbon Emissions, Factorial Effects

1. INTRODUCTION

Environmental quality concerns have in the recent years remained very topical in many global summits¹ raising a lot of passionate debates in both scientific and political circles about how to control global warming which mainly derives from GHG emissions without compromising economic growth and development. This is particularly so because of the serious implications of GHG emissions for the quality of the environment; unleashing its concomitant effect on economic activities as well as the health of the citizens. In response, a lot of global efforts have been harnessed in an attempt to mitigate climate change. Subsequently, a UN Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) was held in 1992 which is dubbed the RIO summit to discuss issues of patterns of productions, alternative sources of energy, expanding usage and limited supply of water, etc. As a further effort to mitigate GHG emissions, the Kyoto protocol was signed in 1997 to provide a roadmap for dealing with climate change. After the Kyoto protocol in 1997, an agreement to reduce greenhouse was ratified in 2005. By this agreement, Annex 1 countries are to reach a target for greenhouse GHG reduction of 5% with 1990 values as the base year over the initial 5-year period between 2008 and 2012 (UN Framework Convention on Climate Change, 2009). Parties agreed in 2007 to set up new treaties subsequent to the Tokyo Protocol; and international negotiations and debates on the mitigation target and mechanisms are ongoing. More recently, in 2015, the Paris conference dubbed COP21 was held in furtherance of these objectives.

¹ (Rio Conference, 1992; Earth Summit, 2002; Rio 2012, COP21, etc.)
The resolutions passed included but not limited to urging all parties to the Kyoto Protocol that have not yet ratify the resolutions to do so and implement the Doha Amendment to the Kyoto Protocol; to enhance the provision of urgent and adequate finance, technology and capacity-building supported by developed country parties in order to enhance the level of ambition of pre-2020; urging all parties that have not already done so to make and implement a mitigation pledge under the Cancun Agreements. Although, comparatively, developing countries do not make significant contributions to energy contributions to GHG emissions, the global objectives cannot be achieved without their active participation.

Churchill (1993) argues that in the years ahead, there will be significant increases in energy demand from developing countries. This argument is evidenced by the growing trend in energy consumption from developing countries as well as rising GHG emissions. Energy consumption per capita and emissions of high income countries are comparatively high albeit the growth rates of these measurements in low and middle income countries are higher. This trajectory points to the fact that energy use and environmental issues should be of grave concern to both low and middle income countries.

Though Ghana is like a little “drop of water in the ocean” in terms of her contribution to global emissions, it has not been spared of its portion of this passionately discussed topic albeit with opposing opinions and interests. Thus, Ghana contributes 0.6 Mt per capita to global emissions compared to the global average of 5 Mt per capita (World Bank, 2015).

Ghana ratified the Kyoto protocol on May 30, 2003 in an effort to cooperate with the international effort to mitigate GHG emissions with particular local commitment to reducing energy consumption, augmenting energy efficiency and reducing greenhouse gas emissions. This is particularly important because the Ghanaian economy has been developing at a phenomenal rate coupled with a rising trend in GHG emissions. In fact the dynamics of Ghana’s GHG emissions do not differ from the global trend with energy-related activities being the main driving vehicle behind the rise in GHG emissions. Thus, energy-related activities form about 90% of total GHG emissions (Environmental Protection Agency, 2015). Against this backdrop of development, a number of policy responses are being prescribed to mitigate the rising trend in GHG emissions with more attention skewed towards mitigating CO₂ emissions which contributes dominantly to GHG emissions. However, it is very important that the factorial effects of changes in CO₂ emissions be ferreted out as it will help in shaping the policy responses in order to achieve the intended objectives.

Objective of this study is to flesh out the proximate determinant factors underlying changes in CO₂ emissions for the Ghanaian economy by employing the decomposition analysis. Thus, exploring these factors will help in design energy and environmental policies that can be adopted to mitigate rising CO₂ emissions in order to achieve the green objectives. The data is divided into five main periods to make the analysis parsimonious and more comprehensible. The Ghanaian economy is separated into five cardinal sectors, namely, manufacturing, construction, mining, agriculture and services. Moreover, the main energy sources are petroleum, traditional biomass fuels, natural gas and electricity. This study covers the period 1990–2014, during which significant policy changes have been observed in the economy. Therefore, this study period enables us to observe the factorial effects of different macroeconomic policies on carbon dioxide emissions through changes in shares of industries and the use of varying energy sources. The structure of the remaining paper is organised such that section 1 will discuss some stylised facts on Ghana and literature review whiles section 2 will essentially focus on literature review. The next section explores methodological techniques used for the decomposition analysis. Section 4 focuses on the empirical findings and conclusions with policy a recommendation is presented in section 5.

1.1 GDP and Energy Consumption

Ghana’s GDP growth path shows an interesting trajectory. The period under study follows a period of serious economic crisis and drought in the 1980s which seriously affected the macroeconomic environment. However, the economy started picking up in the latter part of 1980s displaying an increasing growth with occasional dives. In 1981, the growth rate was -3.5%, then moved to 8.6% in 1984 and further rose to 9.1% in 2008, dropped to 7.3% in 2009 and 7.9% in

2012 (World Bank, 2015). In particular, from 2011 forward, the Ghanaian economy occasionally witnessed a dip in economic growth which essentially derives from many factors including but not limited to the energy crisis (World Bank, 2015). In the midst of the rising economic growth is the exponential growth in demand for energy services. There is a huge gap between energy demand and supply, consequently creating energy deficit. Energy consumption per capita GDP rose from 3.91GJ in 1990 to 6.37GJ in 2010 representing almost 100% increment (Ghana Statistical service, 2015). The growing demand for energy services emanates partly from an expanding economy, increase in population, urbanisation and the rising per capita income (Energy Commission of Ghana, 2015). From Fig. 1, it can be seen that there is a continual growth in real GDP, population growth and energy consumption. Ghana’s population stood at 8.76 million in 1970, 11.88 million in 1980, and 14.39 million 1990 and steadily increased to 24.66 million in 2010. The Ghana Statistical Service projects that the medium variant scenario will reach about 30.2 million by 2025. Thus, the historical annual growth rate in population is approximately 2.7% from 2000 to 2010 with it attendant consequences for energy demand. Moreover, it is well established in the literature that economies evolve from agricultural-based ones to industrial economies and finally transition into a service-based economy (Kuik and Gupta, 2003). The implication of this is that every economy is subject to structural adjustments and Ghana is no exception to this economic phenomenon. Ghana has not yet reached the service-dominated economy but has well transitioned from an economy based on agriculture to the one based on the industrial sector with special reference to sectoral contributions to GDP. The agricultural sector contributed 60% to total GDP in 1980. This sectoral contribution inched down to 45.06% in 1990 and eventually decreased to 22.4% in 2014. Paradoxically, the agricultural sector commands the highest labour force notwithstanding that the sector is not the highest contributor to the aggregate GDP. The service sector increased significantly vis-à-vis the other sectors especially with impressive increase in sectoral share from 27.6% in 1990 to 48.1% as of 2014 (World Bank, 2015) and it is the fastest growing sector overtaking the agricultural sector. The economic transition of Ghana has serious implications for the Ghanaian energy economy. Consequently, as Fig. 1 shows, energy consumption of Ghana continues to grow at phenomenal rate of 10% p.a (Energy Commission of Ghana, 2015).

![Fig. 1. Plots of the variables in natural logarithm Source: Author’s Construct (World Bank, 2015)](image)

1.2 Electricity Generation Mix and Final Energy Consumed

Ghana’s energy transition path reflects an energy economy dominated by fossil fuels. Thus, the economy is heavily reliant on fossil fuels from which electricity is generated. The primary energy mix is dominated by oil and traditional biomass (Appendix 1A). Ghana’s rapid economic expansion emanating significantly from development of the country’s oil industry coupled with electricity supply disruptions have put enormous pressure on utilities in recent years. Ghana’s electricity generation mix is dominated by both hydropower and thermal which rely on light crude oil and natural gas alternatively as and when conditions demand with a small portion generated by renewable source (See Fig. 2). Hydroelectric generation constitutes on average, more than half of the dependable capacity, with the remaining portion largely made up of thermal generation and small amount of solar. Renewable energy penetration in Ghana’s electricity generation mix has not been significant. Solar PV has not been well exploited given the country’s potential. Notwithstanding the high cost of solar installation, the nation stands a chance of benefiting from its implementation from economies of scale which may eventually reduce the cost. The high proportion of hydro in the electricity generation mix has made electricity production vulnerable to the weather conditions as the nation has sporadically experienced drought in which case some of the turbines have to be shut down when the water levels in the dams are below the operating capacities. Moreover, the Ghanaian energy economy continues to witness a rising demand for electricity. It is estimated that electricity demand is growing at 12% per annum (IRENA, 2015). The increase in
demand for electricity can be traced to high demand from the oil and gas industry, mining industry, industrial customers, residential and new loads emanating from rural projects. However, the country has not been able to meet the supply needs with the underlying factors being but not limited to gas supply interruptions from Nigeria, etc. In an attempt to reduce the over-dependency on hydro, more thermal plants are being built albeit with their attendant environmental consequences. The final energy consumed is strongly anchored on fossils fuels skewed to petroleum and traditional biomass fuels (see Appendix 1B). Thus, the primary energy matrix, the final energy consumption composition and the electricity generation portfolio all collectively have serious implications for emissions in particular and environmental quality generally. Thus, there is a rise in emissions of (0.26 Mt per capita) as of 1990 to (0.56 Mt per capita) in 2014 representing almost a 100% increase over the period.

Fig. 2: Electricity Generation Mix of Ghana
Source: Author's Construct (National Energy Statistics-Ghana, 2016)

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Decomposition analysis is one of the principal methodologies widely used in energy demand analysis and energy-related GHG emissions analysis. It has conventionally been used to flesh out changes in economic, environmental and other socio-economic indicators over time (Hoekstra and van der Bergh 2003). A lot of theoretical models albeit with different deficiencies have been built in effort to achieve these objectives. Most of these models have relied on a host of indices derived by Divisia (1925).

Boyd et al. (1987) analysed the methodologies applied by several authors-relying on time series of energy consumption, production and industrial inputs-and proposed an alternative methodology based on the class of indices derived by Divisia (1925).

Following Boyd et al. (1987), the energy consumption approach which is premised on two general parametric Divisia methods was proposed by Liu et al. (1992). This model focuses on the additive decomposition of changes in aggregate energy consumption into the contributions of changes of three determinant factors, namely production, production structure and sectoral energy intensities. However, the model is beset with the difficulty of obtaining continuous time information on the evolution of the essential variables. To circumvent this problem, Liu et al. (1992) transform the continuous problem into a discrete one thereby achieving the two general parametric methods. Another set of problems rear its head with the practical application of the various methodologies stated above. Thus since different weights are assigned to each magnitude at different times, different results even with the same data and time horizon become unavoidable candidates when different models are applied. Moreover, there is a problem of residual term which will be explained in detail in the next section.

In response to overcoming the problems associated with these models, Ang (1994) proposed the so-called energy intensity approach, which multiplicatively and additively decomposes variations in the ratio between energy

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3 This deficiency is called the problem of non-uniqueness
consumption and production, in terms of the contributions of the structural and intensity effects. Ang (1995) proposed the energy elasticity approach and this model helps to estimate energy coefficients. In cases of energy demand projections, it is a more suitable candidate model. Later on, Ang and Choi (1997) proposed the Logarithmic Mean Divisia Index (LMDI) approach which will be discussed closely in the next section. Furthermore, Sun (1998) proposed a refined Laspeyres decomposition technique that circumvented the residual problem. In this approach, each determinant factor is assigned its individual impact, plus a fraction of the jointly created impact which is uniformly distributed among all factors. Sun’s approach is non-parametric and exhaustive and looks identical to an approach proposed by Shapley and therefore in recent times it is referred to as the Shapley-Sun (S-S) technique (Ang et al. 2003). Fernández Vázquez (2004) augmented Sun’s model within input-output studies, and subsequently adapted to index-based decomposition analysis by Fernández Vázquez and Fernández González (2008). We now delve into the empirical studies that have been conducted with various models. Ang (2004) conducted an extensive research that pivoted on structural changes in energy use in the industrial sectors, which were subsequently extended to energy demands in residential, transportation and fuel mix in the energy production sectors. Subsequently, a host of studies have been conducted on energy-related emissions with special foci on changes in fuel shares and the fuel gas emission factors (Ang, 2004). Furthermore, a study was conducted by Wang et al. (2005) on changes in aggregated emissions in China from 1957-2000. They employed the LMDI in the study and the result showed that China has attained a substantial reduction in emissions due to improved energy intensity. Lee and Oh (2006) concluded in their study on analysis of emissions in APEC countries that growth in per capita GDP and population are the two main factors influencing increase in emissions. They employed the Logarithmic Mean Divisia Index (LMDI) for the decomposition analysis with data spanning 1980 to 1998. Diakoulaki et al. (2006) conducted a research on emissions in Greece for the period 1990-2002. They used the refined Laspeyres model in the study and the results reveal that economic growth and the ensued welfare are still strongly linked with energy consumption and atmospheric emissions. Hatzigeorgiou et al. (2008) used both the Arithmetic Mean Divisia Index (AMDI) and LMDI and with data covering the period 1990 to 2008 to investigate emissions in Greece. They concluded that income effect is the biggest contributor to emissions. Alves and Moutinho (2013) applied the Complete Decomposition Technique and Innovative Accounting Approach to investigate the emissions intensity and its component in 36 economic sectors in Portugal by using data covering the 1996 to 2009. The findings showed that the emissions intensity decreased and this mainly was influenced by changes in energy intensity. LMDI was applied by Gonzalez et al. (2014b) to explore changes in emission in the European Union power sector. Their findings proved that changes in energy mix factor have a strong impact on emissions level. Sumabat et al. (2016) used the LMDI and data from 1996-2014 to study the decomposition analysis of Philippines’s carbon emissions from fuel combustion and electricity generation. The findings showed that there is an adverse impact of economic growth and higher standard of living on emissions; and revealed the significant damages that inconsistent energy structures have on the emissions performance of a country. Employing decomposition analysis, changes in emissions over a business cycle recessions and expansions in the United States were investigated by Shahiduzzaman and Layton (2015) to identify and account for the relative importance of various proximate contributing factors to the observed changes in aggregate emissions, aggregate emissions intensity, and emissions per capita over US business cycle phases from 1973 to 2013. Applying the LMDI, Duran et al. (2015) investigated the impact of diverse driving forces on energy consumption in the Chilean industry from 2005 to 2009. The result showed that energy intensity has risen over time although energy consumption remains stable. A yearly data from 1949 to 2011 and monthly data from 1973 to 2014 were used in the analysis and the result showed that aggregate emissions and emissions intensity reduce much faster in contraction than they increase in expansions. Furthermore, Rustemoglu and Andres (2016) applied refined Laspeyres Index (RLI) with data from 1992-2011 to study the factors of emissions in Brazil and Russia. The findings revealed that while economic activity was the major proximate factor underlying the increasing emissions in Brazil, it was a reducing factor in Russia’s emissions until 2000. Wei et al. (2016) applied input-output analysis method to examine the energy-related emissions generated by Beijing industry from 2000-2010. They concluded that the growth rate of sectorial emissions in Beijing has radically increased from 2000-2006 and with a modest decline during the 2007-2011 period. Using data from 2005 to 2010, Yuan and Zhao (2016) applied the input-output system model to study the changes in emissions in China’s energy-intensive industries. The results concluded that there was a rapid growth in trend in emissions from energy-intensive industries during the study period. A study was conducted by Jiang and Guan (2016) on causes of global emissions growth between 1995 to 2007 based on fossil fuel type, demand type, country group and industry group. The findings showed that emissions from coal use grew the most rapidly in developing countries whilst the opposite is natural gas use in case of developed countries. Ang et al. (2016) used the

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4 The residual term can be described as the effect of the interaction of a host of determinants in Laspeyres decompositions.

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index decomposition analysis by employing the spatial-temporal decomposition approach to performance assessment in energy and emissions. This was investigated with two application cases. The first dealt with analysing the variations and changes in the aggregate intensity of electricity production for ten countries from 1990 to 2010 and the second focused on variation and changes in the aggregate energy intensity for eight economic regions in China from 2000-2012. The outcome showed that the spatial-temporal approach can supplement a study which is conducted purely on a spatial or temporal basis. Zhang et al. (2016) utilised LMDI and data covering the period of 1995-2012 to investigate the intensity of energy-related emissions in Chinese provinces. The result showed that the overall carbon emission intensity of China has decreased rapidly; energy structure, energy intensity and output proportion of secondary industry to the decrease in energy intensity of Chinese provinces were 15%, 75%, and 10% respectively.

3. METHODOLOGY

There is an array of methods available for conducting decomposition analysis albeit with their pros and cons. These includes the IPAT (Commoner 1972; Holdren and Ehrlich, 1974), Kaya-Identity (Kaya, 1990), Index Decomposition Analysis (IDA), Structural Decomposition Analysis. The IDA has been popularly used and generally preferred to the SDA in both the academic and professional arena due its parsimony and flexibility. In particular, the IDA permits both multiplicative and additive decompositions and also enables decompositions for any sort of aggregates, namely, value, ratio and elasticity, and relatively requires less information in multi-country studies (González et al., 2014a). There are variants of IDA, namely, the refined Laspeyres Index, LMDI and Structural Decomposition Analysis, etc. The LMDI proposed by Ang and Choi (1997) is a refined non-parametric method that uses Divisia indices with logarithmic mean weights and yields perfect decomposition. LMDI stands out as the most widely used method in various energy and decomposition analysis due to its peculiar advantages. Thus, the results of the LMDI are factor-reversal, time reversal, consistent in aggregate and easy to use, which are some of the important attributes to consider in choosing a method for decomposition analysis (Ang, 2004). Among all the attributes, the most important one is the factor-reversal test which means that LMDI gives perfect decomposition and that there are no unexplained residual terms in the results. That is generally the change in aggregate match the sum or product of the components (González et al., 2014a). Ang and Liu (2007) further proved that replacing the zero by near zero values\(^5\) in the decomposition analysis yields converging results. Moreover, given that the LMDI satisfies the time-reversal test implies that the estimated results from year T to 0 is a reciprocal of the estimated value from year 0 to T with respect to the multiplicative form and the same in absolute value with regards to the additive form (Ang, 2004). Furthermore, consistency in aggregate means that it permits estimates for a sub-group to be to be aggregated in a consistent manner at a higher level. Against this backdrop, the LMDI is employed to estimate the underlying factors influencing changes in emissions. Generally, decomposition analysis is centred on three main themes, namely the scale, structural and intensity effects with the definition of these effects based on the area of the analysis, for example energy sector, transport sector, etc.

In this study, the focus is on estimating the impact of the driving forces underlying the changes in emissions with particular reference to carbon intensity, energy mix, energy intensity, economic activity and population effects (see Table 1). Accordingly, the carbon intensity is expressed as the ratio of emissions to the total energy consumed during the time horizon under study. It essentially measures the quality of the energy used in the economy. Furthermore the energy mix is expressed as the ratio of fossil fuel (ff)\(^6\) to total primary energy consumed over the time period being studied. It measures the impact of the dynamic fuel mix consumption on emissions. Furthermore, energy intensity measures the total amount of energy consumed to produce the total output. It essentially reveals the level of energy efficiency of the economy under study. The scale or economic activity effect measures the contributions of the level of economic activity across time to changes in emissions. Finally, the population effect measures the impact of the population increases across time on emissions.

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\(^5\) Numbers between (10\(^{-10}\) and 10\(^{-20}\)) can give satisfactory results

\(^6\) Fossil fuel comprises coal, oil, petroleum, and natural gas products.
Table 1: Factors underlying changes in emissions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CI</td>
<td>( \text{CO}_2/\text{Eff} )</td>
<td>Carbon Intensity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EM</td>
<td>( \text{Eff}/E )</td>
<td>Energy Mix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EI</td>
<td>( E/Y )</td>
<td>Energy Intensity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA</td>
<td>( \text{GDP}/P )</td>
<td>Economic Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POP</td>
<td>( P )</td>
<td>Population</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( \text{CO}_2 \) = the amount of carbon dioxide emissions from the consumption of fossil fuel; \( \text{Eff} \) = the amount of fossil fuel consumption; \( E \) = the total primary energy consumption; \( \text{GDP} \) = gross domestic product; \( P \) = population.

Following Bacon and Soma (2007), emissions are expressed as follows:

emissions from energy ≡ emissions per unit of fossil fuel consumed × fossil fuel consumed per unit of energy consumed × energy consumed per unit of GDP × GDP per capita × population

According to Lee and Oh (2006), equation 1 can be expressed as:

\[
\text{emissions from energy} = \text{CI} \times \text{EM} \times \text{EI} \times \text{EA} \times \text{POP}
\]

Therefore, \( (2) = (3) \)

The changes in emissions between base year 0 and end year \( T \) is the sum of the factorial effects associated with the underlying factors. In this case, the underlying factors are: the carbon intensity \( (\text{CI}_{\text{eff}}) \), the fossil fuel share in total energy \( (\text{EM}_{\text{eff}}) \) which implies the substitution effect, the energy intensity \( (\text{EI}_{\text{eff}}) \) and the economic scale or wealth effects \( (\text{EA}_{\text{eff}}) \) and population \( (\text{POP}_{\text{eff}}) \) effects; where the subscript \( \text{eff} \) means effect.

Thus, a change in a country’s emissions can be expressed as follows:

\[
\Delta \text{CO}_2 = \text{CO}_2^t - \text{CO}_2^{t-1}
\]

\[
= \text{CI}_{\text{eff}} + \text{EM}_{\text{eff}} + \text{EI}_{\text{eff}} + \text{EA}_{\text{eff}} + \text{POP}_{\text{eff}}
\]

The LMDI has gone through a number of transitional stages and in this study the LMDI 1 by Ang (2005) is employed and therefore expressed as follows:

\[
\text{CI}_{\text{eff}} = (\text{CO}_2^t - \text{CO}_2^{t-1}) / \ln(\text{CO}_2^t / \text{CO}_2^{t-1}) \times \ln(\text{CI}_t / \text{CI}_{t-1})
\]

\[
\text{EM}_{\text{eff}} = (\text{CO}_2^t - \text{CO}_2^{t-1}) / \ln(\text{CO}_2^t / \text{CO}_2^{t-1}) \times \ln(\text{EM}_t / \text{EM}_{t-1})
\]

\[
\text{EI}_{\text{eff}} = (\text{CO}_2^t - \text{CO}_2^{t-1}) / \ln(\text{CO}_2^t / \text{CO}_2^{t-1}) \times \ln(\text{EI}_t / \text{EI}_{t-1})
\]

\[
\text{EA}_{\text{eff}} = (\text{CO}_2^t - \text{CO}_2^{t-1}) / \ln(\text{CO}_2^t / \text{CO}_2^{t-1}) \times \ln(\text{EA}_t / \text{EA}_{t-1})
\]

\[
\text{POP}_{\text{eff}} = (\text{CO}_2^t - \text{CO}_2^{t-1}) / \ln(\text{CO}_2^t / \text{CO}_2^{t-1}) \times \ln(P_t / P_{t-1})
\]

The carbon intensity (CI) effect measures the impact of emissions factor of the composite fossil energy consumed on total emissions. Energy intensity effect (EI) measures the effect of total energy consumed for total output on emissions. The energy mix effect (EM) measures the effect of changes in fossil fuel mix on total emissions given that all other factors are held constant. The overall economic activity or the scale effect (EA) captures the effect of changes in total output or wealth on emissions. The population effect (POP) measures the effect of changes in population on total emissions holding all other factors constant. Finally, the changes in emissions are calculated by summing up all these factorial effects.

3.1 Data Sources

The data employed in this study is based on annual one spanning the period 1994 to 2014. The data is sourced from the World Development Indicators (WDI) and the Ghana statistical Service. Periodic analysis was conducted, and essentially these categorisations are done based on various policy regimes or energy portfolio transitions. We split the study period into five-year time intervals for easier data management while performing the decomposition analysis by observing the nature of the proximate factors affecting changes in emissions and also reflecting changes in energy policies which have been adopted in Ghana during each time interval.

4. EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

The results of the decomposition analysis are very revealing and will help to inform policy prescriptions to mitigate the rising trend in carbon emissions. The results show that carbon intensity and energy intensity are the pronounced drivers underlying reduction in energy-related emissions (see Fig. 3). Between 1995-1999, there was a significant reduction in emissions due to reduction in carbon intensity. However, from 2000-2004, there was still demise in CI at a lesser magnitude relatively. But from 2005-2014, CI continued to contribute significantly to reduction in emissions incrementally. In addition, energy intensity contributed substantially towards reduction in emissions which was more telling in the periods 2005-2009 and 2005-2014. This development is suggestive of improvement in energy efficiency, technological progress and energy conservation policies. However, the energy mix effect (SI) contributed to a reduction in carbon emissions in the early period of 1990-1994. However, this positive gain was not sustained in the subsequent periods. The implication is that fossils fuels still dominate in powering the various economic activities of the Ghanaian economy and that renewable energy penetration has still not reached a significant level to make a pronounced impact on carbon emissions reductions. Furthermore, the overall industrial activity effect (EA) contributed significantly towards increase in carbon emissions throughout the entire period under consideration as increase in contributions towards carbon emissions continues to grow in each subsequent period with exception of the period from (1995-1999) to (2000-2004). In effect, this results show that increase economic activities and demand for energy services per person which may be motivated by increase in wealth and economic activities continue to compromise environmental quality.

Also, population effect (POP) shows a significant contribution to emissions throughout the various periods under study. The plausible reason is that energy demand services per person over the period are increasing over the period but unfortunately it is highly dependent on carbon emitting sources of energy. The general impression is that the pull factors of carbon emission are more pronounced in the second and the last two periods under study especially the final period (2010-2014).
5. DISCUSSIONS ON INTER-PERIOD CARBON EMISSIONS CHANGE

The results show that economic activity (wealth) effects are the principal underlying drivers of positive changes in carbon emissions whiles carbon intensity and energy intensity are the principal drivers of adverse movements in emissions. The coefficients of the factorial effects in Fig. 3 show that in the periods 1995-1999 and 2000-2014 respectively, there was a significant drop in the CI and EI which consequently led to adverse changes in carbon emissions. The plausible underlying reason is that two periods experienced a drop in in GDP growth leading to a slowdown in economic activities, employment and GDP per capita which essentially adversely affected demanded for energy and energy services which dominantly come from fossil fuels. In particular, from 2007 to 2014, the Ghanaian economy was plunged into power crisis which forced it to embark upon load shedding of power which affected a lot of economic activities. In addition, it could be observed that there is a rising trend in emissions from 1990-2014 with the exception of some two periods (1995-2000 and 2010-2014) in which there were declines. These exceptional time frame parallel periods in which there were significant negative changes in CI and EI, therefore signalling the collectively pronounced effect of CI and EI on the carbon emissions.

Indeed a host of economic and policy factors account for the changes in the various factors as well as the dynamics in the emissions. The introduction of the Automatic Petroleum Product Pricing Formula (APPPF) coupled with the removal of fuel subsidies in an effort to make final consumers of energy services and gasoline pay for realistic prices, forced consumers to change their consumption behaviour to be more prudent in the consumption of gasoline which is a major source of carbon emitting energy source. The adverse impact of CI and EI were significantly high relative to the other periods thereby reflecting the phenomenal growth in the share of the service sector to GDP across time. The average service sector share of GDP in 2000-2014 was 47% vis-à-vis 30% in the earlier past 30 years. The structural adjustment has really impacted the energy intensity of the Ghanaian economy as service sector is less energy intensive compared with the other sectors especially the industrial sector. Moreover, energy conservation policies have been initiated by the government in an attempt to control energy consumption and these developments may signal that these policies are yielding some positive results.

Fig. 3. Decomposition of changes in energy-related CO₂ emissions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>CI</th>
<th>ES</th>
<th>EI</th>
<th>EA</th>
<th>POP</th>
<th>CO2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1990-1994</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>-1.57</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
<td>-0.43</td>
<td>-1.76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995-1999</td>
<td>-0.16</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000-2004</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>-0.83</td>
<td>-1.25</td>
<td>-1.04</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005-2009</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010-2014</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7This formula compares Ghana’s ex-refinery prices for ten petroleum products in cedi equivalent in past 30 days to corresponding prices for those products in northwest Europe and computes the total value difference between the two
5. CONCLUSIONS

This study explored the factorial determinants of changes in energy-related emissions of the Ghanaian energy economy from 1990-2014. The study explored the changes by grouping the time span into five main periods. The main sources of energy for powering Ghana’s economic activities are petroleum, traditional biomass fuel, natural gas and electricity. In fact changes in the emissions over the period under consideration derive from both changes in the economic fundamentals (structural adjustments) and the fuel substitution among the fuel types used. The findings reveal that structure of the Ghanaian economy especially in the periods (2005-2009 and 2010-2014) from agricultural to service sector and manufacturing to the service sector had a pronounced effect in reducing emissions. However, the ultimate effect is felt through energy intensity. The findings reveal that economic activity effect has a dominant positive factorial effect on changes in emission. However, energy intensity and carbon intensity are the main factors responsible for the adverse changes in emissions.

Given the fact that the Ghanaian economy continues to grow, it will be unfortunate to rely on the continual structural shift of the economy a force to reduce CO2 emissions but rather response with policies. The policy makers have rolled out a number of energy conservation policies in response. However, energy conservation polices not conducted in the space of technological progress have the potential of hurting Ghana’s economy, and therefore there is a need for technical innovation and technological change. It is suggested that fuel and energy substitution possibilities for cleaner energy should be considered as a more viable option. In addition, more efforts should be channelled into improving the renewable energy penetration in the Ghanaian energy portfolio to reach the optimal mix.

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Appendix 1A

Primary energy supply in percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oil</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>47.1</td>
<td>42.6</td>
<td>38.4</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>46.8</td>
<td>45.7</td>
<td>44.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural gas</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hydro</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wood</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>48.9</td>
<td>51.8</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td>40.8</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>39.7</td>
<td>37.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Appendix 1B

Distribution of final energy consumed (ktoe)

Lessee Accounting: The History And Main Provisions Of The New Lease Accounting Standards Update
Brian W. Carpenter, Ph.D., University of Scranton, USA
Douglas M. Boyle, Ph.D., University of Scranton, USA
Daniel P. Mahoney, Ph.D., University of Scranton, USA

ABSTRACT

The topic of how to appropriately account for leases has long been a matter of great debate for the accounting profession. As noted in previous papers by the authors, issues related to leases have been discussed and debated in the profession for well over half a century, commencing with Accounting Research Bulletin (ARB) No. 38, issued by the Committee on Accounting Procedure in 1949. After Sixty-seven years and more than fifteen opinions, statements, and interpretations later, the same basic issues still fuel the lease accounting debate. However, in recent years, lease accounting received renewed attention due to increased concerns regarding off-balance-sheet financing. In response, the International Accounting Standards Board and the Financial Accounting Standards Board redoubled their efforts to promulgate lease accounting standards that would effectively address the problems that have been long associated with lease accounting. Their deliberations went through the usual process of disseminating Discussion Papers (entitled “Leases: Preliminary Views”, which was published in March 2009), exposure drafts of Proposed Accounting Standards, and finally, the actual long-anticipated Accounting Standards Update. This presentation discusses some of the more important milestones in lessee accounting, outlines how the evolution of lease standards attempted to address issues associated with lessee accounting, and explains the main lessee provisions found in the recently adopted Accounting Standards Update. This New ASU becomes effective for fiscals commencing after December 15, 2018.
Impact Of Risks In Limiting E-Commerce: Evidence From Jordan

Wasfi AL Salamat, The Hashemite University, Jordan

Abstract

This study aims to explore the significant factors predicting E-commerce transactions from the viewpoint of insurance companies' employees and the significant risk resources come from the websites characteristics which cause limitation of using E-commerce as well as the differences of respondents demographic features on these factors. Insurance companies' employees in Jordan are selected as a sample of the study where 84 employees are selected randomly from the population. A questionnaire of 30 items of Likert 5 scale point applied on web characteristics part was prepared to measure both parts of the study domain (E-commerce transactions, and the determination of risk sources). The study finds that the amount of online purchasing paid by the sample individuals was 39472JD from 114 of transactions made by the sample of study (84 respondents). The other websites are used more than Amazon website in this case business to consumer (B2C), which contradict with world orientation toward using Amazon. The study also finds insignificant differences on E-commerce transactions due to gender of respondents, but it finds a significant difference at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) on E-commerce transactions due to age and position of respondents. The “perceived risk in the context of transaction” and “perceived service quality” are affected significantly at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) by the sort of the used website in E-commerce. Amazon website is the lowest used. There is a significant differences in “perceived ease of use”, and “perceived usefulness” at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) due to the gender of respondents. “perceived usefulness” and “perceived risk with product/service” were affected by the age of respondents. The “perceived risk in the context of transaction” is only the characteristic affected significantly at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) by the position of respondents. The study also finds that the perceived characteristics of websites have a significant prediction relationship with one of transaction behavior at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) as follows:

- “Perceived Ease of Use” with “Delay time in delivery” ($\beta=0.36$), and “transaction loss” ($\beta=0.58$).
- “Perceived Usefulness” with “transaction loss” ($\beta=0.48$).
- “Perceived Risk with Product/Service” with “Delay time in delivery” ($\beta=0.32$), and “transaction loss” ($\beta=0.38$).
- “Perceived service quality” with Amount of online purchasing (money in JD) ($\beta=0.31$), and “Amount of money lost” ($\beta=0.61$).
- “The total score of perceiving” with “Amount of money lost” ($\beta=0.44$), and “transaction loss” ($\beta=0.89$).
The Effect Of Organizational Justice On Organizational Citizenship Behavior Among Sales Personnel In The Banking Sector In Jordan

Mahmud Alkailani, Yarmouk University, Jordan

ABSTRACT

The aim of the study is to explore the perception of Jordanian sales personnel of organizational justice (OJ) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). It also explores the perception of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. In addition, the current study investigates the relationship between OJ and OCB among sales personnel at Jordanian banks. The sample of the study consisted of 204 sales personnel (response rate = 81.5%). For data collection, Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scales were employed.

A regression analysis was conducted to test the robustness of the model, as well as the hypothesized relationships between variables. Results of the study indicated that level of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior among sales personnel in Jordan was high. The results of the study showed that there is a positive relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior. In light of these results, recommendations and suggestions were discussed.

Keywords: Organizational Justice, Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Jordan.

1. INTRODUCTION

In modern organizations, sales personnel are considered the backbone of success as their performance and behaviors are key determinants for the gross productivity and profitability of the organization. Realizing these fact management scholars (e.g. Ravindra & Sheelam, 2015) have drawn their attention on examining the role of various organizational variables that may be of pivotal significance for organizational performance. This new trend has emerged as a result of adopting behavior theory; a theory mainly concerned with individuals' behavior (Al Badrani, 2010).

With the growing pace in the marketplace in the various business sectors, the contribution sales personnel add to organizational success is no longer limited to studying the responsibilities assumed and defined by job description. Sales managers who want to achieve maximum sales performance are already looking at two distinct, but related, aspects of the sales personnel work life: job description, which defines the sales personnel's formal relationship with their employer and the informal optional behaviors that depend on employee's personal discretion and judgment (Tziner & Sharoni, 2014). These types of behaviors are termed organizational citizenship behaviors. There are two forms of organizational behavior (OB). The first is role behavior, which includes tasks and responsibilities stated by the job description of the sales personnel where they have perform their defined roles and abide to follow organizational policies and rules relating to the defined behavior stated. The second is the extra role of organizational behavior which includes all the voluntary behaviors the sales personnel show, and are not defined in their job description. In this respect, these include the interactions with Sales managers, colleagues, and customers that might go beyond the physical organizational environment, and can be seen in the form of social relationships such as friendships (Momani & Mansour, 2014).

There has been much interest in understanding OCB and the relationship between OCB and its antecedents, such as...
satisfaction, organizational commitment on perception of OJ (Organ, 1988). Studies exploring OCB, OJ and the relationship between these constructs in the Arab Middle Eastern context are limited. With this shortage in mind, scholars have been calling for country-specific studies that can improve our understanding of the phenomena in different cultures (Elaminal & Taliss, 2014). Dickinson (2009) found a positive statistically significant relationship between organizational justice (OJ) and employees’ OCB. Since these extra role behaviors significantly affect overall performance of organizations, sales managers should understand why and how sales personnel adopt them. Williams and Anderson (1991) identified in their work two facets underling the construct of OCB; organizationally directed (OCBO), in which organization members contribute to overall organizational productivity and adhere to informal rules designed to maintain organizational order; and individually directed (OCBI), in which members indirectly contribute to the organization through their helping behaviors that include information and task sharing. The purpose of this research is to explore sales personnel's perceptions of OCB and OJ in Jordan and to explore and test the relationship between OCB and OJ.

1.2. Originality of the Study

Practitioners and scholars recognized and acknowledged the importance of OCB in organizational performance, thus many studies have been conducted to identify the determinants of OCB (Momari & Mansour, 2014). Despite the abundant management literature examining the relationship between OCB and other variables such as job satisfaction and job commitment, the Arab management literature is still lacking such studies in different business sectors. The current study is one of the first studies to explore OCB in Jordan. And it is also one of the first to explore the relationship between OCB and OJ in Jordanian context.

The current study will shed light on the nature of the relationship between OJ and OCB. This will open new scholarly future directions for academics interested in the study of OCB. This study has both theoretical and practical importance. On the theoretical level, there is scarcity of research- to the researchers' best knowledge- addressing the determinants of OCB in the Arab culture. On the practical level, the results will benefit managers at various managerial levels to better understand determinants of OCB and to work on developing programs that can promote OCB inside organizations.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Organizational Justice (OJ)

The study of Organizational Justice (OJ) is initially based on the work of Homas (1974) on social exchange and Adam's (1963) on equity theory. Adams has found that employees' perceptions concerning organizational fairness have critical effect on their behavior, attitudes and other important organizational outcomes.

Bierhoff, Cohen, & Greenberg (1986) defined OJ as the employees' perceptions about organizational treatment they receive in the organizational environment. OJ is the perceptions the employee holds about how fair the organization is in several aspects including the distribution of various organizational resources and the way procedures are undertaken in the different operations (Mohammad, Habib, & Alias, 2010).

Similarly, Burns and Dipoala (2013) asserted that OJ is a term used to describe employees' perceptions about organizational fairness and whether their managers treat them fair, with respect and equal. OJ is a major contributor in achieving job satisfaction, promoting organizational commitment, and creating loyalty among employees (Nelson, 2008). To maintain OJ in any organization, top Management should pay attention to fair allocation of resources, promotion procedures and policies, incentives and reward system applied, and the way decisions are made through the organization (Colquitt, et.al (2005), as employees always expect to receive fair treatment during their job in the organization (Bahrami et. Al, 2014) and feeling injustice makes employees annoyed, disturbed, frustrated, and this may lead to inappropriate behavior that would affect organizational effectiveness (Ayobami, 2013; Erkutlu, 2011). The development of OJ has lead to new forms of justice such as: distributive justice, procedural justice and interpersonal justice (Schilpzand, et. al, 2013).
Distributive justice refers to the amount of resources one receives compared to that of comparable others (Ince & Gul, 2011) and the fair processes that are undertaken to arrive at final decisions (Erkutlu, 2011).

Distributive justice originated from Equity Theory founded by Adams (1963) and later developed by Leventhal (1970) by applying a Justice Judgment Model developed which studied employees' reactions towards conditions leading to inequality in the organization. This personal judgment is largely based on perceived fairness employee feel inside the organizations when comparing efforts they put to outcomes they get in return (Bahrami, et al., 2014; Burns & Dipoala, 2013.

Procedural Justice refers to the guidelines established for operating business daily functions employees have to follow when achieving required goals in the organization (Sjahruddin & Sudiro, 2013), and the degree to which policies and procedures in the organization are being fairly applied to all workers and employees inside the organization (Biswas, 2015). Applying this kind of justice requires a consistent and fair behavior managers should practice when dealing with employees (DeConinck, 2015), and when making decisions (Tziner & Sharoni, 2014).

Interactional justice refers to both interpersonal part of doing the job; which reflects the nature of social interactions among employees and the degree to which information provided in the organizational environment conform to the decisions made (Tziner & Sharoni, 2014) and based on reasonable accurate explanation of facts (Cole et. al, 2010). Feelings of respect, being fair, and effort contributed is valued and acknowledged contribute to a high level of perceived interactional justice (Ravindra & Sheelam, 2015)

Interactional justice mainly evolves when employees feel that their managers and supervisors treat them with respect, being fair with them in all organizational interactions, and that their effort and contribution in the organizational success is being valued and acknowledged (Polat, 2009).

2.2 Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

The conceptualization of OCB dates back to the works of Organ (1988) who defined OCB as the individual behaviors the employee shows in the organizational environment; behaviors that exceed the formal roles and tasks defined in the job description found in the organizational structure. Although Organ's Model constitutes the core fundamental for studying OCB, other models have been proposed (Bahrami, et al., 2014). OCB can be seen as an extra-role behavior, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization such as helping others, volunteering, or conveying a positive image of the organization to outsiders (Chen & Jin, 2014). Similarly, Polat (2009) defined OCB as all behaviors that are not included in the work description relating to the formal tasks and responsibilities pertaining to the operated rewarding system in the organization and is a voluntary behavior an employee shows while being in the organization without being related to the incentives or the benefits provided by the organization (Haroun, 2014). Such behavior promotes effective functioning of the organization (Matsushita, 2015), exceeds management expectations (Nouh, 2013), goes beyond prescribed roles and work descriptions (Ozsahin and Sudak, 2015). Several researchers have confirmed that the model developed by Organ is the base for all other research efforts attempting to identify the dimensions of OCB. For example, Bahrami, et al (2014) indicated that this concept entails several sub-dimensions, including altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue.

2.2 OCB Dimensions

2.2.1. Altruism

Altruism is a personal attribute referring to the aptitude of the individual to cooperate with others. It is simply being helpful, cooperative, and supportive and has the ability to work with other employees in the organization (Shahzad, Siddiqui, & Zakaria, 2014). Altruism is expressed in a desire to work collaboratively with others (Al Qahtani, 2014), helping clients getting the best quality service (Alazzam, 2015) without waiting for incentives in return (Nouh, 2013), and sharing work burden with colleagues (Polat, 2009). Polat (2009) confirmed that altruism is all voluntary behaviors the employees display in their attempt to help their colleagues in the same organization. This behavior intends to help
in overcoming problems encountered in the organizational environment. Thus, employees who have high tendency to help other are more likely to practice strong organizational citizenship.

2.2.2 Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness is basically built around some inner components pertaining to upholding high levels of awareness towards the work tasks. For Organ (1988), conscientiousness entails some voluntary organizational behaviors that go beyond what is expected from the employee or worker assuming a specific position in the organization. Conscientiousness is also defined as all voluntary behaviors shown by specific organization members to reflect their desire to contribute in the success of the organization they belong to.

Conscientiousness can be seen in a form of maintaining organizational order and protecting organizational resources (Ozsahin and Sudak, 2015), being punctual and effectively handle work deadlines (Polat, 2009), and exceeding the minimum level required to accomplish the job and to follow rules and regulations (Matsushita, 2015). It is believed that employees with high level of Conscientiousness are more like to practice high level of OCB.

2.2.3 Sportsmanship

Sportsmanship is the ability to tolerate, resist and work on preventing frustrations arising from different sources relating to the nature of the work. It is a behavior of tolerating grievances and annoying issues in organizational life without protest and complaint (Cole et al., 2010). Individuals who show sportsmanship behavior do not complain when things do not go well in the organization and they take on a positive attitude (Haroun, 2014). Gul (2010) also linked sportsmanship to all behaviors pertaining to the employee's desire to show work description related requirements without illustrating any complaints. Sportsmanship could be seen in a form of encouraging other employees to resolve their disagreement for the sake of the work (Jafari et al., 2012), to accept criticism from others in the organizational culture (Erkutul, 2011), feeling relaxed and calm while being in the organization (Shimon et al., 2015), be able to contribute in solving the organizational problems (Hong et al., 2014), and the aptitude to forgive and tolerate other employees and showing no complaints (Soumendu, 2015). It is indeed that employees with high sense of sportsmanship will practice high level of OCB.

2.2.4 Courtesy

Courtesy refers to informing other members in the organization, reminding them of the most important points in the work, tasks and responsibilities they are supposed to perform in the organization while avoiding future problems and difficulties that may appear (DeConinck, 2015). It is a driven behavior to avoid work problems and difficulties that have negative effects on other colleagues in the organization (Alqhtaani, 2014). Courtesy heavily contributes in facilitating information exchange and transfer, making organizational operations easier (Altabouli et al., 2014). Courtesy entails providing formal and informal help for other members in the organization (Al Taamash & HassabAllah, 2015). Courtesy focuses on the most effective methods for using and capitalizing the available resources (Shahzad et al., 2014).

Courtesy helps avoid provoking problems and difficulties in the organization and to take proactions to prevent them. It also includes being aware of the consequences that may result from any personal behavior on other co-workers, thus, being cautious to show all appropriate behaviors while being in the organization (Chegini, 2009). Employees practicing Courtesy inside an organization usually involved in helping someone prevent a problem from occurring, or taking steps in advance to mitigate the problem (Duffy et al., 2013). Or they (employees) try to prevent other people from suffering as a result of a certain events that might lead to conflict, by showing the suitable behavior conforming to the stated ethics and values (Matsushita, 2015). Employees can maintain courtesy by keeping communication channels open to achieve organizational goals (Podsakoff et al., 2000), and by building continuous interaction among organization members, who work for shared purposes of the organization, (Dipola, 2005). In general employees with a good sense of courtesy will likely practice high level of OCB.
2.2.5 Civic Virtue

Civic virtue is the development and support the employees show towards organizational policies, organizational commitment and interest in contributing in the organizational success by solving organizational problems, and participating in decision making processes (Ozahin & Sudak, 2015). It is believed that productive employees always express their opinions, as active participants in organizational welfare (Organ, 1988). Furthermore, civic virtue implies that the employee encourages his/her colleagues to adopt this positive behavior. Civic virtue is to keep pace with the current and future development in the organization (Ozahin & Sudak, 2015).

Employees with Civic virtue are characterized by a sense of involvement in formulating the policies and organizational procedures adopted, to be contributors in the decisions being made in the organization, provide active suggestions to help others improve their work performance to be able to cope with the changes in the organization (Hiroaki, 2015).

2.3 Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Management literature has documented strong relationships between OJ and OCB. In one study, Ravindra and Sheelam (2015) found that the perceptions of OJ among employees are strongly related to their OCB attitudes. The nature of the relationship between these two variables appeared to be positive as OJ leads to higher levels of OCB among employees. Al Taamseh & HassabAllah (2015) also studied the effect of procedural justice on OCB found that procedural justice is significantly and positively related with altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue and consciousness, which are the basic components of OCB.

It is claimed that employees perceptions of OJ results in more OCB behaviors as they are more willing to show these actions that can contribute in the success of the organization (Al Badrani, 2010) and that employees are also in much more stronger position to help other co-workers completed their assigned tasks and responsibilities as they recognize that the organization is treating them fairly (Yaqhoubi et al., 2012). OJ has been shown to be strongly related with various organizational variables such as increased job satisfaction levels among employees, more organizational commitment and loyalty, higher organizational performance levels, and reduced levels of intention to leave work, which in turn lead to high sense of OCB (Bahrami, et al., 2014). By the same token, negative equity perceptions held by employees will be a contributor in increasing intentions to leave work, higher abstentions and the unwillingness to contribute in the organizational success (Schilpzand et al., 2013).

The body of research also shows several studies validating the positive relationship between OJ and OCB, or any of its components. In Jordan, Alsoud & Sulatn (2009) found positive relationship between OJ and organizational commitment among academic staff at Jordanian universities. Similarly, in Iran Jafari and Bidarian (2010) found OJ to be strongly associated with altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, civil virtue and consciousness among telecommunication sales personnel.

In different sectors, researchers such as Yaghoubi et al (2012) revealed similar results among hospitals staff, in the banking sector in South Africa (Schilpzand et al., 2013; Mey et al., 2014), in medical sector in Iran (Bahrami, 2014), among university staff and school teachers in Turkey (DeConinck, 2015; Baş & Şentürk, 2011), in the banking sector in India (Ravidra & Sheelam, 2015), and in United Kingdom (Dolan et al., 2015).

Based on the review of literature and previous studies, the following major hypothesis is established:

H1: There is a statistical significant impact of overall Organizational Justice (OJ) on overall organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue) among sales personnel at commercial banks in Jordan.

From this hypothesis, the following sub-hypotheses emerged:

H1.1: There is a statistically significant impact of OJ on altruism among sales personnel at commercial banks in Jordan.
H2.1: There is a statistical significant impact of OJ on conscientiousness among sales personnel at commercial banks in Jordan.

H1.3: There is a statistical significant impact of OJ on sportsmanship among sales personnel at commercial banks in Jordan.

H1.4: There is a statistical significant impact of OJ on courtesy among sales personnel at commercial banks in Jordan.

H1.5: There is a statistical significant impact of OJ on civic virtue among sales personnel at commercial banks in Jordan.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research tries to check on the level of awareness of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior among sales personnel at commercial banks in Jordan and to examine the effect of OJ on OCB. To collect data a questionnaire was developed based on relevant literature and scales (i.e. Schilpzand et al., 2013; Mey et al., 2014; Bahrami, 2014; DeConinck, 2015; Baş & Şentürk, 2011; Ravindra & Sheelam, 2015; Dolan et al., 2015; Yaqhoubi et al., 2012; Ozahin & Sudak, 2015; Ozahin & Sudak, 2015; Dipola, 2005; Duffy et al., 2013 & Erkutul, 2011). Instruments and scales mentioned proved to have an established validity and reliability and have been replicated in several studies. A 5-point Likert scale was used for each item with (5 = strongly disagree, 4= agree, 3= neutral, 2= disagree, and 1= strongly disagree).

3.1 Procedures and Samples

Population of this current study consisted of all sales personnel working at commercial banks in Jordan banking services in Jordan. Association of banks of Jordan (2015) predicts total number of employees working at these Banks by 13631 of which 10 percent (1363) work as sales personnel. A convenient sample of 250 sales personnel was selected from the population. 204 questionnaires were returned, a response rate of 81.5%. Table (1) shows that males constitute 52.9% of the sample, and most of the sample age between 25-35 years old (51.5%) and Sales personnel constitute majority of the sample (72.5%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>52.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>47.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Under 25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25-35</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>51.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>13.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 40</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>23.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job description</td>
<td>Sales Personnel</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>72.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>21.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To test reliability for the scales used, Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were calculated. Table (2) lists this coefficient for each construct in the study. Table shows that Alpha coefficients range between (.88) for OCB and (.71) for Distributive Justice.
Table (2) Reliability analysis for the study constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The domain</th>
<th>No of items</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Altruism-Civic Virtue</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Conscientiousness</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Sportsmanship</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Courtesy</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Justice (OJ)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Distributive justice</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Interactional justice</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Procedural justice</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To check for the level of awareness of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior among sales personnel staff at commercial banks in Jordan mean scores and Std. Deviation were calculated. Table (3) shows means and SD for major constructs investigated in this study where Conscientiousness scored the highest mean (m= 4.3), followed by Altruism- Civic Virtue (m=4.1). the table also shows that sportsmanship scored the least mean score (m=2.5) among all variables indicating that sales personnel have low awareness concerning the importance of sportsmanship at work.

Table (3)

Means and Standard deviations for the study sub domains of OCB

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courtesy</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruism-Civic Virtue</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sportsmanship</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distributive justice</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional justice</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural justice</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Justice (OJ overall)</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB overall)</td>
<td>3.7607</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To test major hypothesis of the study and major sub-hypotheses emerged, simple linear regression analysis used. The model was tested using β = values for all constructs. Table (4) shows that Procedural justice (PJ) is positively associated with OCB (R=0.385, F=11.63, P<0.05). Also it was found that OJ explained a significant portion of variance in OCB (R2=0.14; P<0.05).

Table (4) multiple linear Regression for the impact of OJ dimensions on over all OCB

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distributive justice</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
<td>-.302</td>
<td>.763</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional justice</td>
<td>-0.007</td>
<td>-.178</td>
<td>.859</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural justice</td>
<td>0.206</td>
<td>4.108</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>0.385</td>
<td>0.149</td>
<td>11.631</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To test the effect of overall OJ on overall OCB Simple linear regression was conducted to test this hypothesis. Table (5) indicates that OJ is positively associated with OCB (β=0.33, t=4.9, P<0.05), and that OJ explained a significant portion of variance in OCB (R²=0.10; P<0.05), which indicates a significant direct positive effect of OJ on OCB. This finding support the major hypothesis of this study which states that There is a statistical significant impact of overall

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Organizational Justice (OJ) on overall organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue) among sales personnel.

Table (5) Simple linear Regression for the impact of OJ on OCB

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OJ</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>4.971</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.109</td>
<td>24.710</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To test sub hypotheses emerged, a single regression analysis was performed. Tables (6), (7), (8), and (9) summarize the effect of overall OJ on each of the OCB dimensions. Table (14) shows that OJ is positively associated with Altruism ($b=0.223$, t=3.25, $P<0.05$), and OJ explained a significant portion of variance in Altruism ($R^2=0.05$; $P<0.05$). This result confirms the hypothesis stating that there is a statistical significant impact of OJ on Altruism among sales personnel, and thus the hypothesis is accepted.

Table (6) Simple linear Regression for the impact of overall OJ on Altruism-Civic Virtue

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OJ</td>
<td>0.223</td>
<td>3.255</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.223</td>
<td>0.050</td>
<td>10.595</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (7) also shows a summary of a Simple linear regression for the effect of OJ on conscientiousness. The table shows that OJ is positively associated with conscientiousness ($b=0.158$, t=2.272, $P<0.05$), and that OJ explained a significant portion of variance in conscientiousness ($R^2=; P<0.05$). This significant direct positive effect of OJ on conscientiousness and the amount of variance accounted for by this factor confirms the hypothesis stating that there is a statistical significant impact of OJ on conscientiousness among sales personnel, and thus the hypothesis is accepted.

Table (7) Simple linear Regression for the impact of overall OJ on conscientiousness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OJ</td>
<td>0.158</td>
<td>2.272</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>0.158</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>5.160</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (8) shows a Simple linear regression to test the effect of OJ on sportsmanship. Results of regression analysis are show that OJ is insignificantly associated with sportsmanship ($b=0.099$, t=1.40, $P<0.05$), and that OJ explained a significant portion of variance in sportsmanship ($R^2=0.01$; $P>0.05$). These results contradicts the hypothesis which states that There is a statistical significant impact of OJ on sportsmanship among sales personnel and thus the hypothesis is rejected.

Table (8) Simple linear Regression for the impact of overall OJ on sportsmanship

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OJ</td>
<td>0.099</td>
<td>1.407</td>
<td>0.161</td>
<td>0.099</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>1.980</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To test the effect of OJ on courtesy, a Simple linear regression was conducted to test this hypothesis. Table (9) shows that OJ is positively associated with courtesy ($b=0.32$, $t=4.95$, $P<0.05$) and OJ explained a significant portion of variance in courtesy ($R^2=0.108$; $P<0.05$). The results of the regression indicated confirms the hypothesis which states that there is a statistical significant impact of OJ on courtesy among sales personnel and thus the hypothesis is accepted.

### Table (9) Simple linear Regression for the impact of overall OJ on courtesy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>$R$</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OJ</td>
<td>.329</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.329</td>
<td>.108</td>
<td>24.542</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

This study was conducted to investigate the effect of Organizational Justice (OJ) on Organizational citizenship Behavior (OCB). Though OCB is not part of job description, it contributes efficiently in achieving organizational effectiveness and competitive advantage. OJ appears to have a significant impact on improving OCB inside organizations. The banking sector is an important sector and contributes effectively in the Jordanian economy. Sales personnel were targeted because they constitute more than 10 percent of the working force at Jordanian banks, and upon them inducing new customers is dependent. An instrument to measure research variables was developed and distributed. Data collected was edited and then analyzed.

Analysis shows that the level of organizational citizenship behavior and its dimensions was high as perceived by sales personnel at commercial banks. The mean scores of subjects' responses ranged from moderate to high. Conscientiousness scored the highest mean ($m=4.33$), followed by courtesy ($m=4.19$). This could be attributed to the fact that most sales personnel in the Jordanian commercial banks feel that they belong to the organization they work in and feel secured, respected and being fairly treated. The high level of Conscientiousness could reflect an indicator that sales personnel at Jordanian commercial banks acknowledge their duties and tasks and they have a moral obligation towards the bank they work in. These results are in line with the results reported in Schilpzand et al, (2013), Al Azzam (2015), Nouh (2013), and (2015).

On the contrary of previous studies results, the level of Sportsmanship perceived was low ($m=2.47$). Although sportsmanship entails being able to keep good relationships with other sales personnel and help them solve their problems, and to accept constructive criticism. Perceived sportsmanship found to be weak for the group under study and this could be attributed to the kind of highly programmed and bureaucratic work at commercial banks where sales personnel have low margin of flexibility in achieving sales targets.

To check for the level perceived organizational justice means and standard deviations were calculated. The results show that Interactional justice was high ($m=$) while both distributive justice ($m=$) and procedural justice were moderate ($m=$). This result can be accounted to the fact that interactional justice is human in nature as is based on the interaction between the sales personnel and supervisors, while both distributive and procedural justice are concerned with the relationship between the employee and the organizational structure. This result could be a sign of inequality; sales personnel are not satisfied with their current title, their salaries, incentives and rewards and believe they deserve more. Such result came in line with the work of Yaghoubi, Afshar and Javadi (2012) and Al Taamesh, HassabAllah (2015).

Major hypothesis of the study was tested using single regression analysis. Finally, regression analysis conducted to find out how Organizational Justice (OJ) affects Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) among sales personnel. Regression results show that overall OJ affect overall OCB ($t=4.97$, $p<.000$), and that OJ explained 10 percent variance in OCB. Moreover OJ also found to be affecting Altruism/civic virtue ($t=3.25$, $p<.001$); Conscientiousness ($t=2.72$, $p<.024$) and courtesy ($t=4.95$, $p<.000$). The overall model was statistically significant as ($R^2=0.109$, $p < .000$). Results also show significant correlation between OJ and OCB ($R=0.385$, $F=11.63, P<0.05$). Based on the results reported,
researchers recommend that Jordanian banks should promote organizational citizenship behavior and justice among sales personnel. Workshops targeting promoting collaboration and confidence, shedding light on the organizational policies applied to raise banks' sales personnel awareness could be executed. Banks can also work on organizing formal and informal activities and programs targeting sales personnel's morale and behavior. Open days, sport competitions between banks departments outdoor activities could be an example.

LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

This study attempted to fill in the gap in the knowledge of OCB in the context of Jordan. It also explored the various aspects of organizational justice and the relationship between OCB and OJ. This study appeared to have the following limitations. First, data was obtained using a translated questionnaire that might generate some interpretation problems. Second, the nature of the research demanded using a convenient sample from sales personnel which was selected from sales personnel working at Jordanian banks. This may limit the generalizability of results to a broader population. Future research can address this issue by extending the research sample beyond sales personnel at Jordanian banks. Third, this study examined the relationship between OCB and OJ. Future studies could try inspect the relationship between OCB and other organizational issues such as job satisfaction and job commitment.

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Hybrid Learning: 
The Actual Case Of A Graduate Systems Engineering Program For The Industry

Muzaffar A. Shaikh, Florida Institute of Technology, USA
Shoaib M. Shaikh, Florida Polytechnic University, USA

ABSTRACT
This paper first examines prevalent online teaching/learning models and then presents a hybrid learning model that continues to be used since 2003 for the delivery of Florida Tech’s Master of Science program in Systems Engineering (MSSE) for two high-tech corporations.

Teaching is or should be at the heart of a university’s responsibilities. Students carry their classroom learning experiences all their lives. Today more than ever and due to the Internet and social media easy-access, innovative teaching tools and techniques need to be brought into the classroom not just for convenient teaching/learning but also for grasping technical subject matter by actually seeing examples. Massive Open Online Courses (MOOC [1]) and Flipped Classroom [2] approaches are proving to be extremely rewarding for anyone who is interested in learning. In today’s environment, course delivery varies on a spectrum of 100% in-class (traditional) teaching to 100% online. This culminates into three broad categories of course delivery methods - - 100% in-class, 100% online, and Hybrid Learning.

- **100% In-Class or Traditional Course Delivery [3]**: There is nothing like being present in the class room and learning face to face. Certain students and corporations expect their employees to learn face to face. Besides, certain engineering and science courses especially involving lab work and mathematical derivations fall in this category. Undoubtedly, tools are rapidly being developed to overcome part of the classroom-only dilemma. Yet, some faculty members and students (especially parents of undergraduates) firmly believe that face to face learning is the best way to absorb difficult mathematical concepts.

- **100% Online [3]**: This method entails 100% learning via internet (YouTube, CANVAS, or a dedicated websites, etc.). There is no face to face meeting at all. Students view videos, PowerPoint-type lecture online and turn in all their assignments online. Advantage of this method is that working individuals can learn at any time of the day that is convenient for them (after the kids go to bed, after work, etc.). Business-type courses lend themselves to this way of course delivery.

- **Hybrid Learning [4]**: As the name itself suggests, this method entails both in-class and online learning particular topics or the course material. Here usually, there is in-class learning but the lecture is videotaped and stored on a course related library (e.g., CANVAS). This allows students who did not make it to the ‘live’ class, to view the missed lecture. Q&A’s can be Synchronous (while the ‘live’ class is in session) or Asynchronous (at weekly or scheduled times). Online meeting tools such as SKYPE, WEBEX, GOTOMEETING, etc. are employed for virtual meetings with student groups. Sometimes, conference calls or simple emails are used as well.

- Hybrid learning consists of several models. For example, one model entails in-class teaching say for one-third of contact hours and the rest of two-thirds of hours can be online. The choice of a particular model depends upon the specific need by a client.
A REALWORLD CASE STUDY: In 2003, Florida Institute of Technology (FL Tech) was approached by two large high-tech DoD (Department of Defense) contracting corporations, to develop and deliver a Master of Science program in Systems Engineering (MSSE) for their employees. Both corporations were interested in face to face ‘live’ classroom setting as well as making videoed lectures and course material available online for employees who may have to miss classes due to business travels or busy schedules. Course topics were mutually developed over a period of time and after meeting a number of times. Special year-round evening schedules were developed keeping in mind FL Tech holidays and corporations vacation schedules. Currently, FL Tech is conducting 10th rotation or cohort for one corporation and 8th rotation for the other. A rotation includes the same set of students who start and finish at the same time. The degree duration is two and a half years. Success factor include adapting to the corporation request on electives set of courses, experienced faculty, and corporation-related projects.

Discovering the success of FL Tech’s industry MSSE program, several additional companies have come forward and have approached for similar programs.

Characteristics Of Self-Identity Of A Scientist With The Role Of Intellectual Leader: Type Of Institution And Work Status

Vilma Zydziunaite, Vytautas Magnus University, Lithuania
Vaida Jurgile, Vytautas Magnus University, Lithuania

ABSTRACT

Background. Today’s intellectual leaders of higher education schools are faced with unpredictable and volatile environments that defy long-range planning. Higher education schools are enmeshed in a new interconnected world of complex global networks that engage in novel ways of co-evolution and co-creation. They are faced with disruptive forces that require continuous activity or performance model innovation, and they have to deal with mounting political, economical, and ecological challenges (Huah, 2015).

To turn these challenges into opportunities, intellectual leaders need to shape highly creative, agile, and flexible higher education schools. To achieve real-time strategic responsiveness, higher education schools need to push responsibilities “down and out” to the periphery, to those who are closer to the dynamics of the higher education market (McKinsey conversations with global leaders: John Chambers of Cisco, 2009). With responsibility goes accountability. Therefore, in this world of constant flux, virtually every employee, student must become an empowered intellectual leader who can act successfully in the logic of network relationships, which have become so typical for today’s value creation processes. This requires a more “horizontal” intellectual leadership culture which fosters cross-boundary dialogue, participation, and collaboration among internal and external stakeholders (Deiser & Newton, 2013). It is obvious that the traditional higher education management model of the 20th century, with its emphasis on linear processes and vertical command and control, is ill fitted to meet these challenges; it tends to create silos, slack, and bureaucracy (Lichtenstein et al., 2006).

The performance of self as scientist / researcher is related with the putting the scientist into the research what is considered a way to move beyond subscribing to a particularly modernist set of assumptions informing conceptions of what it means to know and what it means to know others. This is a set of assumptions to the effect that scientists are able to put themselves in another’s (participant’s) place and know his / her circumstances and interests in exactly the same way as she / he (participant) would know them. Following on from those kind of understandings comes the belief that scientists will be able to produce “paradigmatic instances of the best knowledge possible, for everyone, in all circumstances” (Code, 1995, p. xi).

Identity is a multidimensional, multifaceted, and complex construct receiving increasingly more attention in science education. The multiple identities that scientists bring with them and further construct and re-construct higher education schools and out-of-higher education school settings allow them to be, and be recognized as, particular types of people, act in particular ways, encounter opportunities and barriers, and, thus, experience successes and challenges in learning. This is related to a socio-cultural and interactionist perspective. As students, or learners in general, learn different sciences and scientists as researchers and teachers, or facilitators in general, teach or engage them in variety of sciences, learners and teachers unavoidably (re)construct identities—which they are, who they are becoming, who they want to be and become vis-à-vis science as a practice, a discipline, a field of study, a school subject. Identity construction is intimately related to learning and teaching, educating and being educated, and researching (Varelas, 2012).

The aim of the research was to provide the research-based evidences about the scientist’s self-identity within the higher education context with the focus in higher education schools in Lithuania.
Keywords: Characteristics, Grounded theory, Intellectual leader, Scientist.

The research question was the following: “How is experienced the self-identity of a scientist with the role of intellectual leader in higher education school?

METHODOLOGY

The design for the study was chosen to be qualitative. The Constructivist Grounded theory (CGT) (Charmaz, 1983, 2005, 2006, 2011, 2012, 2014) as the methodology and method were applied in the study. CGT focuses on interpretive understandings of meanings, and this version of GT is equal to multiple social realities (Charmaz, 2011). CGT coding is inductive, comparative, interactive, and iterative and then deductive (Charmaz, 2012). Charmaz (1983, 2005, 2006, 2011, 2012, 2014) distinguishes several phases of GT coding: i) Initial coding refers to the close data analysis. Here, all details are important, i.e. word-by-word coding, line-by-line coding, incident-by-incident coding. ii) Focused coding enables a researcher to synthesize and explain larger segments of data. iii) Axial coding aims at relating categories with subcategories. iv) Theoretical coding emphasizes the guidance to reconsider the codes selected during the focused coding. The theoretical codes help to figure out possible relationships between categories. In this article the findings from focused coding are provided.

The qualitative sample consisted of 39 scientists from 10 universities and 9 Colleges of Lithuania. 30 research participants work only at the University setting and only in College work 5 research participants; 4 participants combine the work at the University and in the College; 1 research participant combines the work in business and at the University and 1 scientist combines the work in civil service and at the University. 23 research participants work only the academic (mostly pedagogical) work in higher education school. In research did not participate scientists who have the only administrative position in higher education school. 17 research participants combine the administrative and academic work positions in higher education school.

FINDINGS

Findings of qualitative research revealed that self-identification of scientists with the role of intellectual leader is acknowledged through trusting, empowering, representing, enduring value, supporting the reputation, being self-critical, developing, putting efforts in, mediating, mobilising, being responsible, creating and being in dilemma.
Table 1
Categories and subcategories in regard to scientist’s self-identity with the role of intellectual leader

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Subcategories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TRUSTING</td>
<td>Experiencing peers’ respect being asked for opinion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMPOWERING</td>
<td>Mobilising academic community for scientific activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REPRESENTING</td>
<td>Contributing to the implementation of a higher education school mission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENDURING VALUE</td>
<td>Participating in science policy discussions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENDURING VALUE</td>
<td>Avoiding overproduction of scientific texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUPPORTING</td>
<td>Seeking for meaningful research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REPUTATION</td>
<td>Combining expert assessment and developing innovative ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REPUTATION</td>
<td>Acknowledging scientist’s authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEING SELF-CRITICAL</td>
<td>Recognizing personal ignorance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEING SELF-CRITICAL</td>
<td>Acknowledging personal “I” at a higher education school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEING SELF-CRITICAL</td>
<td>Being in academic reverence by acknowledging leadership of colleagues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEVELOPING</td>
<td>Contributing to the development of researchers and students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEVELOPING</td>
<td>Learning through cooperation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEVELOPING</td>
<td>Mobilising leaders nearby</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEVELOPING</td>
<td>Searching for meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PUTTING EFFORTS IN</td>
<td>Performing everyday-routine work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PUTTING EFFORTS IN</td>
<td>Expecting value and significance of accomplished work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEDIATING</td>
<td>Transferring experience of colleagues through “retransmission”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOBILISING</td>
<td>Team-building for purpose search</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEING RESPONSIBLE</td>
<td>Initiating promotion and development of activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEING CREATIVE</td>
<td>Being in force of art laws in a scientist’s aspirations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEING IN DILEMMA</td>
<td>Unlimitting intellectual effect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Particularly limited percentage of the research participants approved the statement of treating themselves as the intellectual leaders in the higher education school they work. Nevertheless, some research participants described the leadership phenomenon as the certain objective, thus identifying partial coherence with implemented institutional activities, however, avoiding direct personal correlations. Therefore it makes sense to interpret presented comparisons of research participants’ opinions as conditional, exhaustive, and reflecting researchers’ personal experiences. In addition to that, the large part of research participants’ work in several universities (universities of applied sciences and technical or comprehensive ones) as higher education system does not assure possibilities to earn enough in one institution for living dignified personal life which consists of diverse than professional components.

Comparing researchers’ considerations about self-identification with the intellectual leader’s role, the following differences and similarities might be noticed:

• Trust, enduring value, reputation, self-criticism and efforts are relevant for the scientists working in the technical or comprehensive university/the university of applied sciences. However, considering the content of certain listed categories, namely, subcategories, some distinctions might be identified. For example, within the referring to enduring value the scientists working and positioning themselves as the leaders at university consider meaningful research as important. While within the being self-critical scientists highlight the need to discover personal “I”, as well as academic reverence to acknowledge the leadership of colleagues; exclusively those scientists refer to combined expert assessment and developed innovative ideas in the category of reputation. The scientists of the university make links between efforts and everyday-routine work performance, while the researchers of the university of applied sciences refer
to expected value and significance towards accomplished work:

- Exclusively the scientists – the intellectual leaders in the university – emphasize the development, mediation, mobilisation, responsibility, creativity and dilemmas as significant factors.
- Exclusively the scientists – the intellectual leaders in the applied science university – refer to the category of representation.

The large part of research participants who identified themselves with the role of intellectual leader does implement both academic and administrative (scientific and pedagogical) activities within the higher education schools. Therefore provided considerations in regard to the certain distinctions cover the attempt to reveal subjective nuances and enable readers to pay attention to the scientists’ working environment: the model of consolidated academic and administrative work or integration model, which is currently valid in the higher education system, does not enable scientists to accomplish both complex activities in qualitative way. Academic activities are affected if a person deals with the administrative tasks. This is evident opinion expressed by all the research participants.

- The scientists who combine administrative and academic activities share some attitudes towards similarities between self-identification and the intellectual leadership referring to the following categories: reputation, self-criticism, development, efforts, responsibility and unlimited intellectual effect.

Each identified category covers distinctions which reflect insights of the scientist working in either administrative or non-administrative position:

- Reputation and scholar authority acknowledgement is relevant for the academic representatives.
- The academics are self-critical and consider personal ignorance or reverence for colleagues’ leadership as being significant. However, self-critical scientists implementing administrative work refer to undiscovered personal “I” at the university.
- The scientists implementing academic activities point out their input while contributing to the development of researchers and students, personal learning through cooperation and searching for meaning. And those scientists implementing administrative activities do care for mobilising scientists nearby to implement common work (for example, projects or teaching activities).
- The scientists implementing administrative activities emphasize empowerment (while mobilising academic community for scientific activities), representation (contributing to the implementation of higher education school mission and participating in discussions with the reference to science policy), mediation (transferring experience of colleagues to personal activities, namely, “retransmissing”). Those aspects aren’t emphasized by the academic scientists.
- The scientists implementing academic activities focus their work output on the enduring intellectual leadership value (avoiding the overproduction of scientific texts and seeking for meaningful scientific research), empowerment (mobilising academic community for scientific activities), and creativity (following the provision of art laws which manifest in scientist’s aspirations).

CONCLUSIONS

Subjectivity is the cornerstone of the scientist’s self-identity. Centralising subjectivity in the research process for the scientist means just that. It means that the scientist can never hope to be detached. Talking about scientist bias is not a particularly fruitful exercise and this is because the subjectivity of the scientist is always implicated in the complex and dual-pronged research encounter. The scientist self is always performed in and for others. Methodologically, the scientist can never truly know what he / she is seeking and why, because the fictions of subject positions are not linked by rational and objective connections and interactions, but by defences, fantasies, intentions by which prevent one position from spilling into another. Research accounts that are provided by scientists need to acknowledge that research is more than the elements of trust, doubt, humility, and power. It is about fictions and fantasies and the complicity and fragility of these in relation to others within the scientist’s self-identity is developing and this process is not linear.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Financial support provided by the Research Council of Lithuania for the research and English language proof-reading is gratefully acknowledged (Project Reg. No. MIP-15268, Agreement No. 026/2015).

REFERENCES


Academic Freedom And Academic Duty Of A Scientist By Implementing The Intellectual Leadership In Higher Education

Vilma Zydziunaite, Vytautas Magnus University, Lithuania
Vaida Jurgile, Vytautas Magnus University, Lithuania

ABSTRACT

Background. An intellectual leader in academic context committed to the attainment of institutional objectives, though he/she must be able to articulate reasonable alternative view about the processes leading to the achievements and show the ability to critique the objectives if necessary (Blackmore & Blackwell, 2006). Intellectual leaders have gravitated into managerial roles at the expense of any real leadership.

Intellectual leadership means the organic personality of intellectual in order to displace the status quo through being not detached from their peers and acting as organisers of ideas (Stevenson, 2012). The task of an intellectual leader is to establish an environment for effective and efficient group operations, when the environment is characterized by intentional structure of roles and commonality of purpose (Koontz, 1963). Intellectual leader – a scientist – directs his/her leadership towards (Macfarlane, 2011): i) students through teaching, advising, (co)supervising; ii) colleagues researchers or academics through being a role model and mentor, (co)authorship with inexperienced researchers and higher education school teachers; iii) higher education school in the internal context through representing the department in the higher education school, influencing the work and direction of the higher education school, and serving in higher education school committees; iv) higher education school in the external context by influencing the public debate, and in the internal context.

Academic freedom and academic duty are considered as two interrelated dimensions in intellectual leadership being related to the following four orientations (Macfarlane, 2012): knowledge producer, academic citizen, boundary transgressor, and public intellectual.

The aim of the study was to reveal the academic duty and academic freedom of the scientist in higher education school.

Keywords: Academic duty, Academic freedom, Correlation(s), Higher education, Intellectual leadership, Scientist.

SAMPLE

The main sample attribute referred to respondents who are already awarded doctoral (PhD) degree. The simple random sampling was applied by providing the request to fill in the questionnaire for each potential respondent. On the whole, there were 318 questionnaires filled in, however 14 questionnaires were filled in incompletely, therefore only 304 questionnaires were correct. The research participants have acquired the doctoral degree in the period from 1968 to 2015. The main part of the sample consists of representatives from social sciences. The majority of respondents have more than 5 years’ experience of working at university.

METHODS

Correlation analysis is focused on the determination of the relationship extent within the blocks of the tool. Single statements’ block characterises the single role of the scientist. Seeking for related statements within the block, the correlations with each statement were checked. The Spearman correlation coefficient calculations were applied in the research. Correlation between blocks was applied with the aim to determine the strongest inter-correlation between the blocks (of the tool).
Factor analysis was applied in order to evaluate theoretical distribution of scales being approved by quantitative research results. In the research was applied the confirmatory factor analysis (Harrington, 2009) aiming to evaluate and reconfirm theoretical model according to the results of accomplished research.

Tool. The original validated questionnaire (Zydziunaite et al., 2015 a, b) on researcher’s roles in higher education was applied. The construct of the tool is based on the conception of Macfarlane (2007, 2010, 2011, 2012) on “Intellectual Leadership in Higher Education”. The conceptual framework was enriched by other following publications of Dealtry (2001); Rowley & Sherman (2003); Yielder & Codling (2004); Blackmore & Blackwell (2006); Roy et al. (2008); Tseng et al. (2010); Stevenson (2012). The tool consists of 2 parts, 12 questions and 116 statements in total. In the 1st part research participants are asked to choose ‘yes’ or ‘no’ regarding every statement. To measure every statement in the 2nd and 3rd parts, respondents are asked to use the Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree).

RESULTS

Referring to the statements, which describe academic freedom, all related correlations are statistically significant, medium and strong. The statements I consider academic freedom as freedom to express opinion within and outside research field and I consider academic freedom as freedom to present new ideas and various opinions cover very strong correlation (r=0,901, p=0,000), thus, there are no more statements when inter-correlation would exceed 0,9. Meanwhile, the statement I consider academic freedom as acting externally on behalf of higher education school in an international context correlates with the remaining ones (except the item I consider academic freedom as acting externally on behalf of university in a national context) in medium level (Correlation is 0,5), and those correlations are the weakest in this section. Twelve statements describing academic freedom after factor analysis (KMO=0,950, Bartlett’s test of sphericity χ²=5152,98, df=66, p=0,000) applying Varimax rotation were divided in two factors, which clarify 86,8% of common dispersion.

The first factor covering ten statements describes academic freedom as freedom for new ideas, opinions, actions: I consider academic freedom as freedom to express opinion within and outside research field, I consider academic freedom as freedom to present new ideas and various opinions, I consider academic freedom as freedom to learn and improve, I consider academic freedom as freedom to maintain democratic values in higher education institution and personal work, I consider academic freedom as freedom to raise questions, I consider academic freedom as freedom to teach, I consider academic freedom as basis for my scientific identity, I consider academic freedom as teaching while cooperating with students, I consider academic freedom as freedom of speech, and I consider academic freedom as knowledge creation while cooperating.

The second factor covering just two statements though being of high factor loadings indicates that academic freedom refers to acting on behalf of higher education school in an international context and I consider academic freedom as acting externally on behalf of higher education school in a national context.

Referring to all the twelve statements, which describe academic duty, all related correlations are also statistically significant, medium, strong and very strong. The strongest correlation is detected between the statements Academic responsibility “to be seen” refers to fostering my reputation at a national level and Academic responsibility “to be seen” refers to fostering my reputation at an international level (r=0,924, p=0,000). Medium correlation is detected while comparing the statement My academic duty refers to review and criticism of scientific literature with remaining ones, and those identified correlations are the weakest in this section. The mentioned statement does not exceed 0,5 correlation referring to the statements My primary academic duty refers to protection of academic freedom (r=0,486, p=0,000) and My academic responsibility refers to academic reputation (r=0,473, p=0,000).

The results of factor analysis indicate one factor retained and statements being undecomposed.
CONCLUSIONS

Analysis of inter-correlations between the diverse roles indicates that inter-relations have moderate strength, normal strength and very intense strength in all cases (all are statistically significant). Very intense strength was determined between academic freedom and academic duty. The years of work experience in higher education and the year of PhD defense are not the factors, which are meaningfully related to the academic duty and academic freedom of the scientist under intellectual leadership in higher education school.

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From Classroom To Cubeland: What An English Professor Learned From Corporate America
Wanda Synstelien, Inver Hills Community College, USA

ABSTRACT
This essay presents the beginning framework of an argument claiming the liberal arts are applicable in the corporate world, more specifically in the world of Information Technology, based on an upcoming ethnographical study of an English professor who chose to enter the corporate world to understand what her students are face upon leaving her classroom. This is the beginning of a book both defending liberal arts as a valid educational background but also in guiding those educators, parents and students to a better understanding of how to position liberal arts in a future facing stance. While a challenging, even threatening, subject for many families as they undertake the largest investment they will make in upcoming young adult’s education, it is research that is meant to both address the inherent weight of elitism, traditionalism, burdensome debt and an ever present pressure to determine what the purpose of higher education is.
Financial Sustainability And Micro-Finance Institutions: Empirical Evidence From Pakistan
Ajab Khan Burki, Bahria University Islamabad, Pakistan

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to determine the financial sustainability of micro-finance institutions working in Pakistan based on efficiency of management, the size of Micro-Finance Institute, the breadth of outreach, and deposits to total assets. The given variables would discern the important contribution to effective financial sustainability of Micro-Finance institutions of Pakistan.

Data on Pakistani Micro-Finance Institutions are collected from 25 Micro-Finance Institutions of their annual reports. The data has been taken from 2007-14 for eight consecutive years. For determining the implications of the given variables on financial sustainability of Micro-Finance Intuitions, the given variables are regressed linearly and multiply.

The results of this study are mix. This study determined significant negative association between Micro-Finance Institutions and Efficiency of Management; while the Micro-Finance Institutions’ size have positive association with Financial Sustainability; and Similar positive association exists with breadth of outreach, deposits and loans capacity. This is one of the contributing studies where Financial Sustainability of the Micro-Finance Institutions are confronting with some grave issues to effectively deploy the notion of catering “win-win” for eradicating poverty in society that need to be helped by exploiting the contributing factors effecting the financial sustainability of the Micro-Finance Institutions of Pakistan.

This study is novel in attempting the financial sustainability of Micro-Finance Institutions from the perspective of wide range of given core related financial variables that truly represents the financial aspects.

Keywords: Financial Sustainability, Micro-Finance Institutions, Pakistan
Part of Speech Time
Name: Seher Kasikara, Anadolu University School of Foreign Languages, Turkey

ABSTRACT

It has been quite long since learners last used a traditional dictionary in the form of a book to look up words. Just after a short time of the invention of the internet, all learners as well as teachers have started to use practical online dictionaries. In a progressive search, we all are able to reach the definitions, pronunciation, part of speech, synonyms-antonyms, formality-informality, origin and sample sentences of the words. However, during in-class activities or writing skill practices, it is observed that learners are not making use of these online version functionally as expected. They make lots of lexical mistakes in terms of meaning and part of speech both in exams and in-class exercises. As a teacher, I personally believe that using games is really effective at any age and proficiency level. “Part of speech time” is a game that is improvised to facilitate learners use correct word formation.

In order to find out to what extent EFL students are able to make use of this kind of game, a questionnaire was administered to language learners of an A level class in an Intensive English Program at a state university in Turkey. The findings and implications of the study will be discussed during the poster presentation.

Keywords: English, game, vocabulary, parts of speech
The Content Of Integrated Report: A Case Study On Takeda Pharmaceutical
Mohammad Badrul Haider, Kwansei Gakuin University, Japan

ABSTRACT

Over the years corporate financial reporting has been criticized from different perspectives. These limitations include narrow focus on financial capital as well as increase in length and complexity of financial statements. Since 1990s, along with the financial capital, investors and other relevant stakeholders have been emphasizing on the corporate impact on society and natural environment. In order to fulfill the increased demand for information, companies have been producing wide range of reports including sustainability report, governance report, and intellectual capital report. However, these reports were seen to be disconnected from the mandatory corporate annual reports. There has been an urge to integrate corporate financial and non-financial information in order to provide a holistic view of organizational performance. In fact, a number of global companies such as Sainsbury’s, EDF Energy, BT, HSBC, Aviva, Novo Nordisk, and American Electrical Power have been practicing some forms of integrated reports for a long period of time. The movement of integrated report (IR) has accelerated with the emergence of International Integrated Reporting Council (IIRC) in 2010. In 2013, IIRC published the Integrated Reporting Framework. Within a short period of time, the Framework has got wider attention from the regulatory bodies, companies, professionals and researchers. In Japan, 205 companies have published such report in 2015 (KPMG, 2015). The objective of this study is to explore the IR journey of a case organization in Japan namely Takeda Pharmaceutical. Takeda was included as one of the pilot survey companies initiated by IIRC. Since 2006, the company has been publishing integrated report. This study evaluates the content of the IR against a check list prepared from the IIRC framework. Considering the emerging stage of IR, the study tries to answer the question “what the companies are publishing in the name of IR?”
Developing A Handbook To Promote Innovation In Municipal Care

Marit Rismark, Norwegian University of Science and Technology, NTNU, Norway
Oscar Amundsen, Norwegian University of Science and Technology, NTNU, Norway
Nina Amble, Oslo and Akershus University College of Applied Sciences, Norway
Sigrun Saur Stiklestad, Oslo and Akershus University College of Applied Sciences, Norway
Solveig Waaler, Norwegian Labor and Welfare Administration, Norway

ABSTRACT

Employees within Norwegian Municipal Health Care institutions can be seen as a key resource in efforts to improve care services. With an aging population and increasing amount of people living with disorders, municipal health care institutions are encouraged to think anew when they improve Care Services. Innovation is launched as a way of developing and improving the services (NOU, 2011:11). Moreover, the specific approach of Employee-driven innovation (EDI) can be used to promote alternative work methods, modes of operation and organizational forms, which support active user involvement, active citizenship and network cooperation. Unlike the traditional understanding of the concept of innovation, with its predominant focus on experts, technology and products, EDI focuses on the key role of “ordinary” employees in innovation work, i.e. on a broader, systematic application of the employees’ knowledge, relationships and experience (Høyrup, 2012). This represents an important extension of the classical understanding of the innovation concept, e.g. by including the important aspect of organizational expansive learning and innovation.

In a 3-year project, named #Learning Life (Funded by The Norwegian Research Council 2015-2018), University researchers work closely together with employees in four workplaces within municipal health care services. The aim is to cooperate in developing a Handbook on EDI. The handbook shall be concrete and practical, give instructions, advice and guidance for workplaces in the sector to organize for EDI. The text will describe roles, routines, sets of methods and phases of process in everyday language. Examples from the sector will be used to illustrate points. The handbook should be small and easy to read and have an esthetic layout.

In the Clute Conference presentation we present the model for the cooperation between the municipal health care employees and university researchers. We discuss how to develop such handbooks through an interactive research process involving researchers, together with the experts from The Norwegian Labor and Welfare Administration NAV and groups of employees working in the care services. The developing methods are to be tested in the four workplaces. Parallel with the constant dialogue and evaluation, oral and written, the research group designs a course at university level. The employees may follow the course program, take exams and earn credits. At the end of the project period the research team and employees in municipal health care services will excerpt the usable recipe for how workplaces in care work can organize an infrastructure for operating EDI.

REFERENCES

ABSTRACT

A number of studies have highlighted unequal and unfavorable conditions that women face, both in recruitment into organizations, and also in navigating their career growth. This discrimination cuts across different countries, and hence gender is an important dimension that is protected by anti-discrimination and affirmative action policies in some countries (Barak, 2010).

Much of the discrimination literature comes from USA, which has a history of affirmative action. Affirmative action was forced upon organizations by the government “to rectify past discrimination and preclude future discrimination in employment” (Kelly & Dobbin, 1998; p 963). The regulatory requirements instituted by anti-discrimination laws and affirmative action were a significant driver of adoption of formalized personnel practices (Dobbin, Sutton, Meyer, & Scott, 1993), for example, affirmative action in recruitment lead organizations to apply screening methods to reduce the chances of gender discrimination (Holzer & Neumark, 2000). Hence, such formalized policies and practices served the purpose of promoting equity by depersonalizing decisions, and continued to be operationalized even when affirmative action was no longer legally mandated.

Apart from legal compliance, another justification that emerged was a business case for diversity, wherein organizations highlighted the benefits of attracting and utilizing a diverse workforce. Diversity management was defined as the “voluntary organizational actions that are designed to create greater inclusion of employees from various backgrounds into the formal and informal organizational structures through deliberate policies and programs” (Barak, 2010; p 208). An interesting question that emerges is to understand the rationale for the voluntary adoption of diversity management practices in organizations, especially in the absence of regulations.

While there is little empirical evidence that demographic diversity is positively associated with improved firm performance (Kochan et al., 2003), some qualitative case studies (Benschoop, 2001; Ely & Thomas, 2001.; Metz & Kulik, 2008) have illustrated how organizations leverage the insights, skills and experiences of a diverse set of employees to “rethink their primary tasks, redefine their markets, product strategies and business practices” to achieve their goals (Ely & Thomas, 2001: p 240). Apart from improving organizational performance, diversity can improve an organization’s corporate image (Kossek et al., 2005) thus facilitating its ability to attract a talented workforce (Kochan et al., 2003; Konrad, 2003). Diversity also enhances the effectiveness of marketing to diverse customer bases (Konrad, 2003; Robinson & Dechant, 1993), especially with the advent of globalization and growth in the service sector. There is also evidence, that hiring and retaining a diverse workforce by using a business case rationale is accepted positively by both majority group members (i.e. white males) and minority group members (African American males and women candidates) (Richard & Kirby, 1997, 1998).

India provides a unique context to study the rationale underlying voluntary adoption of gender diversity practices, as women continue to be marginalized and yet are not protected by affirmative action or strong anti-discrimination laws. Interestingly, in recent years a number of organizations in India, both multinational and Indian companies, are adopting and implementing gender diversity management policies to attract and retain women in the Workforce.

The present study is an exploratory study that examined the rationale for implementing gender diversity in India. In this study we attempted to understand why organizations (both Indian and multinationals) are focussing on policies targeting recruitment and retention of women into the workforce. The sample for the study was taken from Information Technology (IT) and Information Technology Enabled Services (ITES) organizations that had been
awarded Diversity and Inclusion awards by NASSCOM (National Association of Software and Services Companies) in the past 7 years since 2009. A member of the top management team or the HR head of 16 organizations were interviewed for the study. Differences in the rationale and policies of Indian and multinationals organizations were also examined.

Findings revealed evidence of transfer of policies from organizations headquartered in the USA and Europe. Other rationale involved building a business case and emphasizing how the presence of women in the workforce adds value to the organization through their different thinking processes, working styles and also loyalty to employers. Additionally organizations often benchmark themselves with competitors and try to adopt best practices. Adopting and implementing best practices becomes critical in sustaining competitive parity especially in Indian IT/ITES industry where recruiting and retaining talent is a challenging task (Budhwar & Varma, 2010; Raghu Raman, Budhwar, & Balasubramanian, 2007). As multinationals had more mature policies and practices on managing gender diversity, competitors realized they might be losing talent to companies with gender-friendly policies and initiatives and thus initiated similar policies.

**Keywords:** Implementation of Gender Diversity, Business case for diversity
How The Internet And Online Education Encourage Culturally Responsive Teaching In Saudi Arabia
Nouf Alsuwaida, New Mexico State University, USA

ABSTRACT
This paper discusses online course design as a form of distance learning. Also, it highlights important information about how technology changes the Saudi culture, society, and the segregation of genders. The effect of using technology in education is positive in Saudi Arabia. Both sexes become more self-confident, open-minded, and are more likely to communicate with each other. The theoretical framework is Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge Framework (TPACK) in this study.

Keywords: Online, Cultural Responsive, Teaching, Saudi Arabia

INTRODUCTION
Online courses are a form of distance learning. The online communities encompass social presence and identity, collaborative learning, shared goals and resources, learning styles, policy and guidelines, and communication and interaction. “Engaged learning in an online environment requires attention to maximizing learning. Both educators and learners are challenged to facilitate the transition between the mindset and what is required to be an engaged online community member” (Conrad & Donaldson, 2004, p.13).

The important factor that facilitates and provides the learning community with a better learning experience is social learning (Queen’s University, 2014). Social learning could happen through instructions between students and the instructor and also among students. Hence, this course encourages learning through social interaction which will provide students with a platform to express their concerns, and the instructors will learn the usefulness of the online classes are to the students. Social interaction will help the instructors to modify their approach towards a topic to meet the needs of the students. Meeting learning needs is more challenging in online courses than in regular classes. Hence, this social learning approach will be helpful to both the students and the teachers.

Another area that the course will focus on is cooperative learning that will happen among students. Similar to regular courses, the students will be asked to submit group assignments requiring all students in the groups to interact with each other and contribute to the assignment (Queen’s University, 2014). Cooperative learning will provide students with a better and near-real learning experience, making the online course more attractive. It will also help create a sense of belonging, which in turn will produce better learning outcomes. The course will also follow standards and rubrics assigned.

It is important to work together as teamwork in an online learning community. Groups can easily think through topics more thoroughly, encouraging exploration of alternative perspectives and solutions, and stimulating critical thinking and helping learners clarify ideas through discussion and debate. Also, open discussion between students and the instructor to explain differences usually result in new understanding of expectations and the opportunity to improve conflict resolution skills.

The assignments will be graded based on rubrics. Engagement in these learning activities will increase students’ knowledge to the course content and stimulate critical thinking. Opportunities will also be provided to explore more about the topics externally, which will further improve students’ knowledge (Queen’s University, 2014). Elbaum,
McIntyre, and Smith, (2002) point out, “Achieving a strong community does not just happen, however; instructors need to build in the structure and activities to offer this “coming together” opportunity to the students” (p. 47).

A learner needs to conduct an analysis to meet the learning requirements of the student community. The various skills and competencies were assessed to design the course to complement and supplement their skills (Queen’s University, 2014). Providing ample information to the learning community about the course content, objectives, outcomes expected, assignments to be submitted, the due dates, class timings, and activities involved in each section of the course. There are of crucial importance to help the students have a smooth experience during the course (Gerson, 2000). Therefore, the course is designed in such a way that students get easy and quick access to such information. Moreover, interaction with the instructor and fellow learners will be made easy through providing appropriate virtual platforms and means (Gerson, 2000).

The course will also provide students with a calendar marked with the due dates of the different assignments and the activities for different sections and topics of the courses. They will also be provided instructions from time to time, clearly explaining what is required of them and how they are expected to address issues (Gerson, 2000). The course is designed student-centric with components designed to meet their unique needs.

The pre-class activities that the students are supposed to do like pre-readings will also be listed on the schedule for the course (Gerson, 2000). Course guidelines will be reviewed on a regular basis to evaluate their effectiveness in giving the students information about what they are expected to do. The integration of technology tools and online learning would eliminate the need to segregate genders in Saudi Arabia. Both genders can use technology to communicate with each other in the online course.

The Theoretical Framework: Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge Framework (TPACK)

What is Technology Pedagogical Content Knowledge Framework? According to Koehler & Mishra (2009), “the TPACK framework for teacher knowledge is described as a complex interaction among three bodies of knowledge: Content, pedagogy, and technology” (p. 60). Additionally, Ross (2012) Content Knowledge (CK) in the diagram (figure 1) refers to the knowledge of the educator about the subject that is to be taught or learned. Such knowledge includes knowledge of ideas, theories, organizational frameworks, and concepts. Teachers explain to their students that the cost associated with inadequate comprehensive knowledge content could be prohibitive. Pedagogical Knowledge (PK) is the in-depth knowledge of the educator about the practices, methods or processes related to learning and teaching. They include the value, aim, and purpose of education. Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) is similar to the pedagogy knowledge, which applies to the teaching of content that is specific. Technology Knowledge (TK) is dynamic, and there is no specific definition of it since it is usually in a flux state.

There exists a strong relationship between technology and content knowledge observed (Roth, 2001). There has been notable progress in the realms of history, physics, medicine and archeology that coincides with new technology development. New technology emphasizes the understanding of how learning and teaching may vary with the application of a particular technology in a specific way. It includes awareness of the constraints and pedagogical affordance of a variety of technological tools.

Figure 1: Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge Framework and Related Components (Koehler & Mishra, 2009).
The Internet

In 1999, The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) began to use the Internet after a long period of discussions and consultations with the Saudi government. Then, a big filter system was set up in Riyadh, the capital of Saudi Arabia, in conjunction with an American company (Al-Saggaf, 2004).

“The use of online communities, in a country where Islam acts as a primary force in determining social norms, values, and practices, is disrupting long-established traditions, enabling the mixing of members of both sexes, and making people aware of different ways of living” (Al-Saggaf, 2004, p 1).

The Culture

To understand the impact of online communities in Saudi Arabia, one should understand the Saudi Arabian culture. Islam is not only a religious ideology but a comprehensive system which embraces individual prescriptions for the entire way of life (AlMunajjed, 1997). Culture is an interesting dichotomy in the sense that it both influences the overall educational process in Saudi Arabia and shapes the teaching/learning components of higher education and there are times when this creates a problem, and yet technology might influence the country’s culture and subsequently the many career fields presently available.

Some universities still use video conferencing in Saudi Arabia. Videoconferencing offers a way for students to work in a group setting in the comfort of private space. Perhaps this learning method would eliminate the peer intimidation that happens with face-to-face meetings. Video conferencing allows only the male professor to hear students when they ask questions. Female students might feel more relaxed in the absence of male peer pressure. However, the virtual classroom may stifle tactile or collaborative learners, as there are less communication and less participation between students (Baki, 2004). According to some female professors, most of the symposiums, conferences, and departmental faculty meetings take place on the dominant male campuses; female faculty members must participate by phone or attend via closed-circuit television. These faculties feel ignored by their academic community.

Dr. Hatoon al-Fassi is a women's rights activist, and an assistant professor of women's history at King Saud University said, "I find it insulting that we have to use technology this way. It's absurd that prevented from sitting on a panel meeting with males." The same method is used on the women's campus when female professors cannot found to teach different courses; they have taught from a distance. In contrast, male professors who are not allowed on the women's campus appear via video conference and can offer more personal communication (Mills, 2009, p. 4).

Alkhalaf, AlGhamdi, and Alfarraj (2012) study the impact of e-Learning systems in higher education institutions in this context. A survey based on the IS Success/Impact Measurement Framework was executed in a sample population of faculty members using e-Learning in two top universities in the KSA. The findings of this study showed positive academics’ attitudes towards eLearning systems in higher education, helping faculty members to improve their job performance, and educational organizations to provide better and new products and services to users.

The Technology

Technology has become an essential tool of communication and information, thus offering unique advantages to both educators and students. Despite a recent educational revolution in Saudi Arabian educational systems, the issue of access to higher education remains one of the more enduring challenges. However, “Online education is emerging as an important feature of higher education in all fields” (Hamdan, 2014, p.310). Online education enables non-traditional communication between males and females, for the first time, in Saudi’s gender-segregated society. Both females and males are now able to access learning resources such as journals, magazines, intercultural communication forums that would not be available to them without a connection to the Internet. With the expanse of information available via the Internet, specifically, research journals, newspapers, and online forums, there is the opportunity that Saudi Arabia’s younger generation could become less traditional and strict in their views. Because online learning provides new opportunities for Saudi students to question traditional assumptions of what learning is and how the culture of learning is changing (Hamdan, 2014). The need for more delivery modes that take education to learners wherever they are, and not within the boundaries of the campus, is thus a necessity. Online education could dramatically increase access to
tertiary education and training in Saudi Arabia, in particular for those learners who were once denied learning opportunities for any reason, such as health, distance or the like (Al-Harbi, 2011).

According to Al-Saggaf (2004), “...online communities change society” and “people become self-confident, open-minded in their thinking, more aware of the personal characteristics of individuals within their society and less inhibited about the opposite gender” (p.1). In this study, the undergraduate female students responded that online education is changing their culture of learning and their culture is influencing online education. They indicated that online education helped them to challenge some cultural norms, enhance their learning culture, and improve their communication. The communication channel that the online community has created between the two genders has made them understand each other better. Men become multiple views, and opinions online made them open-minded in their thinking and expressions. Women become more confident than before because the online community has allowed them for the first time to have their voices heard. In turn, has increased their self-worth and given them a sense of importance (Al-Saggaf, 2004).

Al-Gahtani, Hubona, and Wang (2007) discuss how the unified theory of acceptance using of technology (UTAUT) has been credited with explaining a larger proportion of the variance of ‘intention to use’ and ‘usage behavior.’ As a result, It explains why technology changes the dynamics both comprehension and learning of the individual. These dynamics are at the root of how students progress, and as a result, how the society in which they live, regardless of their gender, evolves.

CONCLUSION

This essay highlights important information about how technology changes the Saudi culture, society, and segregation of genders. The effect of using educational technology is positive in Saudi Arabia. Both genders become more self-confident, open-minded, and are more likely to communicate with each other. The online course, with its clear plan and standards, will help the students learn the topics planned through interaction and self-evaluation. It also stimulates research interests in students and helps them explore the topics outside the course, paving the way for a better understanding of the subject. The classes also take into account the numerous hindrances associated with online learning and facilitate learning in an active environment where both male and female students will be required to participate and improve their knowledge in the subject.

The Saudi government should implement an education system that supports women and balances social constructions of gender. It is important to give women the opportunity to be successful in online teaching and learning. Women can teach both females and males in online courses to eliminate the need to segregate genders. As a result, women would have larger roles in public life and can step into top leadership positions.

AUTOBIOGRAPHY

Nouf Alsuwaida is a doctoral student at New Mexico State University in the College of Education’s Curriculum & Instruction program. Her area of interest is Educational Learning Technologies in the field of ‘Art and Design.’ She has done both Masters and Bachelors in Home Economics with major in Couture (Fashion Design) from College of Education for Domestic Economy and Art Education - Princess Nora Bint Abdul Rahman University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

She has taught for almost ten years different courses related to ‘Art and Design.’ She has been a lecturer in College of Education at University of Hail, Saudi Arabia. Besides, she had been the in charge of supervising students’ affairs in the faculties of girls at the University of Hail for one year. She had been working at General Organization for Technical and Vocational Training “Higher Technical Institute for Girls.” Earlier, she had been supervising practical work at College of Education for Domestic Economy and Art Education - Princess Nora Bint Abdul Rahman University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. Other than teaching, she had been serving these institutes at various positions like ‘Dean of Higher Technical Institute, Trainer, Coordinator of Admissions, and Registration, Chairwomen of the Commission’ for various committees within the institutions.
She is an active member of different societies in Saudi Arabia and Trainer at King Abdulaziz Center for National Dialogue. She has membership in different organization communities in the United States such as ATE, SCLA, AACE, SITTE, and ITAA.

REFERENCE


Grit In The Classroom
Jessica Harn, University of Phoenix, USA
Kimberly Long, University of Phoenix, USA
Liisa Rose, University of Phoenix, USA
Mandy Smith, University of Phoenix, USA

ABSTRACT

Grit, or the passion and perseverance for achievement, is a fairly new-founded concept within the academic world (Duckworth, et al, 2007). Yet, little is known on how to implement and instill this attribute within college students, particularly online students, through the means of faculty interaction and influence, curriculum enhancement, and students’ self-awareness of the benefits of grit. This positive attribute is something students in introductory online college courses struggle to embody and exemplify in their academic lives, despite often displaying in other areas of their lives. The researchers ask: Why is grit an important attribute for online college students? How can online instructors assist their students to develop grit? It is the researchers’ opinion that through online faculty teaching practices and proactivity, grit may be better obtained and embraced by students with the goal that students feel more engaged with their studies and internally motivated to complete their degree programs.

In this study, the definition and meaning of grit will be explored as well as related theories. Additionally, effective practices for implementing grit awareness and exploration in the online classroom environment will be included.

Keywords: Grit (Perseverance, Passion, Motivation, and Goal Achievement), Effective Teaching Practices, Online Education, Curriculum, Student Engagement, Student Retention
Meeting Real World Demands Of The Global Economy: An Employer’s Perspective

Dr. Doreen McGunagle, Embry-Riddle Aeronautical University, USA
Dr. Laura Zizka, University of Applied Sciences Western Switzerland, Switzerland

ABSTRACT

Educational programs prepare students theoretically for the workplace, but many programs are still lacking in the real-world skills that the workplace requires. This is especially evident in Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math (STEM) education where today’s graduates hold a fundamental role in advancing science, medicine, sustainability, national security, and the economy, yet the programs to prepare them are falling short of employer expectations. At present, there is a lack of information on the necessary skills for workplace success that is specific to Airline, Aerospace, Defense (A&D) and related Industries’ STEM graduates. This paper attempts to fill this gap by offering a model of the skills required of STEM graduates for successful integration into the A&D and related Industries’ workplace. The purpose of the case study is to explore the employer’s perspective on the job skills that influence the success of STEM college graduates. The case study method was used that involved a purposeful sample strategy of hiring individuals for STEM based positions within the A&D and related Industries. The initial interviews support the job performance skills that have been identified in our research. The highest sought after skills are problem solving, team player, ability to gather data, and adaptability. The lowest sought after skill is negotiation. Two additional skills recommended by the interviewees will be added to future studies – time management, active listening skills. The conclusions reached emphasize the importance of real life applications during STEM classes and programs to better prepare future STEM employees for the workplace.

Keywords: STEM Graduates, Employment Skills, Aerospace and Defense Industry
Persons With Neuro Diversity: Nurturing An Untapped Innovative Workforce A Silicon Valley Case Study

Bethany K. Mickahail, University of Phoenix, USA
Kate Andrews, UOPX University, USA

ABSTRACT

Neuro diversity is a novel concept and has been challenging traditional ideas of what is normal to be a functional human being and who can make prized contributions to society (Babineau, 2009; Silverman, 2013). It inhabits a niche in the Autism Spectrum Disorder realm (ASD), known as Asperger’s Syndrome. As the business world learns to seek out and embrace invention, novelty and innovative goods and services, the value of persons who see and create “outside the usual lines,” (such as those with Asperser’s Syndrome), is celebrated. The most noted technology companies are successful because of their disruptive products, (iPhone, fit bit, Google glasses, iPad, Self driving/electric cars etc...) go beyond the users’ experience, expectations and imaginations.

This case study explores the managers’ perspectives on policies and strategies that influence the success of persons with ASD (or Neuro diversity) in the Silicon Valley workplace. A corporate perspective constructs a framework for understanding the skills that promote the success of persons with ASD in the Silicon Valley workplace. A single case study method is adopted involving purposive sampling strategy of persons with ASD in the Silicon Valley workplace and their company managers and mentors. The study’s findings may reveal a tentative framework for meeting real world demands and presents a model that will identify key factors in the success of persons with ASD in the Silicon Valley workplace and beyond. The model of key factors from the corporations with successful employment policies and strategies for persons with ASD will improve the alignment between the Silicon Valley companies’ requirements and recruitment and retention of highly creative, talented persons with ASD.

The forthcoming research may serve to fill the gap of Silicon Valley corporations’ perspective on policies and strategies that influence the success of persons with ASD in the workplace. This examination of unique Silicon Valley corporations’ policies and strategies will create practical models for enduring employment opportunities for workers with ASD.

Keywords: Asperger’s, Inclusion, Neuro Diversity, Disabilities
Critical Skills In Public Health Education: Preparing The Next Generation
Casey Mace, Central Washington University, USA
Tishra Beeson, Central Washington University, USA

ABSTRACT

Public health continues to grow as a profession and educational offering across the United States. The need to offer educational programs that meet the requirements of the public, employment agencies, and students is paramount. The aim of this study was to determine the most critical skills and educational needs in the current regional public health workforce. A survey was conducted in the summer of 2015 targeting professionals employed in the field of public health in the Pacific Northwest region. A convenience sample of (n=239) participants took part in an online survey. Individuals working in public health generally had a low rate of formal public health education, but continued education in public health was desired and reported as important by the majority of respondents. Verbal communication skills, written communication skills, teamwork, computing/technology skills, and public speaking were identified as the most critical skills required for success in the public health workplace. Specific content areas for additional training desired by current and future professionals included: environmental health, assessment, program evaluation, health policy, and health promotion.
Keynote Speaker Synopsis:
Business Sustainability
Education, Practice and Research
Zabihollah (Zabi) Rezaee, The University of Memphis, USA

Corporate sustainability is advancing from the greenwashing and branding to, very recently, business imperative as shareholders demand, regulators require, and companies report their sustainability performance. Sustainability has become economic and strategic imperative with potential to create opportunities and risks for businesses. A decade ago less than 50 companies released sustainability reports and now more than 14,000 global public companies disclose their financial economic sustainability performance (ESP), and nonfinancial environmental, social, and governance (ESG) and ethics sustainability performance information.

Primary objectives of this talk are:

1. Examine four themes of corporate sustainability including: the focus on stakeholder aspect, the main objective function of creating shared value for all stakeholders, multidimensional, and time horizons.
2. Discuss all five dimensions of sustainability performance including: economic, governance, social, ethical, and environmental (EGSEE) with a keen focus on economic sustainability performance.
3. Present key performance indicators (KPIs) of five all five EGSEE dimensions of sustainability performance.
5. Examine corporate sustainability risks including: strategic, operation, financial, compliance, and reputation and cybersecurity risks.
6. Address drivers, sources, and international guidelines (GRI, IIRC, SASB) in promoting corporate sustainability.
7. Present research opportunities in corporate sustainability performance, reporting and assurance.
8. Discuss the integration of sustainability education into the accounting and business curricula.
An Examination Of Time Varying Price Response Of Information Content Of Analysts’ Estimates Of Income

Anand, Indian Institute of Management Ranchi, India

ABSTRACT

This study examines the time varying price response to income estimates arriving through time. Using a sample of 947 quarterly EPS estimates from September 2006 to March 2011 for firms listed in the options segment of National Stock Exchange (NSE) of India, we find that income estimates arriving through different weeks before announcement of actual results do not have asymmetric price response upon their arrival. These results are contrary to arguments presented in prior literature where researchers tried to establish a time varying nature of informational value of income estimates with particular order. Combining these findings with findings on informational value of EPS estimates around the result event these results also indicates towards a general prevalence of weak form of market efficiency in developing markets which tend to change to semi-strong form of market efficiency around firm specific events.

Keywords: Analysts’ Earnings Estimates, Income Estimates, Time-Varying Informational Value, Information Content, NSE

INTRODUCTION

The informational value of firm specific and market wide scheduled contemporary information release have long been discussed and examined to understand their informational value and role in investment decisions. Studies in this field focus on two major areas, one, examination of informational value of firm specific income, and, two, examination of informational value of firm specific income estimates. These two sets of information and their informational values are expected to be interlinked. This is because, for income estimates to have any value, the income which these estimates are expected to predict, needs to be of value.

The stem of research which focuses on examination of value of income has empirically tested income release (result events) and concluded that income does have price sensitive information content. In their empirical study Ball and Brown (1968) examined information content of firm specific accounting income numbers upon their release by analyzing their impact on security prices. They concluded that these accounting income numbers have informational value which is over and above what could be deduced from historical association of firm specific income with the wider market income and impact of the firm specific policy decisions relevant to the reported period. It can be argued that the extent of this value would be dependent on the surprise that arrival of the income would bring which would be conditional upon the difference between the market expectation about the firm specific income and the actual income upon its arrival. As such this market expectation about the firm specific income is likely to depend on the availability of firm specific price sensitive information content. This implies that generation of and access to the firm specific price sensitive information content has an incentive as it is likely to aid informed investment decision.

Brokerage houses and fundamental analysts take the aforementioned opportunity in a well-organized way and generate firm specific information which is used in producing firm specific income estimates. These independent firm specific income estimates given by various analysts are expected to aid market’s firm specific income expectations to the extent of market perceived informational value of income estimates. Intuitively, if income estimates are expected to aid market expectations about income to such an extent that the surprise value of income announcement is reduced; the income information upon its release is likely to have comparatively less informational value.
This could also be thought as a shift of price sensitive content of income from income arrival event (result event) to income estimate arrival event (estimate event). Theoretically, if all the firm specific income could be estimated and incorporated into market expectations of firm specific income then there won’t be any informational value of income upon its arrival (result event), other than that of ratification of market expectations. Such an income arrival event (result event) sans informational value would therefore signal towards a high level of informational value of firm specific income estimates which is being incorporated into investment decisions.

Past researchers in this area have examined incorporation of firm specific income estimates (annual EPS estimates) into investment decisions. Any such incorporation is expected to show informational value of income estimates.

Ajinkya and Gift (1985) conducted an empirical study to check for informational value of income estimates (annual EPS estimates) as provided by analysts’ for firm specific earnings. They examined the informational value of coefficient of variation of firm specific annual EPS estimates provided by different analysts by analyzing its association with firm specific implied volatility. Analysts provide firm specific EPS estimates which are likely to aid expectations about firm’s forthcoming EPS. Therefore, analysts’ EPS estimates are likely to serve as an input to investment decision. To this end a higher (lower) coefficient of variation of firm specific EPS estimates would imply that there is a higher (lower) uncertainty in the market about the firm’s forthcoming EPS. If these EPS estimates have to have any informational value, the market’s higher (lower) level of uncertainty about firm specific forthcoming EPS is likely to result in a comparatively higher (lower) level of firm specific security returns volatility. As a result a relatively higher (lower) level of coefficient of variation of firm specific annual EPS estimates is expected to be reflected in a relatively higher (lower) level of firm specific volatility. Results of Ajinkya and Gift (1985) showed that coefficient of variation of analysts EPS estimates does have informational value as measured by volatility estimate (implied volatility).

Testing a subsidiary hypothesis Ajinkya and Gift (1985) argued that timing and microstructural issues should be some of the attributes which could bring value to the income estimates and therefore an asymmetric presence of these attributes in estimates arriving to the market may result in asymmetric value of the estimates. Results of Ajinkya and Gift, 1985 on this subsidiary hypothesis though did not lead to any conclusion on time varying nature of firm specific income value.

This role of time in determining the informational value of income estimates arriving through time is important. A time varying impact is likely to bring changes in the modeling approach which has so far been used to examine the informational value of income estimates. Those models would then require for incorporation of the role of time in determining the information value of the income estimates.

Objectives and Hypothesis

In the past literature, the time of arrival of income estimate has been discussed as one of the potential causes of asymmetric informational value of income estimates which arrive to the market at different points in time. Past research so far has not provided with a valid ground to either accept or to reject any possible existence of a time varying behavior of informational value of income estimates. Since existence of such time varying informational value would imply a revision in the existing approach to examine informational value of income estimates, the objective of this study is to study if information content of analysts’ estimates of quarterly income is subject to a time varying impact.

Hypothesis Formulation

Quarterly EPS estimates are expected to contain private information generated and held by analysts’. Ex-post result event, this information is expected to have no price sensitive information content as the actual earnings information would then be available for security valuation. The debate therefore is about its value before the result event.

Figure 1 presents a view of quarterly income estimate arrival though time which pertains to a particular quarterly result event. An income estimate arrival is depicted by the downward arrow touching the timeline at different point of time. Arrival of the firm specific quarterly result event (indicated by the upward arrow on the time line) marks the time limit
for arrival of income estimates after which they are likely to lose their relevance. The first arriving income estimate through time (relatively old aged/older/earlier estimate events relative to the result event) would therefore arrive in a world with low level of existing information. On the other hand the last arriving income estimate (relatively newer/recent estimate event relative to the result event) would arrive in a world with relatively higher level of existing information about the firm specific quarterly result event. The existing higher level of information about the firm specific quarterly result event is likely to be brought by all the income estimates which arrived prior to the last income estimate. Given this scheme of arrival of income estimates, there are two views on the possible time varying informational value of income estimates.

Firm specific estimates events by different analysts’

Figure 1: A depiction of quarterly EPS estimate event through time.

One view followed by Ajinkya and Gift (1985) is, that other things remaining constant, the relatively more aged the estimate, the relatively higher is the price response. The underlying expectation is that the most aged estimates would constitute the first set of arriving information which gets available to market whereas the subsequent information (quarterly EPS estimate) would contain the most aged information as well as any subsequent addition to it. Since the relatively more aged information would arrive in a world where information is likely to be relatively limited, it is likely to generate a relatively higher price response. On the other hand the relatively newer information would be coming in a world where the complementing and competing information is already available and therefore the relatively newer information is likely to have a relatively limited price response to the extent of existence of price sensitive content.

A competing view in this regard is that the firm specific trading interest is expected to gain significant momentum towards the result event in a developing market. This competing argument is based on existence of weak form of market efficiency found to be existent in developing markets except for firm specific events, when these markets are found to have semi-efficient form of market efficiency. This likely behavior of developing markets is similar to the observations by past researchers (Mishra, 2005) where they report existence of temporary semi-strong form of market efficiency around the firm specific events (bonus announcement). The likely firm specific event (result event) induced renewed trading interest and therefore is expected to instigate a search process for firm specific price sensitive information which is likely to examine and price information about the subsequent result event that were released in the past as well. In such markets where market microstructural issues hinder in informational efficiency of prices, information which arrives closer to result event are expected to affect a relatively higher price response. This is because, these markets are expected to have relatively low trading interests before firm specific event (Mishra, 2005),and therefore, they are expected to be slow in incorporating price sensitive information content of quarterly EPS estimates released much earlier to result event. The process of search of information and its urgency towards result event implies that the new estimates would be affecting a price response which is likely to incorporate and be representative of older estimates as well as any contemporaneous information that the new information (EPS estimate) may contain.
In light of the two competing arguments on the likely order of time varying informational value of income estimates, without imposing any predefined time varying informational value order, the following hypothesis is formulated to test the time varying price response of quarterly EPS estimates.

H₀: There is no time varying impact on informational value of quarterly EPS estimates which are being released at different points in time (relative to the actual income announcement).

Variables Construction and Sample Selection

This section presents the definition and the process of identification and construction of variables which are used as inputs to formulate the research methodology (presented later).

Event Window

Event window comprised of seven days surrounding the event day (-3 days to +3 days with day 0 as the event day). For this purpose of event window, event day is either an estimate event day or a result event day (described later).

Independent Variable: Coefficient of Variation of EPS Estimate (AESD)

Given the research objective to examine the time varying information content of EPS estimates of quarterly accounting income numbers by using coefficient of variations of EPS estimates (AESD) as the proxy of information contained in analysts’ estimates of EPS (as mentioned in hypothesis H₀), variable AESD is constructed and identified as the prime independent variable.

To construct AESD, firm specific EPS estimates (estimate date, identity of source of estimate) pertaining to quarterly results event are taken from Reuters Knowledge¹ database and each such EPS estimate arrival was identified as Estimate Event. The estimates which were considered in this study pertained to quarterly result events of companies traded on National Stock Exchange (India) which arrived between September 2006 and March 2011.

Firm specific, actual quarterly EPS (along with date) declared by firms over the sampled period were also gathered from Reuters Knowledge and each such actual EPS announcement (for the firm for the quarter) were identified as Result Event.

A total of 4549 estimate events were gathered over the period between September 2006 and March 2011 with a frequency pertaining to each result event as presented in Table 1.

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¹ Reuters Knowledge is a product of Reuters (Thomson Reuters post-merger) which is aimed at proving data pertaining to broker research, morning notes, real-time estimates, ownership information, company fundamental data, news, market data and events.
Table 1: Distribution of estimate events pertaining to result events over the sample period

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of estimate events per result event</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency</th>
<th>Percent change in cumulative frequency of estimate events</th>
<th>Number of result events</th>
<th>Cumulative numbers of result events</th>
<th>Percent change in cumulative frequency of result events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>107%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>125%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>111%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>111%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>494</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>1051</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>1301</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>596</td>
<td>1897</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>867</td>
<td>2764</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>626</td>
<td>86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1002</td>
<td>3766</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>501</td>
<td>1127</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>783</td>
<td>4549</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>783</td>
<td>1910</td>
<td>69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
<td>4549</td>
<td>1910</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: No. of estimate events per result event identify the class of result events based on numbers of estimate events estimating the outcome of the particular result event. Frequency presents the total number of estimate events estimating outcome of result event of the particular class of result event under the immediately left column. Cumulative frequency gives the cumulative frequency of the immediately left column. Percent change in cumulative frequency of estimate events presents the percent change in cumulative frequency row wise of data presented in the immediate left column. Number of result events gives the number of result events which belonged to the row wise classes as presented in the left most column. Cumulative numbers of result events gives cumulative row wise numbers of data presented in the immediate left column. Percent change in cumulative frequency of result events gives the percent change in cumulative frequency row wise of data presented in the immediate left column.

Table 1 gives the result events according to the numbers of estimate events pertaining to each estimate event. Based on this classification it gives the frequency distribution of number of estimate events pertaining to result event preceded by a specific number of estimate events. A maximum of 16 estimate events were observed which pertained to a firm specific quarterly result event. On the other hand a minimum of 1 estimate event was observed on 783 specific occasions of firm specific quarterly result events.

Since the prime variable is coefficient of variation of quarterly EPS estimates pertaining to a result event, at least 2 firm specific quarterly estimate events per result event are needed to calculate an AESD. Further, though calculable in the arithmetical sense, but a coefficient of variations arrived at using small number of observations is likely to suffer from a poor representation of population mean and the associated population standard deviation (smaller sample size is likely to result in a higher standard error of mean). Observing this limitation which could have affected the informational value of the constructed prime variable, an additional constrain on the minimum number of firm specific quarterly estimate event per result event was introduced to calculate an AESD. Based on the observation of a drastic change (from 60% to 36%) in percent change in cumulative frequency of estimate events below 6 estimate events or more, the analysis was truncated requiring a minimum of 6 firm specific quarterly estimate event per result events for calculating an EPS estimate to be considered for this study. After applying this minimum estimate event per result event criteria the total numbers of estimate events under consideration decreased to 1051. This final sample size of 1051 estimate events represented 138 estimate events.

The second criteria was based on removal of outlier EPS estimates (extreme values of EPS estimates which were suppressed by the Reuters Knowledge database itself) which decreased the total number of valid result event across firms and quarters to 124 while reducing the total numbers estimate events to 947.

Using these 947 estimate events pertaining to 124 result events, 124 coefficients of variation of quarterly EPS estimates (AESD) are calculated across firms and result events which constitutes the sampled prime independent variable.
Control Variable: Daily Closing of INDIAVIX Volatility Index (VIX)

The control variable included in the model is the daily closing of INDIAVIX volatility index available with National Stock Exchange (NSE) identified as VIX. The data was collected for the period across seven days event window (from -3 to 3 where 0 was the result event day) surrounding each result event under consideration. Reasons for selection of INDIAVIX (VIX) as the control variable are presented later in this chapter.

Dependent Variable: Close to Close Historical Standard Deviation of Daily Returns (CSD)

Historical firm specific daily closing returns are calculated using daily closing prices collected from Prowess database. These daily closing returns are used to calculate the historical standard deviation of daily returns based on past 250 days.

Estimation of Week Wise AESD For Each Firm and Quarter

To examine hypothesis H0, a week wise AESD (coefficient of variations of quarterly EPS estimates) is required pertaining to each firm’s result event. A minimum of 2 quarterly EPS estimates pertaining to a firm specific result event is required in any week to calculate AESD for that week. After putting this filtering condition on the earlier sample size of 947 EPS estimates, the final dataset comprised of 212 coefficient of variation of EPS estimate (week wise).

Table 2: Description of variables under consideration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable type</th>
<th>Variable name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prime independent variable</td>
<td>AESD</td>
<td>Coefficient of variation of Analysts’ estimate of Quarterly EPS of the firm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control variable</td>
<td>VIX</td>
<td>INDIAVIX index daily closing on National Stock Exchange (NSE).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close to close historical Standard Deviation (CSD)</td>
<td>250CSD</td>
<td>CSD estimated using daily returns (based on daily closing prices) for 250 days prior to the day of the event window</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Variable type details the variable type as Prime independent, control and dependent variable. Variable Name presents the identification name of the variable as presented in the model. Description gives a brief description of the variable under consideration given through rows.

Distribution of this final sample through weeks is presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Distribution of weekly AESD through weeks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bin (week before result event)</th>
<th>Frequency (weekly AESD across firms and quarters)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 Prowess database is a product of CMIE (Center for monitoring Indian economy) which maintains databases and provides data solutions on Indian economy and Indian companies.
Since there was a drastic change (reduction) in number of possible weekly AESD’s beyond week 4 prior to the result event (Table 3), the analysis is truncated to five time categories (four weekly categories of week 1 through week 4 before result event and fifth category of weeks before week 4, prior to the result event). The final distribution of weekly AESD’s (WAESD’s) under analysis is presented in Table 4. This weekly classification of estimate events is used to examine time varying impact on information content of AESD.

Table 4: Distribution of weekly AESD (WAESD) under analysis through weeks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bin (week before result event)</th>
<th>Frequency (WAESD across firms and quarters)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;4</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Bin (week before result event) implies the week counting backwardly from the result event. Frequency (WAESD across firms and quarters) implies number of WAESD calculated using week wise firm specific quarterly ESP estimates which are available for each week counting backwardly from the result event.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Hypothesis H0 is based on the expectation that the income estimates which are released closer to the result event are likely to have a different contribution towards volatility compared to the income estimate which had arrived farther in the past (Ajinkya and Gift, 1985). This essentially required test of the informational value of income estimates arriving through time. Following Ajinkya and Gift (1985) this study takes the coefficient of variation of EPS estimates as the independent variable which is expected to capture informational value of EPS estimates.

Developing this independent variable further, we estimate the coefficient of variation of quarterly EPS estimates for estimates arriving in a particular week before the result event and name it the Time weighted coefficient of variations of quarterly EPS estimates (TAESD). This measure essentially measures the coefficient of variation of analysts EPS estimates arriving at discrete time intervals.

To determine time varying weights as per aforementioned, a dummy variable regression is carried out by classifying estimate events according their arrival on a weekly basis. Dummy variables were created to examine for any asymmetric impact of information (estimate event) coming through time (classified on a weekly basis). The expectation is that if explanatory power of the prime independent variable has a time varying property (based on its time of arrival), the weekly dummies based on the week of arrival of EPS estimates (counting backwardly from the result event)is likely to be significant. In such an event, the weekly dummy coefficient would be used to weigh the estimate events as per their arrival during different weeks prior to the result event.

To do this formally, WAESD is calculated as week-wise (firm specific) coefficient of variation of analysts’ estimate of a firm’s quarterly earnings using estimate events arriving on a weekly (seven calendar days)basis counting backwardly from the result event day. More specifically, all estimate events about a firm’s forthcoming quarterly
earnings which arrived in the week immediately prior to the result event were used to calculate the WAESD for that firm for week 1. All estimate events about a firm’s forthcoming quarterly earnings which arrived in the week immediately prior to the week 1 were used to calculate the WAESD for that firm for week 2. Following this, all estimate events about a firm’s forthcoming quarterly earnings which arrived in the week immediately prior to week \( w-1 \) were used to calculate the WAESD for that firm for week \( w \). To study the time varying property of estimate event, dummy variables are introduced to examine whether there is any significant difference in the information content of estimate events arriving during different weeks before the result event. In this examination, a significant dummy variable is expected to imply that exist an asymmetric impact of estimate events on the prime dependent variable, which arrive at different points in time prior to the result event. In such case that week’s dummy variable coefficient would be used to weigh estimate events arriving during that particular week for which dummy variable is found to be significant.

Formally the week wise WAESD is determined using the following regression,

\[
250CSD_t^i = \alpha + \beta_1 \text{WAESD}_t^i + d_2 D_{2t}^i + d_3 D_{3t}^i + \cdots + d_{w-1} D_{w-1t}^i + \beta_2 VIX_k + \epsilon_t^i \tag{1}
\]

where,

\( w \) = number of weeks in a financial quarter  
\( q \) = number of financial quarters under consideration  
\( t \) = index of financial quarters; \( t = 1, 2, \ldots, q. \)  
\( n \) = number of firms  
\( i \) = index of firms; \( i = 1, 2, \ldots, n. \)  
\( D_{it}^i \) = 1 if estimate event arrives in week 1, \( D_{2t}^i = 1 \) if estimate event arrives in week 2, \( D_{3t}^i = 1 \) if estimate event arrives in week 3,\ldots \( D_{wt}^i = 1 \) if estimate event arrives in week \( w \), \( D_{it}^i = D_{2t}^i = D_{3t}^i = \ldots = D_{w-1t}^i = 0 \) if estimate event arrives in week \( w \).

\( \text{WAESD}_t^i \) = Week wise coefficient of variation of Analyst Earnings Estimate for firm \( i \) in the financial quarter \( t \).  
\( VIX_k \) = India VIX index volatility measure to approximate for the market wide expected volatility.

If coefficients of dummy variables estimated through equation (1) for different weeks were significant then it would imply that models examining informational value of income estimates should be weighted to find a better model fit.

DATA

The data for this study has been collected from the following sources;  
1. Centre for monitoring Indian economy (CMIE) Prowess database service  
2. Reuters Knowledge a Thomson Reuters databases service, and  

Sample is collected on the following variables with mentioned specifications.

Analysts’ Estimates of Quarterly EPS (estimate event)

Analysts’ estimate of quarterly EPS (estimate event) was considered for companies which were listed in the options segment of NSE. Out of these estimates, only those which pertained to result events for quarters between September, 2006 and March, 2011 and which belonged to companies in the options segment of NSE during the said period, were collected for analysis. Information on following parameters was collected from Reuters Knowledge database for each analyst’s estimate of quarterly EPS which were considered for the study:

- Quarterly EPS estimate in Rupees (Indian Rupees)
Date of announcement of EPS estimate

Quarterly EPS (result event)

Data on quarterly EPS (result event) which related to the sampled estimate events were collected from Reuters Knowledge database. Following information was collected on each of the day of the result event window which related to each result event under this study:

- Date of quarterly EPS announcement
- Quarterly EPS in Rupees (Indian Rupees)

VIX (INDIAVIX)

VIX (INDIAVIX) is a volatility index constructed and maintained by NSE. Daily closing of this index was obtained for each day in the result event window from the NSE database for all result events under consideration.

Historical Prices

Adjusted daily open, close, high and low prices were collected from Prowess database pertaining to each day in the result event window from prowess database. The adjusted daily close prices were also collected from the same source for the estimate event day and for days preceding and following the estimate event day under consideration.

Results and Analyses: Time Varying Price Response Of Quarterly EPS Estimates

To examine Hypothesis $H_0$, a dummy variable regression is run with four dummy variables (D1, D2, D3, and D4 representing five categories of WAESD as presented in Table 4) following regression equation (1). A significant coefficient for any of the weekly dummy variables would signify informational value of EPS estimates arriving in that particular week to which the weekly WAESD belonged. If the significant coefficients for the weekly dummy variable/s are significantly different from each other, this would imply that the EPS estimates for the week which constructed WAESD have time varying informational value. Such a result would therefore warrant a time weighing scheme for estimating informational value of income estimates arriving through time.

Table 5 presents results for equation (1) for all days in the event window (-3, -2, ..., 0, 1, ..., 3) in the sample. Following are the significant points to note in results presented in Table 5:

- The results across the seven day event window show that none of the dummy variables (D1 to D4) are significant.
- Ex-ante result event, coefficients of WAESD are positive and significant for one day of the result event window whereas it is positive and significant for two days of the result event window ex-post quarterly result event.
- VIX is insignificant across the result event window.

It implies that there is no statistical evidence of any significant time varying impact of WAESD on the prime dependent variable 250CSD during the event window when we classify estimates event on the basis of their weekly arrival.
Table 5: Results of regression (1) for all days in the event window

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Intercept</th>
<th>WAESD</th>
<th>D1</th>
<th>D2</th>
<th>D3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-3</td>
<td>250CSD</td>
<td>0.01888</td>
<td>(8.79E-14)</td>
<td>0.005242</td>
<td>(0.159407)</td>
<td>-0.00114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-2</td>
<td>250CSD</td>
<td>0.02042</td>
<td>(8.48E-16)</td>
<td>0.006857</td>
<td>(0.071302)</td>
<td>-0.00071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-1</td>
<td>250CSD</td>
<td>0.02089</td>
<td>(3.99E-17)</td>
<td>0.007645</td>
<td>(0.043786)</td>
<td>-0.00188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>250CSD</td>
<td>0.02061</td>
<td>(1.07E-16)</td>
<td>0.007155</td>
<td>(0.057104)</td>
<td>-0.00153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>250CSD</td>
<td>0.02010</td>
<td>(3.72E-16)</td>
<td>0.007122</td>
<td>(0.057104)</td>
<td>-0.00222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>250CSD</td>
<td>0.02002</td>
<td>(1.79E-16)</td>
<td>0.008163</td>
<td>(0.028502)</td>
<td>-0.00206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>250CSD</td>
<td>0.02074</td>
<td>(1.21E-17)</td>
<td>0.008402</td>
<td>(0.025888)</td>
<td>-0.00227</td>
</tr>
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</table>

(Table 5 continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Day</th>
<th>D4</th>
<th>VIX</th>
<th>R square</th>
<th>Adj. R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of Est.</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>N</th>
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<tr>
<td>-3</td>
<td>0.00208</td>
<td>(0.430918)</td>
<td>0.00045</td>
<td>(5.21E-14)</td>
<td>0.2627</td>
<td>0.2411</td>
<td>0.009176</td>
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<tr>
<td>-2</td>
<td>0.002458</td>
<td>(0.360833)</td>
<td>0.00039</td>
<td>(3.12E-12)</td>
<td>0.233148</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0.002153</td>
<td>(0.421927)</td>
<td>0.0004</td>
<td>(1.13E-12)</td>
<td>0.24021</td>
<td>0.217972</td>
<td>0.009311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
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<td>(0.237086)</td>
<td>0.00039</td>
<td>(5.66E-13)</td>
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<td>0.222722</td>
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<tr>
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<td>(0.185719)</td>
<td>0.00041</td>
<td>(8.61E-14)</td>
<td>0.258281</td>
<td>0.236573</td>
<td>0.009201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.0032</td>
<td>(0.22136)</td>
<td>0.00042</td>
<td>(1.06E-14)</td>
<td>0.27292</td>
<td>0.25164</td>
<td>0.009133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.003419</td>
<td>(0.196101)</td>
<td>0.00039</td>
<td>(3.83E-14)</td>
<td>0.26385</td>
<td>0.242304</td>
<td>0.009236</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Figures in parenthesis are P values of parameters in the cell. Day implies number of days from the result event day where 0 indicates the result event day (-1 indicated the day immediately preceding the result event day, +1 indicates the day immediately succeeding the result event day, and so on). Dependent variable 250CSD is as presented in regression equation (1) which is being considered as the prime dependent variable for this study. Intercept is standardized coefficient for constant term in the regression equation. WAESD is standardized coefficient for coefficient of variation of analysts’ estimate of quarterly EPS on a week wise basis (WAESD), the prime independent variable, for regression (1). D1, D2, D3 and D4 are dummy variables for WAESD which were estimated using firm specific quarterly EPS estimates which arrived within seven days (D1), between 8 to 14 days (D2), between 15 to 21 days (D3), between 22 to 28 days (D4) immediately preceding result event day. VIX is standardized coefficient for INDIA VIX daily closing parameter in the regression equation. R Square, Adjusted R Square, Std. Error of Est. (standard error of estimate) and F (F-statistic) are for regression model (1). N is the sample size for each results of regression equation (1).

This result is at variance from conclusion of Ajankya and Gift (1985) who examined for existence of a time varying information content in the analysts’ estimate annual of EPS for companies in the United States. Although they concluded that there exists time varying information content in the analysts’ estimate of annual EPS their results lacked statistical examination and validity. Though results presented in Table 5 are contrary to Ajinkya and Gift (1985) conclusions but provide statistical confirmation of its findings.

A possible explanation for nonexistence of time varying price response to estimate event could be found in the prevailing weak form of market efficiency in developing markets. This form of market efficiency implies that the firm specific information (information contained in EPS estimates arriving through time) which is publically available in the market would not get reflected into prices (weekly efficient prices). As these markets are found to acquire semi-strong form of market efficiency around firm specific events (Mishra, 2005), the information contained in EPS estimate tend to get incorporated into prices around result events irrespective of their time of arrival.

CONCLUSION
Researchers in the past have also examined the time varying informational value of EPS estimates. Ajinkya and Gift (1985) attempted to show existence of a time varying informational value of EPS estimates but could not provide a statistically significant result to support their surmise. This study examined price response to quarterly EPS estimates arriving through time on a week wise basis and found that there is no asymmetric price response to quarterly EPS estimates arriving in different weeks. This implied that there is no need to do a time weighting of EPS estimates arriving through time. As explained earlier, this also indicates towards a general prevalence of weak form of market efficiency in developing markets. Combining these findings with findings of Anand (2012) where results showed presence of informational value of EPS estimates just before the result event, results here also indicates towards a general prevalence of weak form of market efficiency in developing markets which tend to change to semi-strong form of market efficiency around firm specific events (Mishra, 2005).

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Teaching Technological Engineering Topics: Multiplication Bending Moment Factor For AASHTO Live Loads Adopted In Jordan
Samih Qaqish, The University of Jordan, Jordan

ABSTRACT

The live load in the American Association of state Highway and Transportation officials (AASHTO) is used in the design of bridges in Jordan. AASHTO LFD live loads is multiplied by 1.8 and used in Jordan to encounter the unexpected heavy live loads running on these bridges. The new code AASHTO LRFD for live loads is also used in the design of bridges.

A Comparison between the bending moment obtained by 1.8 LFD live loads and LRFD live loads was carried out to determine the coefficient which should the LRFD live loads be multiplied to give the same moment as 1.8 LFD live loads produced.

A Comparison of 1.8 AASHTO LFD and AASHTO LRFD live loads for the bending moment of simply supported 30m bridge span with one lane in each direction showed that the LRFD HL-93 loadings should be multiplied by 1.35 to have the same moment as 1.8 multiplied by HS20-44 in LFD.

Keywords: AASHTO Specification, AASHTO LRFD, AASHTO LFD, Loadings.

1- INTRODUCTION

AASHTO LFD (1) live loads are used in Jordan, most of the Arab Countries and USA.

In Jordan the AASHTO LFD live load is increased to encounter the unexpected live loads. This increase is a multiplication factor of 1.8 to the live loads of AASHTO LFD.

AASHTO LRFD (2) is the recent Code in designing bridges.

Ministry of Public Works and Housing, and Ministry of Transportation (3, 4) studied the axle weight in Jordan.

Al foqaha'a (5) studied the loading adopted for bridge design in Jordan in 1994.

Qaqish (6) presented load capacity evaluation of T – Beam bridges.

Qaqish (7) presented stress distribution at the corners of skew bridges.

Qaqish (8) illustrated a Comparison between one dimensional and three dimensional models of one span box Girder Bridge.

Qaqish (9) illustrated a Comparison between one dimensional and three dimensional models of two continuous spans of box, Girder Bridge.

Qaqish (10) illustrated the finite element analysis of two continuous skew spans of box Girder Bridge and the reaction distribution at the edges with 49 degrees skew angle.
Campisi (11) illustrated the review of load rating highway bridges in accordance with load and resistance factor rating method.

Deng (12) studied the numerical simulations to study the dynamic IFs of both simply supported and continuous bridges due to vehicle loading.

Deng (13) studied the impact factors for different bridge responses, including deflection, bending moment and shear. The results showed that the impact factors due to vehicle braking could be notably larger than those due to the vehicles moving at constant speeds and could exceed the impact factor specified in the AASHTO bridge design code.

Leahy (14) examined the HL – 93 current bridge traffic load model in the United States.

Li (15) studied a three-dimensional nonlinear dynamic analysis framework for RC bridges based on the force analogy method (FAM).

2- LIVE LOADS

The live loads of the AASHTO specifications (LFD) consist of standards trucks or lane loads as shown in Fig (1). While the live loads of the AASHTO specifications (2) LRFD is HL-93 which consists of truck loading and distributed load of 9.3 KN/m as shown in Fig (2). The impact factor for LFD is calculated from:

\[ I.F. = \frac{50}{L + 125} \]

L span of bridge in feet.

While the Dynamic load allowance is considered 33% for LRFD.

Fig (1): Truck HS20-44 and Equivalent Lane loading HS20-44
3- STRUCTURAL IDEALIZATION

Fig. (3) shows plan of bridge, section A-A, and section B-B. The span of the bridges is 30m with two lanes, one lane in each direction. Box Type Bridge is considered with 7.8 m total width and 2.2 m total depth.
1) Moment due to HS20-44

Maximum positive moment.

Fig.(4) shows the location of HS 20-44 for maximum moment located at point C.

\[ \sum MB = 0.0 \]

\[ R_A \times 30 = 35.7 \times 19.978 + 142.7 \times 142.7 \times 11.445 \]

\[ R_A = (713.22 + 2241.817 + 1633.2) / 30 \]

\[ R_A = 152.94 KN \]

\[ R_B = 168.16 KN \]

Max. moment at C

\[ M_C = 152.94 \times 14.29 - 35.7 \times 4.268 \]

\[ = 2185.5 - 152.4 = 2033.1 KN.m \]

Impact Factor \[ \frac{50}{L + 125} \]

\[ = \frac{50}{3.28 \times 30 + 125} \]

\[ = 22.4\% \]
Total live load bending moment =

\[ 2 \times 2033.1 \times 1.224 = 4977.029 \text{ kN.m} \]

2) Equivalent Uniform load (HS 20-44)

Fig. (5) shows the maximum moment due to equivalent uniform loadings of HS 20-44.

\[ \text{Bending moment at C} = \frac{WL^2}{8} + \frac{PL}{4} \]

\[ = \frac{9.37 \times 30^2}{8} + \frac{80.345 \times 30}{4} \]

\[ = 1054.125 + 602.59 \]

\[ = 165.7125 \]

Total live equivalent bending moment =

\[ 2 \times 1656.7125 \times 1.224 = \]

\[ = 4055.63 \text{ KN.m} \]

3) So the bending moment due to the Truck Loading HS 20-44 governs and it's value 4977.029 KN.m.

LRFD

1) Bending moment due to truck loading
Fig. (6) shows the location of HL - 93 Truck loading to give maximum moment at point O.

**Fig. 6 Truck HL - 93 Location for Max. Moment**

\[
R_A \times 30 = 35 \times 20.01 + 145 \times 15.71 + 145 \times 11.41
\]

\[
= 700.35 + 2277.95 + 1654.45
\]

\[
R_A = 154.425 K
\]

Moment at O = 154.425 x 14.29 - 35 x 4.3

\[
= 2206.73 - 150.5
\]

\[
= 2056.23 \text{ KN.m.}
\]

2) Bending moment due to distributed load

Fig. (7) shows the maximum moment due to uniform loading of HL - 93 loading.

**Fig. 7:**

Moment due to
Additional Uniform Loading of HL-93

Bending moment at O = 1043.67 KN. m.

3) Total live bending moment =

\[(2056.23 + 1043.67) \times 2 \times 1.33\]

\[= 8245.734 \text{ KN. m.}\]

Where 33% is the impact factor and it is calculated for two lanes.

**Dead Load**

1) **Bending moment due to own weight of bridge.**

Own weight of bridge =

\[7.8 \times 0.2 \times 25 + 0.6 \times 0.3 \times 2 \times 25 + 2.24 \times 0.3 \times 25 \times 2 + 3.2 \times 0.2 \times 25 = 97.6 \text{ KN/m}\]

Own weight of wearing surface =

\[3.6 \times 2 \times 0.05 \times 21 = 7.56 \text{ KN. m.}\]

Total Bending moment due to Dead load + Live load

1) **LFD**

B. M. due to own weight of bridge

\[\frac{97.6 \times 30^2}{8} = 10980 \text{ KN.m}\]

B.M. due to wearing surface

\[\frac{7.56 \times 30^2}{8} = 850.5 \text{ KN.m}\]

The truck loading is multiplied by 1.8 to encounter the unexpected traffic loading:

Total B.M. = 1.3 (Moment D.L. + Moment L.L. x 1.67)

\[= 1.3 \times (11830.5 + 1.67 \times 4977.029)\]

\[= 34828.89 \text{ KN. m.}\]

2) **LRFD**

Total B. M. = 1.25 x M. D. L. + 1.5 x M W.S. + 1.35 x M L.L.
\[= 1.25 \times 10980 + 1.5 \times 850.5 + 1.35 \times 8245.734\]
\[= 13725 + 1275.75 + 11131.74\]
\[= 26132.49 \text{ KN. m.}\]

So the factor to make the bending moment due to LFD equal to LRFD is:

\[
\text{Factor Equal} = \frac{34828.89}{26132.49} = 1.33
\]

So the live loads for LRFD should be multiplied by 1.33 to make the bending moment due to 1.8 HS 20-44 equal to the moment due to LRFD loadings.

**B) Finite element analysis was carried out for the bridge using Csibridge software(16) and the results are:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total B. M. (LFD)</th>
<th>36332 KN. m.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total B. M. (LRFD)</td>
<td>27995 KN. m.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
\text{Factor} = \frac{36332}{27995} = 1.3
\]

So it can be noticed that the factor from the structural calculations and the Csibridge is almost identical and it is recommended to use 1.35 as a factor.

**4. CONCLUSION**

The live loads for LRFD designated as HL - 93 which consist of design truck or design tandem and design lane load should be multiplied by 1.35 to encounter the unexpected traffic loading in Jordan and to be equivalent to 1.8 HS 20-44 LFD which is adopted in design bridges in Jordan to get the same bending moment for LFD and LRFD.

**5. ACKNOWLEDGMENT**

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The Effectiveness Of Using Group Story Mapping To Improve Reading Comprehension Of Students With Learning Disabilities
Nada Alturki, Southern Illinois University Edwardsville, USA

ABSTRACT
This research worked on providing that the graphic and semantic organizers have a positive effect on reading comprehension for the student with a learning disability. The researcher decided to focus on a specific graphic and semantic organizer in this study which was the Group Story Mapping strategy. This strategy demanded each student with learning disability in reading comprehension to identify story characters, setting, problem solution, and resolution of a story. It can also help any student to visualize the connection between the ideas, and the teacher can get the advantage of story map strategy to demonstrate the strengths and weaknesses of his or her students’ reading comprehension. Four students from a sixth-grade class were selected to participate in this study depending on their pretest score. Two students who were male and female received instruction on how to use the graphic organizer and completed one each day after their independent reading session for three weeks. Two students who were male and female served as the control group received no instruction and was not required to complete the graphic organizer.
Vietnam’s Vision Of Growth In The Aeronautical Industry

Ricardo A. Carreras, Embry-Riddle Aeronautical University, USA
Cindy Greenman, Embry-Riddle Aeronautical University, USA

ABSTRACT

The region of South East Asia has developed over the past several years as one of the most rapidly growing aviation markets in the world. Despite the latest economic recession around the world, South East Asia is still reaching substantial growth. With the amount of flexible income increasing for the most inhabitants of the region, the aviation trade can expect to continue this movement. Singapore has been the dominant hub in the region for many years, however, Vietnam is contemplating the practicality of investing in a new airport that they hope would eventually challenge Singapore’s current superiority.

Keywords: Vietnam, Aviation, Aeronautical, Aerospace

INTRODUCTION

In 2006, the then Prime Minister of Vietnam, Mr. Phan Văn Khải, revealed the the construction of a new international airport for Ho Chi Minh City had been approved. The current airport, Tân Sơn Nhất International Airport (SGN), built in the 1930s, is to become the domestic terminal while, the newly announced airport, Long Thanh International Airport, will become Ho Chi Minh City’s only international airport terminal, and also a hub passenger/cargo airport for Vietnam and, if all goes as planned, for all of the southeast Asian region. The original purpose was also targeted at making Long Thanh International Airport, the top airport hub for the entire region sometime during the second half of the 2030s. That is, an airport predicted to compete, or ideally replace the current regional hub status of Changi International Airport in Singapore (SIN), or the secondary hub status of Bangkok International Suvarnabhumi Airport (BKK) in Thailand and Hong Kong International Airport (HKG) in China’s SAR (Thanhnien News, 2015).

Upon discovering this ambitious plan, this paper has been cultivated with the intention of researching the aeronautical viability of Vietnam’s original objective in approving building Long Thanh International Airport. The airport was expected to be constructed in three separate phases over the span of 34 years. This paper examines the socio-economic dynamics of this mammoth undertaking. Particularly, in debating and evaluating the claimed intention and true practicality for this new airport to eventually be on a competitive level with the Singapore Changi International Airport (Greenman & Carreras, 2016).

Vietnam is a member of the following two regional organizations:

1. The Association of South East Asian Nations, ASEAN, where all 10 southeastern Asian countries belong with the pursuing objective (among other specified aims, purposes and fundamental principles) of accelerating economic growth and social progress of member states through the expansion of trade, transportation and communications facilities, within a frame of close and beneficial international and regional cooperation. (ASEAN, 2015)

2. The Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation, APEC, where 21 selected member nations located on each side of the Pacific Ocean, established in order to leverage a sustainable and integrated economic growth for the peoples of the region, by collaborating effectively in the greater use of the primary economic activities, and by expanding trade, improving transportation and communications facilities in order to raise the standards of living of peoples of member countries. It also promotes investment in goods and services across borders
through the facilitation of trade and the alignment of regulations and standards across the region. (APEC, 2015).

As a participant in these two regional memberships, this research paper focuses on an analysis of the aeronautical industries of Vietnam. This study is framed on the premise that while Singapore developmental goals are aimed at maintaining its regional advantage in airport/airline socio-economics, Vietnam is considering the viability of investing in a new airport that will eventually challenge Singapore’s current supremacy (Greenman & Carreras, 2016).

VIETNAM FRAMED

The Socialist Republic of Vietnam is a constitutional communist country stretching over 1,600 km along the eastern coast of the Indochina Peninsula in Southeast Asia. It is 331,210 sq. km in size, a population of over 93 million and a population density of 280 inhabitants per sq. km. The country was under Chinese 200 BC to AD 938. It was a feudal independent dynastic country from 938 to 1858. The French ruled it on-and-off from 1858 to 1954 when the country was divided into a Communist North Vietnam and a market-oriented (capitalist) US-supported South Vietnam. Eventually, with the departure of the American forces from South Vietnam in 1975, the country was unified into its present geographic and socio-political structure. The political capital of the country is Hanoi; the former capital of North Vietnam; however, the economic engine of the country Ho Chi Minh City, the former Saigon and capital city of South Vietnam. Other major cities are Haiphong (north), Can Tho (south), and Da Nang (Central Vietnam).

Political System

Even though as per the Constitution of 1992 it endows all Vietnamese with equal rights in all political, economic, social and cultural areas inclusive of religious choice, family affairs, and freedom of movement and residence, the country still has a monolithic political system where the Communist Party of Viet Nam establishes itself as the vanguard of all Vietnamese and of the whole nation. Yet, as from 1986, Vietnam has undergone a process of economic renovation by substituting the highly subsidized centrally-planned economic system with a socialist-oriented market economy (social capitalism) aimed at the industrialization, modernization, diversification of a multilateral development emphasized with economic external relations with an open-door, world integration policy (Embassy, 2015).

State of the Economy

By 2009 Vietnam achieved economic growth of 5.93% exceeding its own national goals and for that year considered among the fastest growing economies in the world (Focus Economics, 2014). At an expected growth rate of 6.03% for 2015, Vietnam continues to show consistent growth rates in all sectors of the economy, inclusive of agriculture, forestry, fisheries, industry, construction, and services (Nguyen, 2015). Also, since the implementation of the open-door economic policy, Vietnam has signed numerous trade and economic agreements with the EU (1992), APEC membership (1998), ASEAN free trade agreement (2001), sealing a US-Vietnam bilateral trade pact (2001), and joining the WTO as its 150th member in 2007.

As a developing country, during the last decade Vietnam has been rising as a leading agricultural exporter and an alluring foreign investment destination. Vietnam’s main agricultural exports are rice, high quality coffee and tea, black pepper, cashews, rubber, and fisheries; however, the manufacturing sector (furniture, garments and footwear), as well as information technology and high-tech industries (crude oil, telephones, electronics, and computers) continue to have an accelerated part in the growth of Vietnam’s economy. The main destination markets of Vietnamese products are Japan, USA, China, Germany, South Korea, Malaysia, UAE, UK, and Thailand. On the other hand, Vietnam’s main imports are machinery, transportation equipment, chemicals, fuel, livestock, and manufactured goods such as medicaments, cotton, and specialized machinery. The main imports are brought from China, South Korea, Japan, India, Singapore, Thailand, Malaysia, and USA.
Gross Domestic Product

For more than a decade GDP has consistently increased in a yearly basis, even though from 2002 onward, there were substantial decreases in GDP growth rates as from 2008. In 2007 the GDP growth rate was 8.46%, dipping to 6.18 % in 2008 and down to 5.93% in 2009. The growth rate touched bottom in 2012 at 5.01%, and began climbing up as from 2013 (Focus Economics, 2014). The 2015 expected growth rate is 6.03%. Nonetheless, the per capita GDP has been growing notably every single year for the past fifteen years; even during the period of world recession from 2008 to 2011. In 2002 the per capita GDP was US$586.09 and consistently growing to a 2014 per capita GDP of US$1,028.62. The overall GDP in 2013 was of US$171.4 billion, and the 2014 growth projection of 5.4% is expected to bring it up for that year to US$180.65 billion, with continued projections of around US$194 billion (2015), US$450 billion (2020), and US$775 billion (2050).

ECONOMIC IMPACT OF THE AVIATION INDUSTRY IN VIETNAM

According to CAPA - Centre of Aviation (2015), the world’s leading provider of independent aviation market intelligence, Vietnam’s aviation market is considered to be undergoing extremely dynamic growth with high-potential for continued progression. Even as Vietnam continues to face declining terms of trade for its agricultural products, and high levels of protection against manufacturers, as many other developing countries, Vietnam has turned to tourism and education as possible alternative sources of growth. Many of the resources of Vietnam have been devoted to the provision of airports, local transport infrastructure and hotels, all of these mostly aimed at attracting the international tourism market.

Tourism

The ASEAN Open Skies policy came into effect on January 1, 2015 intended to increase regional and domestic aviation connectivity among its ten member nations. The main purpose is to integrate production networks and enhance regional trade and tourism by allowing the airlines of these ten countries to fly freely throughout the region via the liberalization of air services under a single, unified air transport market. The aviation industry in Southeast Asia has seen strong growth due to the popularity of budget carriers in the region, as well as to the continued growth of an educated middle class with an increasing appetite for travel at affordable prices that have been kept down due to the ongoing low oil prices keeping rising costs at bay. For countries such as Vietnam, the Journal of Development Studies points out that tourism has become a major economic activity contributing at least as much foreign currency than traditional primary commodity exports such as agriculture, livestock, fisheries, forestry, and mining. In essence, travel and tourism are activities that enormously impact the economic and social development of a country; opening it up for business, trade and capital investment, creating jobs and a more entrepreneurial-minded workforce while, at the same time, valuing heritage and cultural worth.

Employment

In essence, the Air Transport Action Group (ATAG, 2015) recognizes how the aviation industry is a vital contributor to sustainable economic development. It does this by facilitating tourism and trade, by generating economic growth, by creating and providing jobs, by increasing revenues from taxes, and by fostering the conservation of protected areas. In Vietnam there are scarce labor related statistics directly associated to the aviation industry, however, there is a clear awareness by researchers at the University of Economics in Ho Chi Minh City, that there have been direct impacts in employment expansion in airline and airport operations, aircraft maintenance, air traffic control and regulation, and in all activities serving air passengers such as check-in, baggage handling, on-site retail and catering activities. Additionally, there have been indirect labor benefits of jobs linked to aviation fuel suppliers, construction companies, shuttle and taxi services, IT services, accountancy services, etc.

Socio-Economic Contributions

The International Air Transport Association (IATA, 2007) forecasters estimate that Vietnam’s aviation market to be the world’s 7th fastest-growing; with growth picking up in 2013 and expected to continue unabated up to 2017 and beyond. Vietnam has seen annual growth rates of nearly 7% for international passengers, and over 6.5% in
freight. According to the general director of IATA, Vietnam is not only a dynamic and rapidly growing aviation market, but that the continued successful development of its aviation industry will eventually pay big dividends to the Vietnamese economy beyond the 2014 contribution of US$6 billion to the GDP of the country while supporting close to 250,000 Vietnamese jobs. By 2014, Vietnam’s passenger traffic had grown over 96% since 2008 (CAA V, 2015).

Nonetheless, the continued growth challenges for Vietnam in the air transport sector are to concentrate improvement strategies in three main areas: airport infrastructure, passenger experience, and cargo shipment and delivery. To improve the current low ranking of Vietnam in IATA’s Infrastructure Index, the government is investing in expansion programs at the Hanoi, Da Nang, and Ho Chi Minh City airports, with the vision of a brand new international airport expected to be ready by 2025 just 50 km south of Ho Chi Minh City. Additionally, the central government in Hanoi is considering some degree of airport privatization in Vietnam so as to ensure access to direct capital investment and management.

Regarding enhanced passenger experience, Vietnam is in the process of improving viability of domestic and international routes and to reap further benefits from enhanced connectivity and increased traffic. Furthermore, there are suggestions to implement a Fast Travel Program that will not only ease present cumbersome visa requirements for international passengers, but by also implementing all six Fast Travel initiatives covering check-in, self-tagging of baggage, document checks, flight rebooking, self-boarding, and bag recovery.

Finally, freight services may also see improvement with the implementation of e-freight through the adoption of e-Air Waybill (e-AWB) which will bring about greater efficiencies with the use of electronic document of carriage, and paving the way for freight forwarders to increase cargo volumes at lowered costs of air transport. Currently, cargo movement in Vietnam represents 25 percent of overall trade by value, or around US$30 billion (Tuoi Tre News, 2014).

AIRLINES SERVICING VIETNAM

The Civil Aviation Administration of Vietnam (CAA V, 20015) is the aviation authority under the Ministry of Transportation of Vietnam, handling and regulating civil aviation matters throughout the country by managing airports and regulating airliners flying Vietnamese skies. Not long ago, flying in Vietnam was constrained mostly to two available options, boarding Vietnam Airlines, the state-owned flag carrier, or the budget airline it mostly owns, Jetstar Pacific. Nonetheless, as new private Vietnamese airlines have entered the air transport market, more international airlines are choosing to fly into/from Vietnam, and with the introduction of the Single Aviation Market (SAM) for the 10 member nations of ASEAN, Vietnamese aviation authorities are finding new challenges in properly managing and regulating the growing number of airless servicing the country.

Domestic Carriers

Currently, there are four major Vietnamese airlines servicing domestic and international cargo and passenger routes for Vietnam. These four airlines are the following:

Vietnam Air Services Company (VASCO)

Headquartered in Ho Chi Minh City since 1987 and now independent of its original parent company Vietnam Airlines, VASCO operates scheduled passenger transportation mostly throughout Vietnam’s southern provinces. Also, aside of transportation of passengers on domestic routes, VASCO is available for providing domestic and international cargo transportation routes upon request, as well as charter domestic and international air service on request by airplane or helicopter. Additionally, VASCO flights are made available for scientific research, aerial photography, geological surveys, search & rescue missions, oil industry, environmental survey, calibration for air navigation equipment, power line development, etc.
Jetstar Pacific Airlines

With its hub in Ho Chi Minh City form where it operates since 1991, along with chartered flights, scheduled domestic and international services. The airline was originally operated under the government-owned Vietnam Airlines Corp., but in 2007 sold a 30% minority stake to the private Qantas Airlines Company of Australia. As a low carrier air service provider Jetstar Pacific only operates domestic routes inside Vietnam; however, it has plans to eventually establish international routes to Cambodia and Thailand. Jetstar Pacific has embarked on a fleet modernization plan since 2009.

VietJet Air

With hub in both Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City, and a focus interest in the central city of Da Nang, VietJet Air is a private low-cost airline established in 2007 but actually launched until December 2011 due to the four-year long global economic slowdown; however, as of 2014, the carrier has serviced over 10 million passengers in 13 domestic routes and 6 international destinations. In 2013 VietJet became the first private Vietnamese airline to enter the international market with direct flight to Bangkok. The airline’s mission is to “meet the increasing travel demands of domestic and international travelers by providing punctual flights and a high quality of service, helping to lead the Vietnam aviation industry into a new era.”

Vietnam Airlines (VN)

Headquartered in Hanoi, VN was established in 1956, but becoming a state-owned enterprise until 1989. At its inception VN was a minor carrier within the aviation industry because it was severely hampered by detrimental socio-economic and political factors affecting Vietnam. These factors positively changes after the normalization of diplomatic relations with the US late in 1995. Currently, VN has a growing fleet size of close to 100 carriers servicing 3 seasonal destinations, 21 domestic destinations and 28 international destinations. Currently, VN has continued diversification of its investments in the aircraft-leasing and airport ground-servicing industries, and is evaluating the viability of manufacturing aircraft components. Additionally, VN operates Vietnam’s biggest air cargo division through its subsidiary Vietnam Airlines Cargo (Vietnam Airlines, 2015).

International Carriers

A growing number of international carriers have chosen Vietnam as a destination to be serviced on scheduled passenger and cargo flight in all three designated international airports; in Hanoi, in Ho Chi Minh City and in Da Nang. Some international charter flights are allowed to service other airports in Vietnam, but under strict regulations set up by CAAV. With the increasing participation of international airliners, competition is heating up in Vietnam’s aviation sector just as VN is considering the option for share public offerings. Analysis in growing air carrier competition has become a viable bellwether of how Vietnam’s economic reform agenda toward a more open economy may continue to take shape in the mid and longer terms.

The introduction of more and more international carriers in Vietnam has brought an overall expansion in traffic in the industry, and it has proven to be good for passengers because of the availability of more choices. Aside of international regular-cost carriers, the rise of low-cost carriers in Southeast Asia reflects pent-up demand for flying in a socio-economically increasing part of the world. However, the expansion of low-cost airline capacity appears to be getting ahead of the concomitant growth in demand. Some regional budget airlines are struggling to fill their seats, starting to hurt short-haul flights, and negatively affecting profitability. Nonetheless, in Vietnam alone, the following are the international carriers currently servicing the country either directly, or through code-sharing marketing schemes (Skyscanner, 2015):
It is said that the aviation industry is the “real” World Wide Web. Through an ever-expanding vast network built with hundreds of airlines, thousands of airports, and a myriad of traffic control organizations, major urban centers, medium-size cities, small communities and isolated villages around the globe are being linked 24/7 with advanced aircrafts built with continued improved engineering techniques and designs. However, airports are the hearth from which the entire aviation transport industry finds its economic symbolism as it becomes a crucial variable measuring a country’s growth and development.

Even though airports are asset-intensive businesses requiring a very long time to recover its enormous capital investment in terminals, runways, support facilities and access roads, they are still constituent parts of the economy of a country. Airports must be capable to generate enough revenues to cover their operations and investments while, at the same time, guaranteeing a professional level of service satisfying the needs of passengers, cargo, and aircraft operators. Concomitantly, airports are expected to fully support and enhance the economic interests of the community they are located in, as well as those of neighboring servicing areas.

**Airports Corporation of Vietnam (ACV)**

With headquarters in Ho Chi Minh City and founded in January 2012, the ACV is the product of the merging of the original three companies operating airports in the north, the middle, and the south of Vietnam. The purpose of ACV is to manage and operate all 21 civilian airports in Vietnam, including 8 international and 13 domestic airports (ACV, 2015).

With a mission to build an image of peace, civility, friendliness and dynamism for the country and the peoples of Vietnam, the ACV strives to maintain and ensure modernization, security and safety of all airports in the country. Their political task and corporate culture is aimed at expanding cooperation in investment, construction and development of aviation services, to play an important role in promoting socio-economic development for Vietnam, and to actively participate in the security defense of the nation.

Supporting the mission of the ACV, there is a calculated corporate determination to achieve proper industrialization of Vietnam through an ongoing vision of modernization of the nation’s entire airport system on the basis of inherited resources available to promote the power of human and financial assets. ACV is geared at meeting the needs of airport operators by providing adequate aviation services, by ensuring efficient production and the best quality of passenger service, and by placing Vietnam’s aviation industry in the path for taking off on a journey of national integration, cooperation, and socio-economic development.

**Airports as Economic Engines of Progress**

Historically, Vietnam developed as an agricultural-based civilization concentrating in raising wet rice cultivation. The Vietnam Wars (1954-1975) destroyed much of the country’s economic infrastructure and, upon the Communist government taking power; they created a centrally-planned economic system for the newly unified
Vietnam. These years of communist mandate bought about collectivization of farms and factories as the Vietnamese people and the nation's capital were put to work in government programs. For over a decade, Vietnam's economy suffered of inefficiency, underproduction, restrictive trade and economic activities, and from massive corruption. It also suffered from American and some European trade embargos, and the eroding support of the Soviet bloc, and short wars with China and with Khmer Rouge Cambodia.

In 1986, however, Vietnam saw the introduction of significant economic reforms with the inclusion of free-market economic elements, and with governmental support for private ownership in industry, commerce, tourism, fisheries, and agriculture. In 1994 the US lifted the trade embargo on Vietnam, and full diplomatic relations were finally established in 1997. On that year, the country’s GDP was a mere US$ 27 billion, with little over US$ 360 per capita income. By 2014 the GDP had grown to over US$ 180 billion, with near US$ 2,000 per capita income (Focus Economics, 2014).

According to the UK Trade & Investment Report (2011), between 2005 and 2010 Vietnam invested more than US$ 1.3 billion in airport modernization, expansion and rehabilitation; and amount reaching close to US$ 2 billion by 2014. Unfortunately, however there are few foreign investors in Vietnam’s airport development industry due to limited profitability because of the continued reluctance of the government to accept foreign direct investment for projects perceived as of key national interest. Nonetheless, even though Vietnam’s biggest and busiest airport in the country located in Ho Chi Minh City (Tan Son Nhat Airport) had a new terminal constructed between 2004 and 2007, with a second phase expansion completed in 2010 giving a capacity of 15 million passengers a year, it has soon become obsolete and without the possibility of further expansion within its current location. Consequently, the Vietnamese government approved the construction of a brand new mega airport at Long Thanh to supersede completely Tan Son Nhat.

**Long Thanh International Airport (LTIA)**

To be located 50 km northeast of Ho Chi Minh City, it was originally intended to become operational by 2020 and to serve over 100 million passengers annually when fully built to its maximum designed capacity upon completion of Phase 3 (2035-2050). The Master Plan for LTIA was approved in 2006, and several adjustments have been made since then. The project was well-received; however, several critics find it too expensive and too far from downtown.

Originally, the project developed by the French Consortium ADPI, was to be developed in three phases, with Phase 1 subdivided in 3 sub-phases. Phase 1 (2016-2025) had an original estimate of US$ 7.8 billion; now downscaled to US$ 5.6 billion and with expected operation starting in 2023. However, the original breaking-ground for the airport scheduled for 2016, has already been pushed forward to 2018. Yet, at the moment, researchers at the University of Economics in Ho Chi Minh City, and staff members at CAAV, are unsure of when the breaking-ground ceremony for LTIA will happen, or if it is a viable project under present economic considerations.

Nonetheless, the government in Hanoi still supports the plans for building LTIA aimed at eventually becoming an international aviation hub, expected to meet the rapid growth of the Vietnamese aviation market, and serving socio-economic development in the southern key economic regions. These political expectations are geared to enabling Vietnam to make the most of its economic and tourism advantages in the geographic heartland of Southeast Asia, considered a strategic location to serve the transition of passengers and cargo for the entire ASEAN region. By 2020, the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) estimates that Vietnam will rank third among the 10 Asia-Pacific countries to see highest number of air passengers (ICAO, 2013).

**CONCLUSION**

This research was planned around the idea that Vietnamese authorities were planning to build a new airport in hopes of competing with Singapore as the aviation hub in the South East Asian region. This paper has focused on the aeronautical industries in Vietnam. With the overall analysis complete, the researchers found that while Vietnam has many plans, they are far behind Singapore due mainly to lack of investment capital. The new airport was first announced in 2000 and was to open by 2008. This was eventually extended to 2010, then 2015, now
authorities are saying 2023. Some of their other large-capital projects have followed similar paths; the high speed rail system, for example. Some aviation experts have been vocally opposed to the to the Long Thanh Airport project, calling them unnecessary. Vietnamese authorities announced their intentions to sell the operating rights to several of their airports. They have requested the AAV to submit a plan to buy out the rights. Thus far, private investors have been restricted from aviation infrastructure projects, however, now would be a perfect time to invest in such youthful, energetic, tech-savvy country. Exports to North America are up, their inflation rate is down and the strategic importance and commercial opportunities are great for investors. Further research should be done and focus on the plans and the economic impact of those aviation related improvements that have already been completed. Also, the possibility of obtaining financing from World Bank.

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Department of International Research and International Cooperation
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Older Adults’ Online Searching Behaviors
By Eye-Tracking On Mobile Phones:
Experienced Web Browsers And Novices

Yen-Mei Lee, University of Missouri-Columbia, USA

ABSTRACT

More and more older adults use mobile phones to access the Internet. In the past five years, the population (age 65 years old and older) of using smartphones in the United States has increased from eleven percent to thirty percent (Statista, 2013; Statista, 2015). However, it remains unclear how this population navigates through the Internet by mobile phones. Compared to the younger people, older adults encounter more difficulties when seeking information online and stay in a minority status, especially those elderly with low web experiences (Bol et al., 2016; Hill, Dickinson, Arnott, Gregor, & McIver, 2011; Romano Bergstrom et al., 2013). In this study, I want to explore the mobile web browsing characteristics by different web experiences and ages. Older adult’s online searching behaviors are the crucial parts in this study. Thirty participants are recruited, including ten younger-old adults, ten older-old adults, and ten younger people as a comparison group. Three online search tasks with different difficulty levels are conducted during the measurement process. Participant’s behaviors will be recorded by the eye-tracking device and video recorder. An interview is required after three tasks. Participant’s total fixation duration time, the first fixation area, eye movement paths, the heat map, the gaze opacity will be analyzed. The expected outcomes of this study are that efficient browsing methods or guidelines based on experienced older adults’ performances and thoughts instead of other age group’s performances such as the younger user’s searching strategies will be suggested. On the other hand, easily used design principles for older adults will be provided for the future interface design.

Keywords: Older Adults; Web Experiences; Mobile Phones; Web Browsing; Eye-tracking

INTRODUCTION

Human online information seeking issues such as people’s browsing behaviors on different web experiences, the comparison on different age groups of their browsing skills, or browsers’ eye movement features on the interface were discussed in many studies (Aula, Jhaveri, & Käki, 2005; Chadwick-Dias, Tedesco, & Tullis, 2004; Hill, Dickinson, Arnott, Gregor, & McIver, 2011; Lazonder, Biemans, & Wopereis, 2000; Thatcher, 2008). Especially younger and older adults’ comparisons of their web search behaviors, there were significant differences between these two groups (Bol et al., 2016; Kemper, McDowd, & Kramer, 2006; Tullis, 2007). Older adults need more time to read online texts and have longer fixation times on the screen than younger adults (Bol et al., 2016; Kemper et al., 2006). Also, older people spend more time steering at webpages and tend to look at areas of the webpages that younger people do not even come close to (Tullis, 2007).

Furthermore, web searching behaviors are diversity not only in different age groups (younger and older adults) but also in the same age group. Specifically, some research is simply focuses on the elderly population and demonstrate older adults’ computer web browsing characteristics (Chadwick-Dias et al., 2004; Hill et al., 2011). For example, Hill et al. (2011) classified older adults (ages 70-93) into different web-experience levels (experienced and novice groups) and compared their searching characteristics on computer webpages. The results show that novice older users make longer fixations on the computer screen than experienced older users. But in the study of Chadwick-Dias et al. (2004), they find that even when the level of computer experiences is controlled, older adults perform more usability difficulties when browsing the webpage than younger adults. Based on these evidence, older adults have more difficulties when seeking information online and stay in a minority status compared to the younger population, especially those elderly with low web experiences.
Different web searching behaviors described above are investigated based on computer screens. However, online browsing characteristics such as users’ search strategies, search speed, eye movement paths, eye fixation times on the screen, and total search times can be different when changing the digital devices from larger screen (computers/laptops) into smaller screens (mobile/smart phones) (Kim et al., 2015; Shrestha, 2007). Compared to larger screens, users take more effort to gain information on the smaller screen as well as exhibit a stronger tendency for reading the interface from top to bottom (Kim, Thomas, Sankaranarayana, Gedeon, & Yoon, 2015). Recent years, different kinds of studies related to human online information seeking behaviors on mobile touch screens have gained much attention by researchers (Grace-Martin & Gay, 2001; Kim et al., 2015; Kurniawan, 2008; Lopez-Basterretxea, Mendez-Zorrilla, & Garcia-Zapirain, 2015; Schmiedl, Seidl, & Temper, 2009; Shrestha, 2007; Ziefle & Bay, 2005).

All studies introduced here concisely address people’s information searching behaviors by smaller screens. However, their study outcomes are hard to infer to the older population, age 60 and over. In Kurniawan (2008) study, older (age 50 – 64) and younger (age: 20 – 35) novice mobile phone users were examined. But they do not present about the mobile web browsing behaviors of older adults who are more than 65 years old. For the other study which is focused on the population of 60 years and older for the mobile phone usability, Ziefle and Bay (2005) figure out some significant phenomenon. They found that older people tend to have a passive attitude on using mobile phones and experience fear of consequences of using unfamiliar technology. However, do all older people encounter these problems? If the younger adults, people who are most frequently apply mobile devices, have the same problems or symptoms like older adults, those who suffered from fear of searching information by mobile phones?

After a brief discussion of human’s web browsing behaviors and previous relevant studies, the current project aims to study the main online browsing characteristics performed by older adults (61 years old and older) when they apply the mobile phone. Also, practical online browsing strategies and effective searching guidelines will be provided based on performances of experienced old users.

LITERATURE REVIEW

User’s Browsing Characteristics on Different Web Experiences

Different level of web experiences and knowledge of interface manipulation can influence user’s searching characteristics (Yamin, Ramayah, & Ishak, 2013). Aula, Jhaveri, and Käki (2005) and Thatcher (2008) address common characteristics on user’s web browsing process. According to Thatcher (2008), 80 volunteer participants from various educational and occupational backgrounds are recruited. Before getting into the main research process, Thatcher classify participants into two different web-experience levels (high web experience and low web experience) by investigating their length of web use, the frequency of web use, the number of locations (work area, home, Internet coffee shop, etc.), and the application depth level. On the other hand, Aula et al. (2005) try to figure out user’s information searching strategies by conducting a survey for 236 experienced computer and web users. All respondents use computers for about 17 years and experiences are visiting websites for 9.2 years on average. Both Aula et al. (2005) and Thatcher (2008) conclude that experienced users are more likely to use the parallel browsing style to search information. The parallel browsing style means users usually open multiple browser windows early to read and search different information simultaneously. In contrast to the experienced users, those people with lower levels of web experience are more likely to use the sequential browsing style (Thatcher, 2008). The sequential browsing style is illustrated that users tend to rely simply on hyperlinks and move from the homepage to other subpages orderly.

Moreover, though people in the same level of web experiences, there are differences between younger and older populations. Chadwick-Dias, Tedesco, and Tullis (2004) focus on user’s age and web experiences to investigate their online searching behaviors. They classified participants into younger and older groups and defined their web-experience levels by the frequency of web use. Study outcomes indicate that even though older adults have the same web-experience level as younger people, they do suffer more web usability problems during the search process. One thing Chadwick-Dias, Tedesco, and Tullis (2004) address notably is that user’s web expertise is significantly influenced by how users learned the web. In this study, results show that younger users tend to work or discuss with others while using the web. However, older users have significantly less collaboration experience with others. Chadwick-Dias, Tedesco, and Tullis (2004) illustrate that the more collaboration experience users have, the better they
will perform on the Web. They predict this may be the reason why older adults encounter more web browsing issues than younger adults even though these two groups have the same level of web experiences.

Up to now, the evidence provided above depict elderly have more web browsing difficulties than other age groups. However, do all older people express the same browsing characteristics during the search process? Hill, Dickinson, Arnott, Gregor, and McIver (2011) illustrate this issue in their study. Eighteen older adults (age more than 70 years old) are divided into two levels of web-experience groups (experienced and inexperienced), and their web browsing behaviors are measured during the research process. Results obviously show different distributions of users’ browsing styles and eye fixation durations on the computer interface. When browsing on the screen, the more experienced group has a much stronger leftwards skew and tighter spread on the interface, while the novice group has a more random appearance and makes longer fixations on the screen.

Though different levels of web experience are clearly demonstrated in previous research, these users’ web browsing characteristics are depicted based on the use of computer screens. For smaller digital touch screen devices such as laptops and mobile phones, user’s browsing environments and searching behaviors have different performances (Grace-Martin & Gay, 2001; Kim et al., 2015; Kurniawan, 2008; Lopez-Basterretxea, Mendez-Zorrilla, & Garcia-Zapirain, 2015; Schmiedl, Seidl, & Temper, 2009; Shrestha, 2007; Ziefle & Bay, 2005). Different kind of studies of web browsing characteristics on smaller screens will be demonstrated in the following section.

User’s Web Browsing Experiences on Smaller Screens

In recent years, researchers start to focus on web usability on small-screen devices (Fazal-e-Amin., 2015; Kim et al., 2015; Shrestha, 2007; Yu, N., & Kong, J., 2016). Fazal-e-Amin. (2015) analyzes user’s mobile browsing features by different age and web experiences. 630 participants are divided into three groups, ages from 18 to 24, ages from 25 to 34, and ages from 35 to 44. On the other hand, based on the different time length of using mobile devices, participants are classified into six web experience categories, including less than one year, one year, two years, three years, four years, and more than four years. Research outcomes present general behaviors of using smartphones, including the frequently of using browsers, the duration of a browser session, and tasks performed on mobile phones such as applying the search engine, checking email, reading news, shopping, etc. Also, different kind of browsers such as Safari, Chrome, Firefox, and default Android system which participants apply the most are investigated in this study. From the age aspect, results show that participants from 35 to 44 years old prefer to use mobile phone web browsers for less number of times in a day but have longer sessions on the screen. On the contrary, other groups from 18 to 24 and 25 to 35 years old tend to have more sessions of short durations. Moreover, Fazal-e-Amin finds that among different age groups there is no difference in mobile use of browser features such as tab operation, bookmark operation, viewing skills, searching and browsing option, information download operation, etc., while significant differences in the different level of web experiences are expressed. Users with more experience spend more times on using browsers and have longer sessions, while users are having less experience use browsers for less number of times and short duration per session. However, in this study, in-depth interviews are just conducted with high mobile web-experienced users. The actual feelings and thoughts of low web-experienced users haven’t been asked in this research.

In the Kim, et al. (2015) study, they compare larger screens and smaller screens to figure out the differences of user’s web browsing characteristics. Web browsing patterns such as mouse click action, search speed, search accuracy, scan-path, and the first area of interests (AOIs) are evaluated. Thirty-five users between 18 and 50 years old with experienced in web searching skills and are quite familiar with the Google search engine are recruited in this study. Results point out that participants not only need a longer time on browsing interfaces but also take significantly more effort on gaining information on smaller screens. However, outcomes presented above can just represent the experienced web group. Those users with lower web experiences haven’t been discussed in this research.

Yu and Kong (2016) conduct an experimental design for user’s mobile web browsing behaviors. Mobile news websites are the testing material. Users ages from 18 to 30 participate in this research. Yu and Kong mainly focus on providing practical design principle for mobile website designers. Through investigating user’s browsing features, they figure out significant browsing characteristics which users perform during the test processes. Results show that participants do not care about how they operate or navigate on smaller screens; instead, they pay more attention to whether the interactive functions in the mobile webpage serve their goals. Users tend to apply simple and intuitive interface when
contents involve cognitive information processing (such as reading news articles). Though Yu and Kong (2016) indicate the user mobile web browsing features, these results are the focus on younger adults.

**Eye Movement Features on Web Browsing**

Users’ eye movement features such as the probability of eye fixation, the duration of the first pass fixation, the total fixation duration, first-pass regressions leftward to a previous sentence, etc. can be measured simultaneously during the online browsing process by eye-tracking equipment (Bol et al., 2016; Hill et al., 2011; Kemper et al., 2006; Romano Bergstrom et al., 2013; Tullis, 2007). By analyzing moment to moment eye-tracking paths, web browsing characteristics on different types of users can be identified. The following will illustrate the eye movement features among the different size of search screens and age groups.

Firstly, when users are browsing on the Internet, there are different kinds of eye movement features between younger and older adults. For example, a study indicates that the time younger people fixate their eyes on the left areas of the interface is longer than older adults who prefer to fixate on the central part of the screen (Romano Bergstrom et al., 2013). In the same study, it also shows that older adults are more likely to fixate distractors and to spend more time fixating distractors than young adults. Moreover, not only the accuracy and efficiency are higher in younger compared to older participants, but also, in the overall reading time and text comprehension, young people do have an advantage over older adults (Kemper et al., 2006; Tullis, 2007). These results are observed when participants engage in online search tasks on the computer screen. But how about the eye movement features on the smaller screens?

For the eye movement features on smaller screen, Kim et al. (2015) find significant browsing features by conducting eye movement measurement on many kinds of users. The result shows that participants on the small screen scan their search results narrowly with fewer skips and regressions. Moreover, users have less frequent changes in a scan direction and exhibit a stronger tendency for browsing from top to bottom. However, the age of participants engaged in Kim et al. (2015) study is from 18 to 50 years old. The measurement outcomes cannot represent older adult’s (age more than 50 years old) eye movement characteristics even though this research is discussed the search behavior of the smaller-screen mobile device.

On the other hand, Hill et al. (2011) conduct a study of older adults (age from 70 to 90) to measure their eye moving motions when seeking information on the Internet. Hill et al. (2011) mention that the web experience of older adults (age from 70 to 93) appears to be a crucial factor in eye-movement behaviors. They conduct three different online searching tasks with computer screens. Their main purpose is to figure out eye moving characteristics among different web experienced older users. The interaction between eye movement and interfaces are measured, including participants’ first fixates area and their gaze paths when browsing through the web page. Results indicate that participants who with lower web experience on the computer have longer fixation time than those older users who with higher web experienced. Though this study provides the evidence of eye movement features among the older population, older adult’s browsing characteristics on smaller screens still cannot be explained in this case.

Thus, in eye-tracking studies about users’ web browsing behaviors, some research apply computer screen as browsing tools, and some studies measure the browsing behaviors with a smaller screen (Hill et al., 2011; Kemper et al., 2006; Romano Bergstrom et al., 2013; Tullis, 2007). Also, different age groups are considered in these studies.

Based on all evidence discussed in this section, it seems that users have multiple web browsing behaviors by different web experiences and ages. Also, the searching characteristics are different between big and small screens. In the age issue, older adults are in a minority position compared with younger people when they browse on the Internet. Furthermore, most of the studies are discuss older people’s web browsing behaviors on computer screens, but there is the lack of support evidence for older people’s browsing features on smaller screens as shown previously. Also, in the older adult population, the small-screen device application has been increased. If we can figure out older user’s mobile web browsing behaviors and understand their needs and problems, efficient mobile web browsing methods and guideline will be provided and help elderly easily to apply the mobile devices. The central research questions of the current study are addressed below:
RQ1: What are the main online browsing characteristics performed by old experienced users when applying the mobile phone?

RQ2: What are the main online browsing characteristics performed by old novice users when they apply the mobile phone?

RQ3: Do these two groups have different performances when searching information on the mobile phone?

Theoretical Approaches

This study is build up based on the Activity Theory (Kuutti, K., 1996; Soegaard, M., & Dam, R. F., 2013; Wilson, T. D., 2005). The key point of the Activity Theory is described as a process relating the subjects (human beings) and the object (the real world) (Soegaard, M., & Dam, R. F., 2013). Because of focusing on individuals’ actions interacted with real social contexts, Leontiev’s hierarchical structure of activity is applied as the main theoretical framework in this study (Soegaard, M., & Dam, R. F., 2013). In Leontiev’s Activity Theory, three levels of elements, Activity, Actions, and Operations, are composed of the theory structure (Kuutti, K., 1996; Wilson, T. D., 2005, 2008). On the other hand, three important factors, Motive, Goals, and Conditions, are addressed by Leontiev to support the whole activity process (Wilson, T. D., 2008).

On the strength of the interventions between six crucial elements mentioned above, participants' web browsing behaviors and characteristics in this study are analyzed regarding this framework. Based on the expressions by Soegaard and Dam (2013) and Wilson (2008), the specific activity structure of user online browsing processes are illustrated in Figure 1.

First of all, activity, the top layer of the framework is composed of many actions and oriented by web user’s motive. The motive is produced by web users’ needs. Based on the need, the individual has a motive to conduct an online searching activity. Relied on the motive, web user sets goals to attain the need. Meanwhile, these goals result in different actions. For example, if a person wants to know the current top 50 universities of the world. He has the motive to search this information on the Internet. So searching information on the Internet is an activity. Then this user sets a goal, to find a website which is listed the ranking of top 50 universities and starts to have many searching actions such as typing keywords into the search engine, clicking different hyperlinks, browsing website contents, etc. These actions are composed of the process of different operations. Operations are completed by applying of tools and means to mediate or modify actions. And different online searching conditions will determine how web users choose the way to operate their actions. Thus, all of the elements provided in this activity framework are interdependence.

To sum up, users with different types of web experiences and ages may perform different features on this framework. This study will explore the differences of online browsing behaviors between experienced and novice mobile web users and understand older adults’ main characteristics and needs during the information search process.
METHODODOLOGY

Research Design

This study aims to explore older adult’s mobile web browsing characteristics and to compare these characteristics to different age and web experiences. For the research design, in this study, three online searching tasks with different difficulty levels are designed in this study. Eye-tracking equipment is applied to measure participant’s eye movement features when they are browsing on the mobile device. By tracking old people’s eye movements, specific motions, problems, even difficulties can be identified during the test process. Also, a personal interview is conducted, and the results will be analyzed based on the eye-tracking data measured before.

Participants

Sample Size and Web Experiences

In this study, total 30 participants will be recruited and categorized into three different age groups, including younger adults (ages 20-40), younger-old adults (ages 41-60), and older-old adults (ages 61-80). Each age group contains ten participants with five low web experiences people and five high web experiences people. Younger adults will be the comparison group. Participant’s level of education, work area, and web experiences will be required.

Sampling Method

Non-probability sampling method, snowball sampling, will be applied in this study (Creswell, 2015). In the primary stage, six participants who are the target samples will be randomly recruited, involving two younger adults, two younger-old adults, and two older-old adults. The remaining participants who are suitable for this research will be introduced by these six primary subjects. By purposively gathering meaningful participants can make the research
focus on its specific domains and goals.

*Web Experiences Definition Criteria*

Four criteria will be used to define participant’s web experiences, including the frequency of use (web use once or twice a year, a month, a week, or everyday), the total length of use (hours/a week), the number of locations (work, home, with friend, with family, Internet coffee shop, etc.), and web training/learning style (self-taught, friend or relative, introductory course, etc.) (Thatcher, 2008).

*Data Collection*

*Apparatus*

The equipment of the current study includes one Tobii Pro Glasses 2.0 eye-tracking device, a small-screen mobile phone (iPhon SE), and a video recorder. On the other hand, a self-report questionnaire for participant’s background information will be prepared.

*Tasks*

During the measurement process, three online search tasks will be designed with different difficulty levels and be conducted sequentially. The searching difficulty of the first two tasks are in the lower level than the third task. The contents of each task are addressed below. The first task is to search a specific hotel on the Booking.com website. The second task is to search a specific video on the YouTube website. For the third task, participants will need to search a specific movie trailer by Google search engine. So the first two tasks tend to be in a closed searching environment (search with assigned websites), while the third task is in a more open searching environment (start with a search engine).

*Interview*

After online search tasks, an interview will be conducted for each participant. Open-ended questions will be provided during the interview. The questions include participant’s search motivation, search methods, thoughts and ideas, feelings and attitudes, and emotions. Questions will be asked depended on participant’s search behavior recorded in the video during the search process. For example, “What is the first search keyword popped into your mind when the first time saw the search topic?” “Why you clicked this button?” or “How did you feel when you got stuck and stopped searching in the middle of the task?”

*Measuring Procedure*

In the beginning, a self-report questionnaire is required before starting the online searching tasks. After complete the survey, participants have five minutes practice on the assigned mobile phone, and then the researcher gives 5 minutes introduction before each task starts. During the search activity, there are thirty minutes in each task, meanwhile, the eye-tracking device and a video record participants’ eye movement and searching process. Between each task, there are five minutes break times after completing three assigned tasks; ten minutes interview is conducted in person. Based on the data analysis results, the follow-up interview may be required if necessary.

*Potential Difficulty*

In this study, the measurement process is not like a questionnaire survey that participants can complete their tasks at home, on the Internet, or in a convenient place. For the eye-tracking device, it is not flexible for the researcher to carry on to everywhere. Participants need to visit the experimental lab in person and to conduct online searching tasks in a specific area. So arranging the meeting schedule for both participants and the researcher can be a potential difficulty.
Research Ethics Issue

For the ethics issue, the research needs to obtain participant’s consent before recording their online searching behaviors. Also, the research purpose, the conducting process, and the usability of outcomes need to be informed for participants.

Data Analysis

After completing the task measurement, firstly participants’ background Information will be organized and shown in a table. Second, the eye-tracking data will be analyzed, including participant’s total fixation duration time, the first fixation area, eye movement paths, the heat map, and the gaze opacity (Djamasbi, Siegel, Skorinko, & Tullis, 2011). Lastly, the interview results will be clustered into different themes. All data will be discussed and compared with previous studies in the final discussion section.

EXPECTED OUTCOMES

There are two expected outcomes being addressed in this section. First of all, the efficient browsing methods or guidelines based on experienced older adults’ performances and thoughts instead of other age group’s performances such as the younger user’s searching strategies will be suggested. For the minority mobile web users, they can build up basic web browsing knowledge by understanding these methods and guidelines. Secondly, easily used design principles for older adults will be provided for interface designers. Combining participants’ eye movement findings and interview results, practically performed issues will be figured out. Also, useful design directions will be illustrated in this study.

Work Schedule and Research Planning

The study will take one year and two months to complete. The first four months will start with the literature review, build up research questions, framework the research design and complete a research proposal; the follow up three months will conduct the data collection; and after gathering all data, the researcher will work on the data analysis process; lastly, in the last four month, writing down the results, comparing current outcomes with previous studies, and provide meaningful suggestion for future directions are crucial work in this stage. See the working schedule illustrated in figure 1 below.

![Figure 2. Research Plan](image-url)
REFERENCES


Can Fiction Be Useful In Teaching Research Skills?
Margot Kinberg, National University, USA

ABSTRACT

Among other writing skills students need to develop and hone their research skills. Whether students are writing fiction or non-fiction, a certain amount of research is almost always a part of the process. However, many students are intimidated by the thought of research (e.g. McCarthy, 2015). Other students find it difficult to motivate themselves and settle on a topic or research question (e.g. Gray et al, 2015). What is more, it is not always easy for students to transfer what they learn in, say, a research course, to other disciplines or content areas (e.g. Woolf, 2014). What seems to be key to teaching research skills, is to help students focus their interest, select a topic, and begin the process of searching for information.

This paper proposes fiction (in this case, crime fiction) as a useful tool for those purposes. The paper begins with a brief discussion of the importance of research skills in nearly all content areas, and a few of the challenges inherent in teaching them. Then, the paper moves to a discussion of the role fiction might play in teaching those skills. Next, a study is presented that examined the connection between adults’ reading of crime fiction and their subsequent interest in further reading and research. This study of 124 adults showed that reading fiction sparked curiosity and motivation, and prompted learners to seek out factual information. After the results of this study are discussed, some possible applications to content areas beyond literature will be suggested.

REFERENCES


Using Incremental Rehearsal
To Improve Fluency Of Sight Words
With Children With Learning Disability
Abeer Aldawish, Southern Illinois University Edwardsville, USA

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of using Incremental Rehearsal to improve the ability to read sight words for two elementary students diagnosed with a specific learning disability. The research question in this study was what is the effect of Incremental Rehearsal (IR) on sight word fluency for children with a learning disability? A single-subject across sets of sight words was used to evaluate the effect of the Incremental Rehearsal intervention on the dependent variables (sight words fluency).

AUTHOR NOTE

Teaching And Learning Support: A Blended Learning Perspective
Matshepo Matoane, University of South Africa, South Africa
Elias Oupa Mashile, University of South Africa, South Africa

ABSTRACT

Teaching for the 21st Century harnesses the power of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) to optimize the achievement of its objectives and to, hopefully, become easily accessible. The integration of technology into teaching and learning has resulted in a shift towards online learning models of course delivery, in addition to traditional face to face or print based models at most institutions of higher learning (be it at contact universities or distance education institutions). In this presentation, we interrogate the term blended learning. We argue that in order to transform teaching and learning, it is necessary to revisit the manner in which courses are designed and to use pedagogical approaches that promote active and collaborative learning. We further argue that such a redesign of courses is critical in order to minimize the transactional distance between learners and instructors in an Open Distance and eLearning (ODeL) environment. We present a case example of a model of student support, the Integrated Tutor Model (ITM), which is premised on the Constructivist approach to teaching and learning, aimed at enhancing students’ learning experiences and adopting a blended learning approach. The case example touches on some of the benefits of constructivism. In addition, the case example illustrates how introducing the ITM has led to attempts at improving pedagogy, encouraging more interaction with learners, promoting access to knowledge and encouraging personal presence. Our case example is discussed within the context of three distinct design approaches to blended learning, namely, low impact-, medium impact- and high impact blend (Alammary, Carbone, & Sheard, 2014).
Towards Proactive, Student Support Services At An Open Distance Learning Institution In Africa

Matshepo Matoane, University of South Africa, South Africa
Elias Oupa Mashile, University of South Africa, South Africa

ABSTRACT

Marketization, commodification, globalization, diversification and credentialization of higher education propels institutions of higher education into a perpetual state of change and adaptation. The impact of these changes on the institutions manifests in various ways, some of which include affecting the nature and duration of course offerings. Provision of student support at these institutions has to take cognizance of these changes. This presentation focusses on a framework for supporting students’ learning at an Open Distance Learning (ODL) institution. The authors argue that within an ODL context, it is necessary, if not imperative, to support students through their learning journey. Furthermore, the authors unpack the meaning of student support and advocate for a balanced approach in providing proactive vs reactive student support services. The presentation concludes with a discussion of a model of framing student support, as adopted at the University of South Africa (UNISA), an Open Distance and eLearning (ODeL) institution, as well as the role played by technology in student support. Ways in which proactive student support can be encouraged are also presented.
3D Printing: Making It Real
Nora Strasser, Friend University, USA

ABSTRACT

A course project will be described that utilizes a 3D printer. This project asks students to design a prop for use in a movie. This prop has specifications that the students need to adhere to. The student groups are asked to design the object, print a model of the object, create a poster describing the object, and make a presentation supporting the use of their object in the movie. The presentations are made in front of the “Producer” and “Director” of the movie. The Producer and Director choose the best design to be printed full size. The outcomes for this project include: students will be able to think in a 3-D environment and students will understand the way 3-D printing works, students will develop skills in turning designs into real-world objects, students will develop problem-solving skills through the process of operating a 3-D printer, and students will develop skills in working as a group and communicating the results. This project would be appropriate for students in a variety of courses. The results of such a project will be shared.
Driving Factors Of Energy Technology R&D Investments: Index Decomposition Analysis Approaches

Hansoo Chang, Korea Institute of S&T Evaluation and Planning, Republic of Korea
Kyung-Jea Lee, National Fusion Research Institute, Republic of Korea

ABSTRACT

Research and development investment in the energy sector is recognized as essential in most countries. This policy direction is linked to substantial R&D investments. However, empirical studies on whether investment policies in the energy sector result in effective investment are rare. In this paper, we analyze the factors affecting the R&D investment in the energy sector applying index decomposition Analysis (IDA) in Korea, USA, Japan, Germany and France. The IDA methodology is known as a useful methodology for analyzing greenhouse gas emissions (GHGs) in the energy sector. In this paper, we conduct the empirical analysis by expanding the IDA to the analysis of the R&D investment in the energy field.

The data used for empirical analysis are population, GDP per capita, total R&D investment ratio to GDP, and energy R&D investment ratio to total R&D investment. Each data was obtained from OECD and IEA. As a result, Korean investment in energy sector is more affected by total R&D investment than energy policy itself. In the US and Germany, the effect of the energy R&D policy is significant than the total R&D investment. Japan and France have shown that the impact of economic growth is prominent than any other factors.

As a conclusion, it is shown that IDA is useful tool to analysis the main driving factors of R&D investment. R&D investment in a certain country's energy sector is affected by energy policy, total R&D investment, and economic growth. The major factors differed according to the economic and social situation of each country.

Keywords: Energy Technology, R&D, IDA, Investment
The Decline Of Area Studies As A Discipline Of Social Sciences: A Case Study Of Area Study Centers In Pakistan

Ghulam Murtaza Khoso, University of Sindh, Pakistan

ABSTRACT

The Area Studies emerged as a separate discipline within social sciences during the Cold War period – though the rise of area studies is older than that period. At the time of the expansion of communism in general and Soviet influence in particular the US policy makers desperately needed a thorough research based know-how on societies, policies and security environment of different countries in order to deal with them. Establishing separate centers, departments and institutes of Area Studies within US Universities enabled United States to formulate effective policies for a particular country based on the scientific knowledge provided by those Area Study Centers existed in US Universities. Soon after establishing such centers there were experts in US Universities who had scientific knowledge of a particular country’s society, politics and culture. The knowledge provided by such centers and institutes made it easier for US policy makers to deal with different regions and maintain their hegemony throughout the post war period.

Such area study centers and institutes had also started to be established in other countries for similar purposes. Pakistan after its disintegration in 1971, in which East Pakistan had become Bangladesh, had established such centers to produce scientific knowledge on different countries of the region and the world in order to formulate effective policies and improve diplomacy.

The idea behind such centers was of Pakistan’s then Prime Minister Zulfiqar Ali Bhattu who was pioneer of Pakistan’s current constitution and a strong promoter of Democratic System in the country. Bhutto’s push materialized through a parliamentary act of 1975 to establish Area Study Centers within Universities of Pakistan as separate disciplines.

The basic purpose and objectives of such centers were to give feedback to the Foreign Office for effective foreign policy in a democratic system. However, Pakistan witnessed yet another military coup in 1977 and the country’s powerful military seized power. The military governments since then have not relied on the information provided by these centers. The policies were made by military rulers with input from intelligence agencies and different wings of armed forces. This has dramatically undermined the flourishing of Area Study Centers in the Country. The area study centers have become irrelevant and Pakistan’s foreign policy has been dominated by the input provided by armed forces, defense attachés stationed in Pakistan’s diplomatic missions abroad and the intelligence agencies headed by the serving army generals. This paper will try to examine the decline of Area Studies as a separate discipline of Social Sciences with special focus on the decline of Area Studies in Pakistan.
How Do Students Improve Their Learning Satisfaction Through Web-Enhanced Cooperative Learning In English Writing Class

Chia-Ching Tsai, Chinese Culture University, Taiwan
Dang Thi Phi Yen, Ton Duc Thang University, Vietnam

ABSTRACT

Cooperative learning has been considered to be an effective method on promoting higher levels of achievement and retention, as well as enhancing positive attitudes toward student’s learning. Moreover, many researchers mentioned that Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) can boost students’ learning and increase their learning motivation. In order to establish an effective learning environment, this research applied and integrated a self-developed writing software with cooperative learning activities. The purpose of this case study was to investigate student’s satisfaction towards cooperative learning in an English composition class. 16 junior college students who took the composition class participated in this research. Students’ satisfaction about the cooperative learning method as well as the online learning software were collected through quantitative and qualitative methodology. The results indicated that there were significant differences between students learning satisfaction with the method of cooperative learning and web-enhanced learning system.

Keywords: Cooperative Learning, Computer-Assisted Language Learning, Student Satisfaction
The Effectiveness Of The High-Tech Speech-Generating Device With Proloquo2Go App In Reducing Echolalia Utterances In Autism

Norah Alrusayni, Southern Illinois University Edwardsville, USA

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to determine the effectiveness of using the high-tech speech-generating device with Proloquo2GoTM app to reduce echolalic utterances to an elementary student diagnosed with Autism Spectrum Disorders during the conversational speech. The research question is how does the high-tech speech-generating device with Proloquo2GoTM app reduce echolalia utterances for Children with Autism Spectrum Disorders? The research design that the researcher was used for this study is a single-subject design. The participant was seen twice a week for two months and once a week for one month. To elicit a conversation between the researcher and participant, activities was used include watching short films and reading books. To calculate the percentage of echolalic utterances that demonstrate from the participant, the total number of utterances and the total number of echolalic utterances were counted, (a total number of utterances/ total number of echolalic utterances X 100) for all the speech sample.

AUTHOR NOTE

An Action Research Proposal Presented to the Graduate Program in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Masters in Special Education, Southern Illinois University Edwardsville 2017
Digital Pedagogy The Millennials’ Way: E-Book As A Course Project
William W. Arnold1, Pepperdine University, USA

ABSTRACT

This article traces the experience of university students in an upper division business course as they collectively authored an e-book as their course project. The professor designated the title of the book and the three themes that provided the structure of the book: service, leadership, and purpose. The 25 students at Pepperdine University in Malibu, California, executed the project following the leaderless organization model and its variations adopted by organizations with flattened hierarchies and fast-paced operations. The instructional approach was adapted to the values and preferences that typify millennials. The professor divided the students into five work teams, with each team focused on key tasks and composed of members with the proficiencies needed to complete the project. The article presents dynamics of the process including interactions among the teams and guidelines followed by the professor. The project culminated in a completed book presented to the students on the final day of class.

Keywords: Millennials’ Education, Multimedia Instruction, E-Book Class Project, E-Pedagogy, Digital Class Projects, Business Education Methods

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Medical Debt And Its Relationship To Mortgage Foreclosure
Dr. Leon Schimmoeller, Lynchburg College, USA

ABSTRACT
This paper is an examination of the relationship between medical debt and mortgage foreclosure. This study of 2013 data included 71450 homeowners and demonstrated a significant relationship between medical debt and mortgage foreclosures and mortgage restructuring. This cross-tabulation of data illustrates that medical debt results in a family with double the probability of either restructuring their mortgage or having their mortgage foreclosed. This is a number that may need to be considered in the discussion of public health and government furnished health care.

Keyword: Finance, Mortgage, Foreclosure, Medical Debt

INTRODUCTION
Mortgage foreclosures and health care are two important economic issues that have helped shape the past decade of economics news. The recent movie The Big Short has rekindled interest in the mortgage foreclosures of the late 2000’s. This interest has generated renewed attention in the discussion of the causes of foreclosures including whether they are significantly affected by the medical debts of homeowners. Analysis of mortgage foreclosures is important as it a huge economic activity in the United state. The mid-2000’s saw an increase in the dollar volume of home mortgages from $2.6 trillion to more than $11 trillion. Current mortgage debt stands at almost $14 trillion; clearly this is a large part of the economy worthy of continued analysis (Jones & Sirmans, 2015).

LITERATURE REVIEW
There is a perception that mortgage foreclosures, and indeed, bankruptcies in general, are significantly affected by medical debts of the household. This perception started with one economic survey in 2001 when Harvard Professor David Himmelstein’s research team completed a study of families that filed for bankruptcy that year (Himmelstein, Warren, Thorne, & Woolhandler, 2005). They surveyed 1771 families that filed for bankruptcy and interviewed 931 of them. Nearly half (46%) of the respondents cited medical expense issues. More than one quarter cited illness or injury as the primary reason for bankruptcy. Extrapolating this medical bankruptcy proportion to the national population, Himmelstein estimates approximately 2 million Americans, including all household members, experienced medical bankruptcy. Respondents in the survey selected medical expenses from a list of bankruptcy causes provided by a questionnaire. There was no corroborating evidence required, only the self reporting opinions of those surveyed. Interesting, medical debtors were no less likely to have medical coverage at the time of filing than other debtors. This did not prevent the investigators from suggesting that better health care insurance would reduce the amount of bankruptcy and thereby strengthen the economy, that the reduction of bankruptcy could be used as economic incentive for improved access to medical insurance coverage. Himmelstein’s research received large attention in the press as a justification for better medical coverage in the United States as a way to strengthen the economy in general and the housing market in particular.

Additional studies found numbers very similar to Himmelstein’s. A study of 2000 homeowners in four states found that medical crisis contributed to 49% of the home foreclosure filings (Robertson, Egelhof, & Hoke, 2008). These numbers are surprising close to Himmelstein’s numbers which were near 50%. This supporting study used the same process as the earlier study by asking homeowners to self-identify the “cause” of their inability to pay their mortgage. This leads one to consider if the study was extremely repeatable due to its accuracy or that the same errors are repeated in the process of surveying opinions of why people think they went bankrupt.
As the debate increased concerning Himmelstein’s findings and their influence on public policy, the Commonwealth of Massachusetts presented itself as a real world experiment by passing their own state-wide comprehensive medical plan (Himmelstein, Thorne & Woolhandler, 2011). Himmelstein and his team repeated part of the 2001 survey in 2009 in Massachusetts. They surveyed bankruptcy filers in the state in 2007 and then again in 2009 after the state’s health care reform. In 2009, medical experiences contributed to 52.9% of Massachusetts bankruptcies, versus 59.3% in 2007 with a p value of .44. The conclusion is that health care reform did not lower the occurrence of medical bankruptcies. Himmelstein suggests that health care reform will have to be greatly expanded if it is to have a significant effect on bankruptcies.

Not everyone agrees that medical expenses are having a significant influence on mortgage default. Campbell and Cocco found that mortgage default is triggered by negative value in the home and did not look at medical expenses as part of the analysis (Campbell & Coco, 2015). They determined that negative equity was the primary determinant in mortgage default. Interesting, they found that negative home value, though important in those that defaulted, was not a strong indicator that the homeowners would default. Encouragingly, this study of homeowners with negative equity found that more than 90% retained their homes.

Dranove and Millenson also take exception to the findings of Himmelstein and his colleagues (Dranove & Millenson, 2006). While 47% of those surveyed reported “substantial medical debt” this was only 12% of their total debt. It is unclear that this 12% of additional debt was the cause of the bankruptcies. Furthermore, no causation has been established between bankruptcy and medical expenses. Finding medical debt in bankrupt families is not the same as determining it is the cause of those bankruptcies.

Other researchers such as Badding, Stephenson, and Yeoh (2012) used the Massachusetts health-care overhaul to investigate the correlation between health-care reform and bankruptcy filings. Their study found no evidence to support this correlation. This law reduced the uninsured rate in Massachusetts from 10.7% in 2005 to 5.0% in 2010. This drop in homeowner exposure to catastrophic medical expenses seems to be a good experiment to test the hypothesis with empirical evidence. However, this study takes place during the 2008 housing crash and due to partial data did not completely control for the national and state increase in mortgage defaults.

**ANALYSIS**

Little is known about how homeowners managed their debt in the wave of foreclosures of the late 2000’s. Typically, homeowners put mortgage payments at the top of their priority when paying bills. Haughwout, Hayashi, and Van Der Klauw focused on credit cards debt, auto loans, lines of credit, and equity loans (2016). They did not think it necessary to investigate medical debt although some of this is medical debt is typically included in credit card debt. Interesting, the debtors operate very rationally to preserve their credit worthiness. As their home value declines and it becomes less profitable to keep paying the mortgage, the owners are less likely to forego their other types of credit. They are more likely to pay the car and other loans. Credit card debt in underwater households is less likely to be defaulted upon than average households. It seems many homeowners are adept at protecting their credit and access to future credit.

The mortgage crisis created a tsunami of foreclosures that is illustrated in Fig. 1. The rates of foreclosure starts began to rise in 2006 and by 2008 were at near historic levels, as published by the Mortgage Bankers Association. Due to this disturbance in the status quo, this tidal wave may obscure any changes in foreclosures due to changes in health care coverage. Further complicating matters is the drop in economic activity caused by the great recession.
Shifting economic forces make it difficult to find the critical determinants of mortgage foreclosures. As house prices fell and more homeowners found themselves underwater, 10% elected to default on their mortgage. There has never been a period of such rapidly changing house prices as the 2000’s, making it difficult to determine if any other factors are key causes.

As the housing market recovered from the mortgage debacle, the Affordable Health Care Act opened for enrollment. Published by the CDC, fig. 2 illustrates the rate for citizens lacking in medical coverage moving from a range of 14 to 15%, and dropping to below 10%. This is very good news for the uninsured but it is probably not the reason for the corresponding drop in mortgage foreclosures. These are several reasons this may be true. The first is that the people getting medical coverage under the affordable health care act tend to be lower income and not home owners and therefore will not have any effect on the foreclosure rate. Furthermore, the studies of the increase in medical coverage by the Commonwealth of Massachusetts do not indicate its expanded coverage significantly reduced the number of mortgage defaults from the year before the program began to the year after the program started. Himmelstein’s answer was that the medical coverage would have to be increased to make it more effective at preventing bankruptcies.

**Research Question**

Almost a decade after the mortgage crisis and the implementation of the Affordable Care Act, there is not a clear understanding of the relationship between medical debt and foreclosure. The question raised by this research is if there is any evidence to suggest medical debt is a major influencing factor on mortgage foreclosure.

**Study**

Data was retrieved from the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID) public use dataset developed by the University of Michigan (2013). These data from 2013 were sorted to find homeowners with mortgages that either restructured
their mortgages or were foreclosed and if those households had medical debt. Data from 2013 were sorted by families, not homeowners, which had medical debt. This subset was cross-tabulated by those that were foreclosed. The results are shown below in Table 1.

The study identified homeowners whose mortgage was foreclosed. The total households in the study was 71450 with only 604 being foreclosed. This resulted in a foreclosure rate of less than 1%, good for banks and homeowners but not a large proportion to analyze. Of these same households, 14% restructured their mortgage. This restructuring is taken as a signal of financial hardship and is used as a proxy for a household in financial distress but one that has avoided foreclosure. Analysis of foreclosure and restructure are included below.

All of the 71450 homes in the database were included in the analysis. There were 604 homes that were foreclosed. Of these families, 528 had no medical debt, for a probability of 0.007995. Additionally, 76 with medical debt were foreclosed for a probability of 0.014043. Homes with medical debt were twice as likely to face foreclosure as those without.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Medical Debt</th>
<th>Medical Debt</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>70846</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreclosure 0.0</td>
<td>65510</td>
<td>5335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreclosure 1.0</td>
<td>528</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>66038</td>
<td>5412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proportion</td>
<td>0.007995</td>
<td>0.014043</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Restructuring yielded a much larger sample and different results and is illustrated in Table 2. Of the 5412 homes with medical debt, 1369 or 25% restructured. The 66039 homes without medical debt only experienced 8607 or 13% restructurings. There was twice as likely a chance to restructure in the homes with medical debt.

Both of these cross-tabulations were checked for significance using Z score for 2 population proportions between medical debt and no medical debt. Proportional difference in both foreclosure and restructure proportions were found to be statistically significant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Medical Debt</th>
<th>Medical Debt</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreclosure 0.0</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreclosure 1.0</td>
<td>8607</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>66039</td>
<td>5412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proportion</td>
<td>0.130332</td>
<td>0.252956</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSIONS

As the smoke clears from the economic upheaval in the 2008 housing market, this analysis gives us an opportunity to investigate how medical debt impacts homeowners’ ability to pay in a more stable economic environment.

This cross-tabulation of data illustrates that medical debt results in a family with double the probability of either restructuring their mortgage or having their mortgage foreclosed. This is a number that may need to be considered in the discussion of public health and government furnished health care. The differences are strikingly significant.

There are a number of limitations to be considered in this analysis. The data were only from one year, 2013. The data were self-reported by someone in the household and not verified. Studies by Himmelstein and others which link medical debt to foreclosure were criticized for this same weakness. Also, survey reporters were not asked the amount of medical debt. Foreclosure and restructuring of mortgages may be caused by many other factors than medical debt.
It is clear that this analysis does not definitively answer the research question. However, it does indicate there may be something to the relationship between medical debt and the ability of homeowners to pay their mortgage. If the $14 trillion mortgage industry is affected by medical debt, public policy makers should understand this relationship in dealing with hugely expensive issues such as public health care. Further investigation may be warranted, especially if the medical debt reported by the homeowners can be verified by an outside source.

**AUTHOR BIOGRAPHY**

Dr. Schimmoeller worked in industry in many positions including design engineer, quality, project manager, engineering manager and manufacturing manager responsible for production of 25,000 cell phones per day. He has been teaching college since 2001 and is currently the Director of the Lynchburg College MBA program. Areas of research include leadership, organizations, and online instruction. Dr. Schimmoeller holds a mechanical engineering degree from University of Dayton, MBA from Oakland University, and DBA from Nova Southeastern University.

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The Effect Of R&D Organization Structure On Problem-Solving Process

Tatsuya Kubota, Seijo University, Japan
Yaichi Aoshima, Hitotsubashi University, Japan

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to show the effect of organizational structure of R&D on the problem-solving process of researchers. Since the 1980s, there has been much discussion on the organizational positioning of R&D: specifically, focusing on whether R&D activity should be conducted at corporate laboratories or within operating divisions. While some researchers indicate that operating division-led R&D tends to hinder the development of innovative technologies, others posit that corporate laboratory-led R&D hampers commercialization of new technology. Although many researchers have focused on the relationship between organizational positioning and performance, there has been insufficient research examining the effect of organizational positioning of R&D on the problem-solving process, specifically the process of seeking, defining, and implementing solutions. To address this research gap, we conducted a comparative case study of problem-solving processes at three companies in the ArF resist materials industry. These three companies pursue similar research goals with identical timeframes, yet differ in their organizational positioning of R&D. Controlling for various conditions we effectively compare the effect of organizational positioning. Through in-depth interviews of researchers at these companies, we identify three clear differences in the problem-solving process: (1) the priority order of performance requirements, (2) the sequence of problem solving (concurrent/sequential), and (3) the scope of exploration. These differences stem from differences in the orientation of the researchers and the amount of information from divisional environments, both of which are consequences of organizational positioning. Thus, these findings help to improve our understanding of the mechanism by which differences in organizational positioning of R&D generate differences in performance.

Keywords: Innovation, R&D Organization Structure, Problem-Solving Process, Researcher
Saudi Arabian International Graduate Students' Lived Experiences At A U.S. University
Dr. Barbara N. Young, Middle Tennessee State University, USA
Dr. Donald Snead, Middle Tennessee State University,

ABSTRACT

Forty international graduate students from Saudi Arabia enrolled in a graduate degree program offered by the Department of Educational Leadership at Middle Tennessee State University were asked and agreed to participate in a research study. They completed a short demographic survey, took part in five interviews, participated in a focus group discussion, and wrote personal reflections of their experiences as graduate students at Middle Tennessee State University. This study will provide benefits to the field of education resulting from insight into lived experiences of international graduate students and offer suggestions for techniques and strategies to assist with academic and language success at the graduate level. Findings will be used to improve practices regarding meeting the needs of international graduate students.

These shared experiences and stories will provide an authentic glimpse into the lives of international U.S. graduate students regarding, but not limited to, interview questions / topics such as experiences prior to coming to the U.S., choice of graduate university, and resulting differences between country of origin and their U.S. location and university. Interviews will ask questions pertaining to experiences with gender related to educational experiences in the U.S. as compared to their country of origin gender roles. Interviews also will solicit information about dress code / overall clothing styles of U.S. students. Finally, language learning and/or preparation prior to enrollment in their U.S. graduate program will be discussed as well as its effect on their comfort level and educational achievement. In addition, participants will be asked to share three or more suggestions for future international students to ensure success.

Potential study benefits include findings that can be used to improve practice regarding meeting the needs of international graduate students. Study results will provide suggestions and insight regarding successful completion of academic graduate programs, information as to how to assist international students as they enroll in graduate degree programs, and stories to ensure their success.
English For Academic And English For Special Purposes: A Japan View
Name: Vincent Scura, Tohoku University, Japan

ABSTRACT

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a sphere within the discipline of Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL). Widdowson (2001) defines the concept of ESP as the teaching and learning of English for an instrumental purpose related to employment or academic study. The definition is a broad one, and applies to many types of language learning situations in which the learner and teacher have a specific purpose for the language’s ultimate use. The special purpose guides the curriculum’s design as well as the learner’s approach and motivation during the language acquisition process. In many learning situations, the group acquiring ESP shares a common characteristic that defines its purpose.

English for Academic Purposes (EAP), on the other hand, is a branch of ESP in which learners acquire English for the special purpose of academic study, research, or publication. In Japan, the course content for EAP focuses on assisting students to develop the lexicon and stylistic patterns appropriate for study in a particular academic field, although many EAP courses tend also to cover general Second Language Acquisition (SLA) communication skills. (Yoshida, 1997)

INTRODUCTION

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a sphere within the discipline of Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL). Widdowson (2001) defines the concept of ESP as the teaching and learning of English for an instrumental purpose related to employment or academic study. The definition is a broad one, and applies to many types of language learning situations in which the learner and teacher have a specific purpose for the language’s ultimate use. The special purpose guides the curriculum’s design as well as the learner’s approach and motivation during the language acquisition process. In many learning situations, the group acquiring ESP shares a common characteristic that defines its purpose.

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English for Specific Purposes

ESP adopts the fundamental premise that a well-designed instructional program can teach important language aspects of the discourse communities associated with specific professional and academic genres (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2004). Tarone (2004) defines a discourse community in this context as a specialized speech community sharing common stated goals that are professional or vocational in nature. Some of the characteristics of a discourse community include participatory mechanisms, information exchange, highly specialized terminology, high level of expertise, and community-specific text types or genres (Swales, 1990). Though ESP suggests language instruction for a special use, it can also theoretically include learning language for a broad spectrum of communicational purposes. For example, teaching English for use in a unique vocational, professional, or academic environment that has distinctive lexical and stylistic usages not generally taught in basic TESL courses. Thus, ESP requires students not only to learn English as a second language, but requires them to learn a specific genre of English particular to a discourse community (Noguchi, 1997).
As ESP can involve many different disciplines, instructors must tailor their syllabi to the specific needs and purposes of their students (Widdowson, 2001). A needs-analysis can determine what the learner needs to know for her special purpose and what she needs to do in order to learn the necessary information. This assessment process can be daunting for instructors, as determining students’ pre-existing knowledge of a discourse community’s specialized language is complex and labor-intensive (Dodigovic, 2005).

ESP course sponsors, such as firms or government agencies that have certain requirements for the instructional content and outcomes, may also influence the needs assessment process. In addition, ESP learners may also need to use the language as soon as possible and thus have a comparatively short amount of time to acquire the necessary skills (Widdowson, 2001). As a result, the approach to ESP is often task-based, with language learning focusing on providing the basic linguistic skills necessary to perform the special purpose tasks as rapidly as possible.

Due to the diversity of purposes and needs of the students in ESP courses, there is no unified approach to teaching ESP. Some courses may be intensive and last for only a short period. This approach presumes the student possesses some fundamental English language skills, and the coursework therefore intends to provide the vocabulary and idioms associated with the special purpose. In ESP theory, the specific language approaches used for special purposes interact with the students’ existing knowledge of English to create a subsystem of knowledge (Wiesin, 2000). Other ESP courses use an extensive approach lasting several weeks or months. Instructors use this type of approach to improve fundamental language skills and provide the skills necessary for the special purpose. In both cases, the course design has to balance the objectives of the special purpose instruction with the time constraints and needs of the students. Students in Japan prefer intensive total immersion approaches to ESP, as this allows them to achieve their objective of participating in a profession’s community discourse as rapidly as possible (Yoshida, 1997). In addition, they also prefer a curriculum that supplements the classroom experience with field experiences in the actual discourse community of the profession.

According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1999), ESP has three fundamental characteristics that distinguish it from other types of English language programs. An ESP program is: “designed to meet the requirements of the students; makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves; is centered on the language (grammar, lexis, register) skills, discourse, and genres appropriate to these activities” (pp. 4-5).

Some related disciplines can have overlapping content in instructional areas, such as the lexical content of the syllabus (Fuentes, 2001). For example, ESP in the health sciences forms a general lexical domain that shares terminology with disciplines such as medicine, nursing, and physical therapy. Each of the disciplines, however, has a specific corpus of knowledge that may include a separate lexicon and different approaches to language usage. The ESP approach often adopts a hierarchical perspective with the general subject domain at the base of the hierarchy and the instructional material narrowed by the discipline’s specific corpus of knowledge and the specific purpose of the students or course sponsor. At the same time, effective ESP instruction conducts discourse analysis of the communication patterns in the special purpose general subject domain, which forms the basis of the content. An underlying objective of the pedagogical approach is to achieve authenticity by ensuring the instructional materials parallel the speech and communication approaches of the genre’s discourse (Kaplan, 2002).

Instructors often base ESP on a task-oriented instructional paradigm. Dudley-Evans & St. John (1999) make a distinction between “carrier content” and “real content” in the syllabus. Carrier content involves a particular task related to the special purpose. For example, carrier content in an ESP course for software engineers can involve a program algorithm that the instructor assumes the student is already familiar. Embedded in the carrier content is the real content, which is the lexicon, grammar, style, and other language-related patterns that software engineers typically employ. One of the inherent difficulties of ESP, however, is genre analysis (Noguchi, 1997). Each profession or academic community develops communication patterns easily recognizable to its members. These communication patterns are highly structured, create usage constraints, and test the allowable positioning and functioning of terms and concepts. As a result, ESP curriculums must ensure congruence between the carrier content and the real content in the context of the genre.

Implicit in the ESP paradigm is the instructor’s sufficient familiarity with the special purpose subject matter (Spack, 1988). TEFL administrators cannot expect teachers to provide instruction in a specialized curriculum if they are not
thoroughly familiar with the lexicon, style, and idiomatic usage associated with the special purpose. The theory of ESP has a strong pragmatic component because individuals in the special purpose genre often communicate using language that is not always explicit, but rather unintelligible, to outsiders given the use of genre-specific words and idioms with implicit meaning (Tarone, 2004). From this perspective, ESP instruction requires teaching not only a lexicon, but also the implicit meaning in common words used in the professional genre. As a practical matter, finding individuals with both special purpose knowledge and ESP teaching qualifications can be difficult.

**English for Academic Purposes**

EAP instruction focuses on both the specialized terminology used in an academic setting and the stylistic expectations of the academic community for English language writing (Fuentes, 2001). Because EAP usually occurs in universities, academic institutions often directly link EAP instruction to courses in a specific academic department and sometimes include the same instructional materials. In the linked approach, sometimes called the adjunct model, the student enrolls simultaneously in a content course for a specific discipline and a language course intended to provide skills related to the discipline’s discourse community, theoretically giving the student the practical skills necessary for the academic coursework (Benesch, 2001; Dodigovic, 2005). The EAP course, however, can function independently from courses offered in a specific genre by using a general approach applicable to future studies in that genre at any institution. When an EAP course functions independently, it does not require interdisciplinary collaboration to develop content specific to an academic discipline (Kasper, 2000).

EAP instruction adopts a communicative approach that attempts to integrate the four language skills of reading, writing, speaking, and listening (Wiesin, 2000). As a derivative of ESP, EAP’s instruction is both content and task-oriented. The content relates to the types of texts and materials used in the academic environment and the specific academic genre the students are pursuing. The tasks include the activities generally expected among participants in the academic field, such as writing, speaking, and even culture awareness. In a linked approach to EAP, Kasper (2000) defines the content by the course in the primary discipline that the student is taking at the same time as the EAP course. Therefore, according to McNemara and Harris (1997), EAP instruction should include some cultural content related to the field of study in addition to the specific language content related to the discipline. In all academic studies, cultural factors can influence communication styles and methods of organization and presentation of information in the discourse community. Although the general language usage in academic genres is standardized, cultural factors can influence the way in which the language is used and the logic flow implicit in this usage. The need to provide students with some cultural information increases the complexity of the EAP curriculum, particularly if the students are from diverse cultural backgrounds.

The general approach to EAP in Japan often uses full immersion techniques in which instructors (primarily native speakers) conduct courses and give tasks entirely in English. Surveys among students participating in these courses have identified task-based techniques as being more effective in achieving the purpose of facilitating integration into the discourse community of an academic discipline (Yoshida, 1997). The tasks, however, must have a direct relationship to the discipline. The survey responses suggested that some EAP programs were deficient because of the insufficient English skills of some professors, although they were conversant with the academic discipline related to the specific academic purpose.

To this end, the Japanese EAP community is currently engaged in a debate about the parameters of specific content that non-native English teachers should teach. One of the other controversies involves the degree of specificity in EAP courses. The traditional approach to EAP structures the syllabus to meet the requirements of specific academic content courses (Benesch, 2001). In this model, the general domain of academic English forms the framework for the EAP course, the academic content courses, such as biological sciences or computer sciences, provide specific structure for the course, and the specific purpose of the students guides the actual content. The alternative position, the “compositionists,” holds that EAP should not base its content on a specific academic genre, but rather focus on improving general academic language and writing skills. Benesch (2001) bases the rationale for this position on the premise that the student will have to use academic language skills in contexts beyond a specific genre and therefore should have a broad range of skills. The traditional and composition approaches result in different emphases on lexicon and stylistic issues in the course content. A third issue related to EAP is the critique of critical theory, which suggests that EAP that focuses on an academic genre predisposes students to adopt a pragmatic approach to academic studies.
In critical theory, academic behaviors and research paradigms are relativistic with no objective truth or reality common to all individuals. Nonetheless, the social constructs used to organize knowledge and to identify roles in academia create norms and expectations for the behavior and research directions taken by students. Critical theory contends that EAP courses implicitly recommend to students that they accommodate themselves to the demands of academic assignments, the behaviors expected in classrooms, and the accepted methods of academic research. In the critical theory model of EAP, the teacher's role is limited to providing lexical and idiomatic information, with stylistic and behavioral instruction viewed as an attempt to impose the teacher's view of academic reality on the students.

Implicit in both the ESP teaching paradigm and its EAP derivative, however, is the need to provide some degree of professional acculturation to students (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2004). In addition to the language instruction, the specific academic discipline itself exposes the student to the standards, practices, and values of the field and to the discourse of its participants. From this perspective, merely learning a lexicon and stylistic approach to English as used in an academic field is not sufficient for the student to achieve the purpose of gaining access to the discipline’s discourse. The approach used for EAP in Japan rejects the relativistic position of critical theory and presumes there is an absolute norm in the discourse community. It attempts to assist the student in understanding the underlying paradigms, values, and norms of the discipline.

Another factor influencing EAP approaches are the differences in dominant communication styles of different academic disciplines. In some fields, such as computer science, the dominant form of communication is computer-mediated writing, with relatively little need for oral communications skills in the discourse community (Shamsudin & Nesi, 2006). The differences in the communication approaches used within academic discourse communities suggests that the tasks utilized in EAP instruction should be linked to a specific discipline and authentically reflect actual practices. The issue of different communication approaches in various disciplines, however, can become problematic in a generalized EAP course, with no certainty that the tasks used for instruction will provide sufficient enhancement for the narrow communication styles or methods emphasized in some disciplines.

A factor influencing the success of EAP programs is congruence between the curriculum and the needs of the students (Dodigovic, 2005). Although EAP courses intend to provide knowledge about the community discourse in advanced academic disciplines, the materials and approaches used in the instruction must match the actual language abilities of the students. If the course material used in a linked course is beyond the existing capabilities of the students, the EAP course can fail to achieve its primary objective of providing the student with the skills to participate fully in the community discourse.

CONCLUSION

ESP adherents base its instructional approach on the premise that the teaching will assist the student in achieving a specific language goal. The ESP process, however, is far more complex than the fundamental approach suggests. It requires an instructor who is fully conversant with the community discourse in the discipline associated with the special purpose and who possesses the teaching skills necessary for ESL instruction. Given the scarcity of instructors who meet both requirements, this creates inherent difficulties for ESP programs in Japan.

In addition, organizational factors, such as resource allocation among departments in an educational institution, can influence the degree of collaboration among faculty members in different disciplines. Another difficulty with linked EAP programs is that the academic discipline’s requirements drive the course tasks rather than the results of students’ needs assessment. Therefore, an effective ESP program must assess in a manner that takes into account both the requirements necessary to participate in the discourse community and the actual positioning of students relative to the language used in the community. A linked EAP program places a higher priority on the requirements necessary to participate in the discourse community and may use content and tasks beyond the capabilities of the students. Because of the design of EAP programs in Japan, classes may contain students with mixed abilities. Despite this, administrators and instructors alike expect all members of the class to attain a similar level of proficiency by the program’s conclusion.
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How The Negative Effects On Brand Equity Of Price Discounting And Financial Incentives For Performance Emanate From A Common Core

William R. Smith, Jr., Pepperdine University, Malibu, USA

ABSTRACT

Recent scandals highlighted by unethical business practices that were grounded in management’s decision to utilize financial incentives to motivate higher levels of performance have led to sometimes devastating consequences for the equity of the brands involved. Interestingly enough, similar negative consequences for a brand’s equity in the marketplace are often observed when management decides to engage in price discounting in order to drive sales. This can be especially devastating when the brand has historically been viewed as a luxury/premium/high-end product.

INTRODUCTION

The recent scandal at Wells Fargo Bank had some devastating effects (Pagliery 2016). For example, over 5,000 employees lost their jobs and the number of new accounts being opened subsequent to the disclosure of the scandalous practices plunged. As the bank’s practices came to light, it became obvious that the compensation scheme employed by the bank (providing financial incentives based on the quantity of new accounts opened) was at the root of the unethical behavior of employees. The brand’s image in the marketplace was clearly tarnished by these unethical business practices. Potential purchasers of a product view its brand as a promise of a certain level of product performance. When that promise is broken, the brand’s equity, often one of the most valuable assets of the owner of the brand, will be reduced.

There is another often used business practice that can have similar effects on a brand’s image in the marketplace. It is not unusual for the owner of a brand to resort to discounting its price in the face of falling sales. Burberry has been practicing this approach for years and has been especially aggressive about it in the past few years (Sun 2015). As Aaker (1991) has found in numerous works over the years, discounted prices are a real danger to brand equity. While this might do minimal harm to a brand that is not a market leader or viewed as a premium/high-end/luxury product, when utilized with a luxury brand or a leading brand in terms of market share, the damage to the brand’s image in the marketplace can be significant. This damage is made more alarming by realizing that a strong brand affords its owner the ability to establish and maintain prices and margins that are higher than their competitors’ (this is the essence of what many refer to as “pricing power”). The loss of this pricing power could lead to a downward spiral of the brand’s reputation and profitability and its ultimate demise.

Through the use of examples of each type of practice, this paper will examine the root causes of this type of deleterious effect. Suggestions as to how to avoid some of these pitfalls will follow.

DISCUSSION

If one is interested in the pervasiveness of the “twin” problems of the loss of brand equity caused by price discounting and by the use of financial incentives to motivate higher levels of employee performance, you need do nothing more than conduct an internet search. If you search using the term, “problems with financial incentives” you will be inundated with page after page of results. If you try the same thing searching using the term, “discounting damaging
brands,” the next tidal wave of search results will sweep over you! The negative consequences attributed to these management behaviors are overwhelming.

One of the earlier examples of a devastating loss of brand equity is interesting in that it started with poor management decisions driven by financial incentives for performance and then was compounded by discounting prices in an effort to regain market share. Since its founding in 1848, Schlitz Brewing had been built into a solid and profitable company. One hundred years later, it reached the pinnacle of being the best selling beer in America. For a decade, from the late 1940’s to 1957, it held this title (Cornell 2010). In 1957 it was displaced by Anheuser-Busch’s Budweiser brand as the best-selling U.S. brand. The response to this assault on their market share by the country’s largest brewer eventually resulted in management decisions that started the company down a path of destruction. The resulting cost cutting measures ranged from lower quality ingredients to faster processes. The end result was a very different taste of the beer and the market took notice. Sales (and profits) dropped precipitously. Since management’s salary increases and bonuses were tied to quarterly and annual financial performance, they decided that they should then reduce (discount) prices to combat the decrease in sales. There were periods of success in terms of increasing sales but the long-term consequences were the demise of both the company and the brand (later resurrected by a new owner after acquiring Schlitz in 1982). What a fall!

From this tale of woe from decades ago, let’s move to the more recent fall from grace of Wells-Fargo Bank. It has now become obvious that this creation of “fake” accounts by employees had been going on for a very long time (Mount 2016). As you think about why management would have created the system of financial incentives to reward employee performance based on the number of new accounts they opened, you have to wonder if there were any warnings about this type of compensation scheme. In fact, there were many. For example, research done at the Wharton School of Business (Knowledge@Wharton 2011) strongly indicated the types of behaviors to be expected with this incentive-based compensation scheme. This worked went further and suggested ways to limit the negative effects of financial incentives for performance. These expected behaviors and how to limit them will be discussed further below as suggestions are made on how managers can deal with these problems.

An article by Nobel (2013) in Forbes reports on experimental research done at the Harvard Business School (Cole, Kanz and Klapper 2012) in which bank loan officers in India participated in the experiment. The primary finding of this research is that compensation incentives affect lending decisions of bank loan officers and that these incentives have the power to change not only how the lending decisions are made but also how the loan officers perceive reality. If a compensation scheme is designed to encourage quantity rather than quality of new bank loans, this will actually cause the loan officers to favorably distort their assessment of the creditworthiness of the loan applicants. This leads to predictable outcomes of using financial incentives to motivate employees to higher quantities of approved loans. The end result is disastrous in that the default rate on these poorly performing borrowers will ultimately result I large loan losses for the bank. This is very predictable based on this and other research studies.

When it comes to the deleterious effects of price discounting on brand equity, there are some high-end brands that remain acutely aware of the potential damage to their brands. Some were shocked at the fury of Elon Musk’s reaction to learning that some employees had discounted the Tesla Model S (Wattles 2016). Musk was reported to have succinctly stated that “… we NEVER discount a new Tesla!” Other owners of luxury brands such as Louis Vuitton, Hermes and Apple are just as devoted to the avoidance of any regular use of price promotions (Olenski 2017). They have decided that any short-term increase in the number of units sold is not worth the long-term pain of significant loss of their brand’s equity.

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When it comes to price discounting, it’s quite common for managers to argue that lower prices are necessary to remaining competitive in the marketplace. Since many managers use a cost-based approach to establishing their prices, there is a logical extension of this argument that it’s necessary to cut costs in order to allow for adequate profit margins under the discounted pricing scheme. This can become a downward spiral that leads to ever-increasing rates of loss of brand equity (Altman 2015). As the market begins to realize that cost cutting of some types has led to a reduction of product quality, they begin to purchase competing products. This leads to more efforts aimed at cutting costs in order to allow even lower (supposedly “more competitive) product prices. One brand that is a classic example of this is Volkswagen. Not only has the cost-cutting become noticeable to consumers, it has also led to unethical behaviors such as cheating on emissions testing.
When discussing price discounting, managers sometimes overlook that fact that they are, at times, not able to control the discounting of prices to the end consumer. If managers do inadequate research as they seek distribution partners for their products, they may find that the members of the distribution channel (wholesalers and retailers) are engaging in much higher levels of price discounting that they desire when they are trying to preserve a strong brand image and the incumbent brand equity that results. Examples of luxury brands that have fallen victim to this phenomenon are Michael Kors and Burberry. A brand that was once on the edge of luxury, Martha Stewart, fell victim to the siren song of increased volume that was offered by a discount department store (K-Mart). While the brand did witness some short-term gains in revenues and units sold, the damage to the brands image from being found in a discount store ultimately far outweighed any positives from the increase in sales.

Many more examples of poor results from the use of financial incentives for performance and price discounting are readily accessible. Suffice it to say that any manager doesn’t have to look very hard to find some reasons to question the use of either of these approaches in their attempts to increase sales.

**IMPLICATIONS**

In the effort to find the “common core” that lies at the root of deleterious results from the use of these practices, let’s take a look at three negative effects that grow out of the use of financial incentives to motivate higher levels of performances. Knowledge@Wharton posits that the three primary negative effects resulting from using these financial incentives are: (1) they encourage bad/unethical behaviors, (2) they can create pay inequality that can lead to turnover and reduced levels of performance, and (3) they can reduce levels of intrinsic motivation. The authors go on to suggest three ways to limit these negative effects: (1) use the financial incentives primarily for tasks that are uninteresting to employees, (2) deliver the incentives in small amounts to avoid undermining intrinsic motivation, and (3) supplement the use of the incentives with major initiatives to support intrinsic motivation.

As you examine the three negative effects listed above, do you see analogous effects when organizations use price discounting? Can price discounting encourage bad, or even unethical, behaviors? One possibility arises when considering how difficult it is in today’s business-to-business markets to avoid having one’s prices become transparent to customers. While discriminatory pricing is not always illegal (or unethical), customers who learn that you are selling your product to someone else at a lower price will not only challenge that practice but they will begin to lose trust in you. This an ultimately destroy what had been a long-term, trust-based relationship. Most managers would consider this to be a “bad” outcome of the use of price discounting.

What about creating pay inequality that leads to turnover and reduced levels of performance? There would seem to be little doubt that in an environment of commission-based compensation, discriminatory price discounting could lead to this type of pay inequality. If management cannot communicate strong justifications of this type of inequality, it seems a near certainty that some employees will seek new employment due to being disillusioned. This accompanying loss of morale will lead to reduced levels of performance for many of them.

Finally, is it possible that price discounting could lead to a loss of intrinsic motivation? This could be thought about in several different ways but let’s harken pay to the notion of fairness. If some employees are intrinsically motivated by what they perceive of as their organization’s commitment to treating all customers fairly, they might perceive price discounts as being unfair to those who purchased at higher prices or are unable to purchase at the time that the discount if offered. This could very well reduce an employee’s intrinsic motivation.

So, looking at price discounting in comparison to financial incentive for performance does lead to the possibility that the negative effects from each of these practices have something in common.

**IMPLEMENTABLE ACTIONS**

While comparing thoughts about the use of financial incentives to motivate higher levels of performance to the use of pricing discounts is interesting, it’s likely not very useful to practicing managers in the absence of ideas for how actions can be executed that will make a positive difference in the organization.
From an overarching perspective, the most important (and challenging) action that could be taken to ameliorate the negative for both the use of financial incentives and the use of price discounting would be to adopt a mid- to long-term time horizon for measuring both individual and corporate levels of performance. It has become incumbent on today’s leaders of public companies to understand and to be able to effectively communicate to stakeholders the importance of adopting and maintaining a long-term view of performance. For example, you know it has been tempting at times for Apple to resort to greater us of price discounts to achieve short-term financial performance goals. However, senior management has been consistent for decades in maintaining their commitment to the long view. When you look at what the results have been in terms of overall performance, it would be hard to argue with a company that does adopt this type of approach performance analysis.

An example of this from the financial services industry would be to tie the compensation of loan officers or other service providers to how well the loans that were approved actually perform (e.g., do they pay on time in order to avoid defaulting). This scheme will likely make the credit analysis function more robust when examining the borrower’s creditworthiness than a compensation scheme that emphasizes the quantity of production of new loans. If the bank’s profitability is adversely impacted by having fewer loans, an application fee used to cover the costs of having the employee be more meticulous in their credit analysis could compensate for that.

Two other “root causes” for the negative effects of these two prevalent practices would be the use of cost cutting and making poor choices related to partners in your distribution channel. One should be very careful when considering cost cutting as part of an effort to reduce prices with history proving that markets can react very poorly to reduced levels of quality (see Schlitz and Volkswagen examples). Michael Kors and other have demonstrated that if you set up a distribution channel with partners who tend to use price promotions excessively, you will be bargaining for long-term challenges in your efforts to build and maintain your brand equity.

While it is possible to come up with many more examples of actions that could be implemented to address the negatives that can arise from the use of these practices, these should suffice to pique the curiosity of many managers. Thinking of these practices as “two peas in a pod” might prove to be useful as well since having multiple applications for effective management techniques leads to greater organizational productivity and efficiency.

CONCLUSIONS

One can argue that the root cause of price discounting is actually the use of financial incentives to improve performance. If a significant portion of an employee’s compensation is based on some measure of company or individual performance, that employee will be motivated to take actions that will improve the metric that is being used to measure performance.

With both discounting and financial incentives for performance, long-term consequences of behaviors are often ignored in the interest of short-term performance gains.

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The Effects Of Negative Interest Rates On The Life Insurance Financials

Michael R. Santos, Sonoma State University, USA
Vincent Richman, Sonoma State University and Dalhousie University, USA
John Urbanski, Sonoma State University, USA

ABSTRACT

Extremely low or negative interest yields of fixed-income securities can be hazardous for life insurance firms because, due to tight regulations, life insurance firms invest a significant proportion of the premiums in interest bearing long-term debt instruments. We discuss the adverse effects of negative interest rates for a hypothetical insurance firm and provide calculations to show how the premiums on life insurance products and policy reserves may be changed to mitigate the effects negative interest rates.

INTRODUCTION

The persistence of the recent phenomena of extremely low and negative interest rates in the world financial markets start to worry the specialists in the life insurance sector (Davies, 2016, Hegge, 2016, and NAIC, 2016). There is a real concern that the low and negative interest rates of the long-term bonds can adversely affect insurance firm financials, earnings, capital, and reserves, because life insurance firms hold a large portfolio of fixed-income securities. Another concern is about the competitiveness of insurance whole-life saving products that promise guaranteed returns over long periods. Due to extremely low or negative interest rates, the guaranteed positive interest rates for the insurance savings products may not be feasible. Or, it is likely that life insurance sector may lose a substantial demand for its guaranteed savings insurance products. In a 2016 publication, a regulatory support organization called “the National Association of Insurance Commissioners (NAIC)” briefly summarizes the problems associated with negative interest rates environment:

The recent low interest rate environment has been a key concern for U.S. life insurers. Life insurance companies face considerable interest rate risk given their investments in fixed-income securities and their unique liabilities as their assets and liabilities are heavily exposed to interest rate movements. Interest rate risk can materialize in various ways, impacting life insurers’ earnings, capital and reserves, liquidity and competitiveness.

There has been a limited number of journal publications that analyze the life insurance firm financials. For example, some authors provide a variety of examples of insurance company-specific transactions and required financial statement entries (Mooney et al., 1995, Rejda, 2011, Vaughan and Vaughan, 2008, and Santos and Richman, 2015). Additionally, a presentation slide posted online, (Miles, 2006), reminds us how a minor change in policy reserves can have a major impact on the financials of insurance companies. However, the examples provided in the slide are not well developed. Also, none of these publications explore specifically the effects of negative interest rates on insurance firm financials. While the authors (Santos et al., 2016) analyze the effects of interest rates changes for a hypothetical life insurance firm, their analysis does not consider negative interest rate environment.

Below, we present the assumptions of a fictitious stock life insurance firm called “Trinity Life Insurance Corporation (TLIC)” on Table 1.
Table 1
ASSUMPTIONS FOR TRINITY LIFE INSURANCE CORPORATION BUSINESS OPERATIONS

1. TLIC just started its business operations.
2. TLIC issues policies once at the beginning of the year, collects premiums at the beginning of the year, and makes loss payments at the end of the year.
3. TLIC issues only one type of policy: a 10-year level term-life insurance for 40-year-old females with a face value of $100,000. The policy pays face value to dependents if the insured dies within a 10-year period.
4. The firm issues 100,000 identical policies (10-year level term-life) every year. Each policyholder pays $215 of premium annually. Therefore, annual total net premium is $21,500,000 (= $215 x 100,000). The contracts are purchased by 40-year old females with identical risk characteristics.
5. TLIC is a stock insurance company and just issued 200,000 common stock shares with a share price of $100 each. Thus, the total equity is $20,000,000 (= $100 x 100,000). The firm will distribute $0.50 per share of dividends to its investors for the first year.
6. The premiums and capital funds are invested for a one-year period at the going market interest rates from long-term bonds. Interest rate is 0% due to a low or negative interest rate environment. Therefore, investment income from interest earnings for the first year is equal to $0 [= (0%) x (41,500,000)].
7. State laws require the firm to allocate “policy reserves” (also called “legal reserves”) annually. Our policy reserves estimates will be based on data in the Social Security Administration’s 2013 Actuarial Life Table.
8. TLIC has operating expenses equivalent to 10% of Expected Losses [E(L)].
9. Also, the corporate tax rate is assumed to be 30%, and the state tax (premium tax) is assumed to be 3% of the total collected premiums.

BALANCE SHEET ENTRIES FOR THE TRINITY LIFE INSURANCE CORPORATION

TLIC raises capital by issuing 200,000 common stock shares at $100 per share for a total equity capital of $20,000,000 (= $100 x 200,000). In Table 2, the transaction is reflected on December 31, 2015 as a debit to “Cash” under Assets and a credit to “Capital” under Liabilities and Surplus. The firm has not started operations on this date and therefore “Policy Reserves” is equal to $0.

Table 2
BALANCE SHEET OF TRINITY LIFE INSURANCE CORPORATION
Before starting its operations on December 31, 2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSETS</th>
<th>LIABILITIES AND SURPLUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cash</td>
<td>$20,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy Reserves</td>
<td>$0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital</td>
<td>$20,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surplus</td>
<td>$0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL ASSETS</td>
<td>$20,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL LIABILITIES</td>
<td>$20,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AND SURPLUS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 reflects transactions at the start of operations on January 1, 2016. On that date, the firm collects $21,500,000 in premiums from 100,000 identical 10-year level term-life contracts at an annual premium of $215 per contract. The face value of each contract is $100,000, and all contracts are purchased by 40-year old females. On the balance sheet, this transaction is recorded as a $21,500,000 addition to the Cash and Investments account of $20,000,000 already there, for a total of $41,500,000.
The firm is legally mandated to set aside a portion of the $21,500,000 received in premiums as policy reserves. Based on a formula below, the firm allocates $4,873,896 in 2016 reserves as it is shown on Table 3. This entails a credit to the Policy Reserves account on the balance sheet. The remainder of the premium collected is $16,626,104 (= $21,500,000 - $4,873,896). That amount is credited to the Surplus account.

### Table 3
**BALANCE SHEET OF TRINITY LIFE INSURANCE CORPORATION**

**January 1, 2016**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSETS</th>
<th>LIABILITIES AND SURPLUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cash and Investments</td>
<td>41,500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy Reserves*</td>
<td>4,873,896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital</td>
<td>20,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surplus</td>
<td>$16,626,104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL ASSETS</strong></td>
<td>41,500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL LIABILITIES AND SURPLUS</strong></td>
<td>41,500,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*See Appendices I, II, and III for the details of policy reserve calculations.

The formula to calculate policy reserves is:

$$Policy\ Reserves = (\text{Present\ Value\ of\ Total\ Expected\ Future\ Death\ Benefits\ Payable}) - (\text{Present\ Value\ of\ Total\ Expected\ Future\ Premiums\ Receivable})$$

Determining the 2014 policy reserves amount for the TLIC requires applying the formula to the appropriate row in the actuarial estimates in Table 4. The table is based on death probabilities over 10 years as estimated by the Social Security Administration. The amounts shown under Present Value of Total Future Death Benefits Payable, Present Value of Total Future Premiums Receivable, Policy Reserves, and Expected Losses are calculated totals for 100,000 policyholders.

### Table 4
**ACTUARIAL TABLE FOR TRINITY LIFE INSURANCE CORPORATION SHOWING POLICY RESERVES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Death Probability</th>
<th>Present Total Death Payable (1)</th>
<th>Present Value of Future Benefits (2)</th>
<th>Present Value of Total Premiums (1) - (2)</th>
<th>Policy Reserves**</th>
<th>Expected Losses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0.001287</td>
<td>196,779,000</td>
<td>191,905,104</td>
<td>4,873,896</td>
<td></td>
<td>12,870,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>0.001393</td>
<td>183,909,000</td>
<td>170,432,774</td>
<td>13,476,226</td>
<td></td>
<td>13,912,072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>0.001517</td>
<td>169,996,928</td>
<td>148,990,356</td>
<td>21,006,572</td>
<td></td>
<td>15,129,372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>0.001662</td>
<td>154,867,556</td>
<td>127,580,465</td>
<td>27,287,091</td>
<td></td>
<td>16,550,343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>0.001827</td>
<td>138,317,213</td>
<td>106,206,158</td>
<td>32,111,055</td>
<td></td>
<td>18,163,190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>0.002005</td>
<td>120,154,023</td>
<td>84,870,902</td>
<td>35,283,121</td>
<td></td>
<td>19,896,367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>0.002198</td>
<td>100,257,656</td>
<td>63,578,423</td>
<td>36,679,233</td>
<td></td>
<td>21,767,846</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>0.002412</td>
<td>78,489,810</td>
<td>42,332,744</td>
<td>36,157,065</td>
<td></td>
<td>23,834,686</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0.002648</td>
<td>54,655,123</td>
<td>21,138,311</td>
<td>33,516,812</td>
<td></td>
<td>26,103,656</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0.002904</td>
<td>28,551,467</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td></td>
<td>28,551,467</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*2013 estimates from the life table of the Social Security Administration is used.

**See Appendix I for individualized “Policy Reserves” calculations.

For Trinity Life Insurance Corporation, the applicable row for 2016 is Year 1 when the policyholders are at age 40. Applying the formula to the items in that row yields the Policy Reserves amount of $4,873,896 reflected on the balance sheet.
INCOME STATEMENT ENTRIES FOR THE TRINITY LIFE INSURANCE CORPORATION

Trinity Life Insurance Corporation’s transactions will impact not only the firm’s balance sheet but also its income statement. Table 5 shows what happens to the firm’s Income Statement after one year of operations. Revenues total $21,500,000 (=$21,500,000 in premiums + $0 in interest earnings as calculated in Table 1 above). Expenses include $12,870,000 in Expected Losses, $4,873,896 in Changes in Reserves, $1,287,000 in Operating Expenses (= (0.10) x $12,870,000 in Expected Losses), and $645,000 in Premium Taxes [= (0.03) x ($21,500,000)]. Earnings before Taxes (EBT), the difference between revenues and expenses, amounts to $1,824,104. Deducting Federal Taxes of $547,231 [= (0.30) x ($2,795,573)] from EBT yields a Net Income figure of $1,276,873. Finally, the firm pays out $100,000 in Dividends [= (0.50) x (200,000)], leaving $1,176,873,856,901 in Retained Earnings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REVENUES</th>
<th>= Premium + Investment Income</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Premium</td>
<td>$21,500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investment Income</td>
<td>$0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

EXPENSES

| Benefits (Expected Losses)   | $12,870,000 = Expected Losses for the 1st year |
| Change in Reserves           | $4,873,896 = Change in reserves for the 1st year |
| Operating Expenses           | $1,287,000 = (0.10) x (Expected Losses) |
| Premium (State) Taxes = 3%   | $645,000 = (0.03) x (Premiums Received) |
| Earnings before Taxes (EBT)  | $1,824,104 = REVENUES - EXPENSES |
| Federal Taxes (30%)          | $547,231 = (0.30) x EBT |
| Net Income                   | $1,276,873 = EBT – Federal Taxes |
| Dividends                    | $100,000 = (Dividends Per Share) x (# of Shares) |
| Retained Earnings            | $1,176,873 = Net Income - Dividends |

LOW AND NEGATIVE INTEREST RATES AND LIFE INSURANCE FINANCIALS

Table 6 shows the effects of low and negative interest rates on the Trinity Life Insurance Corporation’s Net Income and EPS with 1% incremental changes of interest rates between 2% to -2%. As a start, we assume that TLIC is a profitable firm with $1,276,873 of net income and $6.38 of EPS even with 0% interest rate environment (shown in bold letters in Table 6). Assuming an increase in interest rates from 0% to 1% results in a policy reserves reduction from $4,873,896 to $2,348,564, a 51.81% or $2,525,332 drop. This reduction in policy reserves translates into a significant increase of net income (from $1,276,873 to $3,335,105) and a $10.29 increase (from $6.38 to $16.68) in EPS or a 161.19% change. Conversely, in a negative interest rate environment, a 1% drop in interest rate from 0% to -1% causes a significant increase in reserve requirements from $4,873,896 to $7,741,576 and significant decreases in net income from $1,276,873 to -$1,021,003 and EPS from $6.38 to -$5.11. Furthermore, the similar effects can be observed for the changes of interest rates from -1% to -2%. Overall, Table 6 shows that negative interest rates have significant adverse effects on the profitability of Trinity life insurance Corporation through increases in policy reserves and reduction in net income.
Table 6
THE EFFECTS OF LOW AND NEGATIVE INTEREST RATES ON LIFE INSURANCE FIRM RESERVES AND EPS*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interest Rates</th>
<th>Policy Reserves</th>
<th>$ Change in Reserves</th>
<th>% Change in Reserves</th>
<th>Net Income</th>
<th>EPS</th>
<th>% Changes in EPS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2%</td>
<td>$125,729</td>
<td>-$4,748,167</td>
<td>-97.42%</td>
<td>$5,181,590</td>
<td>$25.91</td>
<td>305.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1%</td>
<td>$2,348,564</td>
<td>-$2,525,332</td>
<td>-51.81%</td>
<td>$3,335,105</td>
<td>$16.68</td>
<td>161.19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0%</td>
<td>$4,873,896</td>
<td>$0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>$1,276,873</td>
<td>$6.38</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>$7,741,576</td>
<td>$2,867,680</td>
<td>58.84%</td>
<td>-$1,021,003</td>
<td>-$5.11</td>
<td>-179.96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-2%</td>
<td>$10,997,031</td>
<td>$6,123,135</td>
<td>125.63%</td>
<td>-$3,590,322</td>
<td>-$17.95</td>
<td>-381.18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
REFERENCES


## Appendix I

### PV OF TOTAL BENEFITS, PV OF TOTAL PREMIUMS, POLICY RESERVES, AND CHANGE IN RESERVES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEARS</th>
<th>PV of Benefits</th>
<th>PV of Premiums</th>
<th>Policy Reserves*</th>
<th>Change in Reserves</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1967.79</td>
<td>1919.05</td>
<td>48.74</td>
<td>48.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1839.09</td>
<td>1704.33</td>
<td>134.76</td>
<td>86.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1699.97</td>
<td>1489.90</td>
<td>210.07</td>
<td>75.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1548.68</td>
<td>1275.80</td>
<td>272.87</td>
<td>62.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1383.17</td>
<td>1062.06</td>
<td>321.11</td>
<td>48.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1201.54</td>
<td>848.71</td>
<td>352.83</td>
<td>31.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1002.58</td>
<td>635.78</td>
<td>366.79</td>
<td>13.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>784.90</td>
<td>423.33</td>
<td>361.57</td>
<td>-5.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>546.55</td>
<td>211.38</td>
<td>335.17</td>
<td>-26.40</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>285.51</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>285.51</td>
<td>-49.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Estimates are based on a one 10-year Term-Life Contract for a 40-year female paying $215 annual premium, and an interest rate of 0%.

## Appendix II

### PV CALCULATIONS FOR THE TOTAL BENEFITS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEARS</th>
<th>PVB*</th>
<th>Year 1</th>
<th>Year 2</th>
<th>Year 3</th>
<th>Year 4</th>
<th>Year 5</th>
<th>Year 6</th>
<th>Year 7</th>
<th>Year 8</th>
<th>Year 9</th>
<th>Year 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1967.79</td>
<td>128.70</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1839.09</td>
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<td>139.12</td>
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<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1699.97</td>
<td>151.29</td>
<td>151.29</td>
<td>151.29</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1548.68</td>
<td>165.50</td>
<td>165.50</td>
<td>165.50</td>
<td>165.50</td>
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<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
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<td>181.63</td>
<td>181.63</td>
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<td>0.00</td>
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<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>198.96</td>
<td>198.96</td>
<td>198.96</td>
<td>198.96</td>
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<td>0.00</td>
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<td>238.35</td>
<td>238.35</td>
<td>238.35</td>
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<td>238.35</td>
<td>238.35</td>
<td>238.35</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>546.55</td>
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<td>261.04</td>
<td>261.04</td>
<td>261.04</td>
<td>261.04</td>
<td>261.04</td>
<td>261.04</td>
<td>261.04</td>
<td>261.04</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*PVB refers to Present Value of Benefits Payable at the end of the year by the insurance firm. All entries apply to one 10-year term-life contract assuming the interest rate is 0%. The entries in the shaded area are calculated by using probabilities from the Actuarial Life Table (2013) at the Social Security Administration website shown on Table 4. For example, the number, $128.70 (at the third column and second row intersection), is calculated from \((0.001287) \times (100,000) / (1+0\%)\)**1 where $100,000 is the face value of the life insurance contract. Similarly, the number, 139.12 (at the third column and third row intersection), is calculated from \((1-0.001287) \times (0.001393) \times (100,000) / (1+0\%)\)**2. Again, interest rate is assumed to be 0%.
### Appendix III

#### PV CALCULATIONS FOR THE TOTAL PREMIUMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEARS</th>
<th>PVP*</th>
<th>Year 1</th>
<th>Year 2</th>
<th>Year 3</th>
<th>Year 4</th>
<th>Year 5</th>
<th>Year 6</th>
<th>Year 7</th>
<th>Year 8</th>
<th>Year 9</th>
<th>Year 10</th>
<th>TOTALS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1919.05</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>214.10</td>
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<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>1,919.05</td>
<td>1,704.33</td>
<td>1,489.90</td>
<td>1,275.80</td>
<td>1,062.06</td>
<td>848.71</td>
<td>635.78</td>
<td>423.33</td>
<td>211.38</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*PVP refers to Present Value of Premiums Receivable at the beginning of each year by the insurance firm. All entries apply to one 10-year term-life contract. The numbers in the shaded area are calculated by using probabilities from the Actuarial Life Table (2013) at the Social Security Administration website shown on Table 4. For example, the number, $214.72 (at the third column and third row intersection), is calculated from (1-0.001287) x (215) / (1+0%) ^1 where $215 is the flat one-year insurance premium paid by the insured individual. Similarly, the number, 214.42 (at the third column and fourth row intersection), is calculated from (1-0.001287) x (1-0.001393) x (215) / (1+0%) ^2. Interest rate is assumed to be 0%.
Estimated Economic Impact Of A University: Some Preliminary Results
Manzoor E. Chowdhury, Lincoln University, USA

ABSTRACT

Because of the changing financial climate facing public higher education, university administrators are seeking concrete economic justifications for their budget requests from state legislatures. This is why economic impact studies, which provide such information, are now increasingly on the “radar scope” of university administrators. A comprehensive economic impact study helps to understand the economic linkages and provides university administrators with a more precise estimate of the economic multiplier effect for their region.

This study attempts to estimate the economic impact of Lincoln University located in Jefferson City, Missouri. The impact of Lincoln University on the local and regional economies is greater than the total of the University’s direct spending on payroll, goods and services, and construction. This is because money spent by the University is spent again by the recipient employees and local businesses. A chain reaction of indirect and induced spending continues, with subsequent rounds of additional spending gradually diminished through savings, taxes, and expenditures made outside the state. This study uses the IMPLAN input-output model to estimate the direct, indirect, and induced effects of Lincoln University. Preliminary model output shows the direct, indirect, and induced economic effects of the university are $61 million, $16 million, and $28 million, respectively with a total effect of $105 million. The multiplier value came out to be 1.7 implying that every dollar of initial spending by the university generates an additional 70 cents for the economy of the region hosting the university. The study is at a beginning stage, so with new data and added scenarios the final output results may be quite different than these initial results.
Digital Enablement Of Corporate Learning

V.P.Gulati, Tata Consultancy Services Ltd., India
Shilpa Srivastava, Tata Consultancy Services Ltd., India

ABSTRACT

The world has progressed beyond globalization to Digitization. This digital reality is impacting the way people live, communicate and work. In the business world, the digital trend has led to rapid innovations, shorter product and service lifecycles, resulting in dynamic business model changes. This has resulted in the need for agility in learning and focus on digital learning initiatives, particularly in response to the expectations of Generation Y. This group is set to be the most powerful consumers and their impact on workforce and organisations cannot be ignored. They would expect the same level of networking, communication, response and flexibility as they have come to know as consumers. Digital learning tools help address these requirements, particularly given the multi-dimensional learning requirements in a corporate organisations, more so in IT companies. The paper gives a case study of one such IT major which has been successfully using digital channels for skilling its geographically diverse workforce. Particularly, the company combined digital learning and domain training requirements to create a unique industry vertical MOOC, which was the beginning of the company's digital journey. The experience in corporate learning has important pointers for the academia to ensure a smooth campus to corporate journey.

Keywords: Digital, Learning, Corporate

THE DIGITAL REALITY

The world has progressed beyond globalization to Digitization – truly connected networks that work together in real time. There are more than 3.5 trillion Internet users and the numbers grow every second. According to International Telecommunication Union (2016), close to one out of two people (47%) in the world are using the Internet. Seven billion people (95% of the global population) live in an area that is covered by a mobile-cellular network and there are over 1 billion social media users and more than 1.6 billion mobile social accounts. In fact, social media usage is fast catching up with television usage.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Global Population</th>
<th>Active Internet Users</th>
<th>Active Social Media Accounts</th>
<th>Unique Mobile Users</th>
<th>Active Mobile Social Accounts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.210 billion</td>
<td>3.010 billion</td>
<td>2.078 billion</td>
<td>3.649 billion</td>
<td>1.685 billion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: We are Social, 2015, World Newsmedia Network 2015)

Internet users and active mobile social account users year on year growth is averaging 21% and 23%, respectively. In terms of media usage, 23% of time is spent on television use, 15% on social media, 10% for traditional radio and 10% on other online activities. (GlobalWebIndex 2014, Global Social Media Trends 2015, European Publishers Council). Today, the digital technologies are pervasive. Thanks to this several trends are coming up:

- Wearable technologies and their integration with personal and professional spheres
- The education, health, real estate and hospitality sectors being revolutionized by virtual reality and augmented reality
- Growing usage of digital video content
- Social analytics
- Internet of things (estimated 50 billion IoT Sensors by 2020 and more than 200 billion “Things” on the Internet by 2030)
- Smart machines and AI (Source: Forbes)
With growing internet accessibility and usage of smart phones, organisations are using big data technologies in order to understand and analyse user behavior and patterns. Sensor networks deployed globally facilitate constant monitoring of a wide array of functions such as weather and even health patterns. Supply chains are more efficient as companies can track every step from inventory purchases to final product deliveries. Broadband, ubiquitous connectivity, cloud computing, social networking, digital fabrication, and “the Internet of things” — all are coming together to transform how people work, play, communicate, socialize, and do business.

There are radical changes happening with shorter life cycles of innovation and businesses have to be proportionately agile and aligned with these changes. They need to design their products and services for the new digital reality and this means constant reinvention if they have to survive. A lot of companies that were unable to do so disappeared. Constant reinvention is leading to rapid business model changes as they need to cope with a completely new breed of consumers in millennials.

THE MILLENNIAL NEEDS

The Millennial or Generation Y accounts for a quarter of the world’s population and the proportion is growing. Their core expectations include:

- Networked and collaborative learning
- Simple and quick communication (Millennial Y adults spend over 15 every week on the internet)
- Decision making recommendations from their peers (80% trust peer recommendations, only 14% trust advertisements)
- Eco-conscious (96% of Generation Y want an environmentally aware workplace)
- Flexible workers (56% of Generation Y prefer to work flexibly and 79% prefer mobility)

This group is set to be the most powerful consumers and their impact on workforce and organisations cannot be ignored. They would expect the same level of networking, communication, response and flexibility as they have come to know as consumers. In order to avoid churn expenses, companies need to address their requirements. Further, this generation has innovative ideas and are open to sharing them across the organization.

All these trends are bound to have an impact on the corporate learning methods, processes and tools.

IMPACT ON LEARNING

Learning is at the heart of the 21st century knowledge societies and economies. While this means work for organisations in terms of upgrading their methodologies and tools, it also means increasing demand on corporate learners. We expect 21st century skills, deep learning, lifelong learning. In order to meet these demanding objectives, technological innovation is essential.

Millennials will expect a workplace technology ecosystem that includes social networking, instant messaging, video-on-demand, blogs and wikis. These social tools will enable this generation to instantly connect, engage, and collaborate with cohorts and managers in ways that are natural to them, leading to better productivity across the enterprise. These expectations also relate directly to how they learn in the workplace.

Greater focus for the generation is growing attitude towards self-training for job related purposes, based on personal initiative. According to the Pew Research Center (2016):

- 73% adults consider themselves lifelong learners
- 63% of those who are working (or 36% of all adults) are professional learners (that is, they have taken a course or gotten additional training in the past 12 months to improve their job skills or expertise connected to career advancement.)

Engaging learners in formal learning opportunities in corporate world is a challenge all organisations have to face. Learning departments in most organizations are aware of this and are implementing elearning platforms. The various
kinds of tools being used include – elearning, live tutoring/streaming/video conferencing, video based content, online assessments and open educational resources. Gamified learning, micro-learning/learning pills, play-based learning and simulations are some of the techniques being used to engage learners today.

The social and mobile are the buzz words for this digital generation. Social, Mobile, Analytics and Cloud have a critical role to play in engaging this generation of learners. Together the SMAC trend builds learning culture and engagement by –

- Facilitating learning through a constant inflow of information and learning opportunities
- Creating a collaborative environment for sharing of knowledge and best practices

In fact, according to a survey by ATD (2015), 34% of the surveyed companies are using mobile learning. 70% of learners reported greater motivation when using mobile phones for learning and 72% reported engagement in learning. In fact, Mlearning is estimated to be a US$70 billion market by 2020, as reported.

(Source: http://info.shiftelearning.com/blog/bid/331987/mobile-learning-stats-that-will-make-you-rethink-your-training-strategy)

According to Docebo (2016), the size of the eLearning market was estimated to be over USD 165 Billion in 2015 and is likely to grow by 5% between 2016 and 2023, exceeding USD 240 Billion. Technavia estimates the size of the global corporate eLearning market to reach an approximate amount of USD 31 billion in revenue by the end of 2020. Also, the corporate eLearning market is expected to grow at a CAGR of 11.41% during the 2016 to 2020 period, according to Technavio’s analysts.

eLearning is a feasible solution to companies of varying sizes as it comes in various budgets, and helps address business needs. The introduction of social, mobile, analytics, and cloud (known as SMAC) technologies has also facilitated the adoption of eLearning solutions.

Today online learning is close to being accepted as a viable alternative for face to face learning. That online learning gives the benefits of easy access, convenience and ability to access learning material in interesting formats is well known. Innovation is peaking in this sector with digital solutions and aids with newer ideas, services and products.

THE KEY BENEFITS OF DIGITAL LEARNING

The usage of digital technologies in learning is considered by most organisations to have several benefits. The most obviously cited one is reach, particularly as organisations are built across the globe at various locations. Another benefit is consistency of the message – as opposed to instructor led class room sessions where there is no uniformity in content or delivery, digital learning tools such as WBT convey the same message irrespective of the location. Reduction in travel costs and environment friendliness are considered other plus points. Further, digital learning enables cascading of learning, creating opportunities for “train the trainer”.

Digital learning can be an important complement to blended learning, where the fundamental concepts can be delivered using WBTs and the complex ones can be done through classroom delivery. In this scenario class room training can focus on interactions and transfers, and thus the overall experience, while the digital learning can focus on content. Thus it makes learning sustainable.

From the learner point of view, digital learning enables greater control over learning. Learner can take classes anytime, anywhere and even repeat content multiple times. Assessments can be taken in privacy. Further, the learner does not have to travel to different locations for attending sessions.

CORPORATE LEARNING SPECTRUM

There is need to embed the learning innovations to suit the multi-dimensional requirement of a corporate organization, particularly in an IT organization.
Given below is a typical learning structure in an IT organization –

Table 2. Learning Requirements in an IT Organisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training Type</th>
<th>Target Groups</th>
<th>Indicative Coverage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entry Level</td>
<td>New Joinees in the company</td>
<td>Basic Concepts, Functional Training, Industry Awareness,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Quality Management, Personality Development, Technology,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Culture Foundation, Organisational Awareness and processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuous Learning</td>
<td>Experienced employees</td>
<td>Systems Training, Software &amp; IT, Quality Management,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Project oriented groups</td>
<td>Personality Development, Client Training, Culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Alignment, Latest Technology, Industry Vertical Domain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge, Functional Training, Process training,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mandatory training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic</td>
<td>Management &amp; Leadership</td>
<td>Leadership Training Programs, Management Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Programs, Global training</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Apart from the obvious skills, employees need training in client vertical. There can be several streams depending on the industry, including Product, Management & Leadership, Process (quality, risk, security, compliance, health/safety/environment, etc), Functions (Marketing, sales, HR, finance, etc), Business domain, Softskills (Etiquette, Culture, Communication etc), Language and culture initiatives. Further, large IT multinationals are active in several business streams such as software development, maintenance, services, product, BPO/KPO, and consulting.

These initiatives aim towards complete development of an employee and not just providing skills necessary to perform a function. As mentioned earlier, the business models are rapidly changing and to keep pace with the same, learning requirements also are changing rapidly. People in an IT organization need to update their skills frequently as newer business and client requirements come in. Not just the new joinees, even managers and senior resources in the company need to learn and relearn. Learning is not final in such an environment – it is a life-long process.

The focus on “life-long” learning as an employee development strategy helps build employee relationships rather than a short term solution to a “requirement”.

CASE STUDY – TRANSFORMATIONAL JOURNEY OF CORPORATE LEARNING

A case in point is one of Asia’s largest IT services company, with more than 350,000 employees spread across 55 countries worldwide. More than 70% of its employees are Millennials

As one of the global IT leaders, the company has always been traditionally strong in the area of employee training. There are a number of initiatives at the organizational level as well as at the practice level to ensure there is comprehensive learning culture. In fact, the company devotes as much as 4% of its revenues to employee development. All the learning programs are mapped to competencies and address learning needs at different proficiency levels through a competency management system. In addition, the company has several sources of learning to meet the multi-dimensional requirements:

- Knowledge management portal, which pools all information, articles, papers and learning assets.
- A dedicated Academy for industry vertical domain knowledge
Every year, the company recruits over 20,000 fresh engineers and the series of learning programs help engage them productively through virtual and classroom means. The fresh engineers are made project ready through an intense 6 week training enabling transition from campus to corporate. In fact, even before the trainees come in, they are put through a bridge program.

Further, with a massive workforce, the blend of learning programs is essentially to manage the diverse learning expectations and requirements. The company uses remote learning for a majority of its requirements (as virtual classes or recorded sessions or live streaming) for reaching out to employees across the world. Only some strategic leadership programs or lab intense sessions are delivered in a classroom setting.

**Digital Learning Kick Off by Domain Academy**

Digital learning in the company had its beginnings in 2005 when a focused Academy for domain (industry vertical) was established. Industry vertical training is important in the IT company as clients expect partners who can go beyond just technology. They expect partners to understand their environment and processes so that a better solution can be designed and delivered. Also, industry vertical knowledge enables employees to have informed conversations with clients and participate in critical decisions.

The Academy uses multiple learning mechanisms to build domain knowledge in employees across the world--

- Pure elearning courses with a learning duration of 90 days where the learner is self-directed
- Mobile supported learning with device friend learning modules
- Blended learning where instructors provide summary information and clear doubts while the online component takes care of self learning and assessments
- Class room training where there is urgent project need for out of turn training requirements
- Technology enabled instructor led sessions by means of videoconferences or webex sessions
- Collaborative learning via online discussion forums, chat with instructors and facilitators

There are some specific activities that the Academy drives –

- Consulting assistance on demand
- AV files for all the basic courses
- Research activities culminating in preparation on research reports and papers
- Annual content updation exercise based on feedback
- Initiatives to “Train the Trainer” leading to Multiplier effect
- Unique certification strategy complete with exams and soft copy certificate
- Auto generation of e-certificates for successful associates
- Analytics for insights into learner progress and usage
- Feedback mechanisms

Academy has created unique e-learning programs, which certify candidates when they successfully pass online exams, after which they receive secure soft copy certificates. The certification can be listed in the company’s competency mapping system, as proof of competency development, which would help their career progression and planning. The Academy’s learning system hinges on the open source course management system called Moodle (Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment).

The Academy has a number of innovations in the e-learning area starting with the certification program in itself, which was the first of its kind in India. Some other notable innovations are: sequential session design, randomly generated quizzes, mandatory feedback survey, auto generation of certificates, and combined learning strategies with audio-video support.
The Academy’s main intent is to provide courses that meet the requirements and demands of clients, who seek resources who understand their business and industry. These courses function as this bridge. The courses continue to be in demand in the company with an annual growth of certificates granted being about 20%. Some of the key factors driving this growth are

- **Client demand** – There is constant demand from clients to ensure that the resources earmarked for them have the required industry vertical knowledge
- **Project demand** - Projects mandate their team members to take up courses as a pre-requisite for assignments and roles, and promotions and appraisals.
- **Self Interest** – A majority of employees are driven by the need for career progression and career paths
- **Directed Learning** – Unlike pure elearning courses, the Academy offers directed learning through the support of course facilitators
- **Certification** – Academy certifications are well known within the company and among the clients.

It has over 160 mobile enabled certification courses. Further to engage learners the Academy is creating several learning “pills” ie., short videos of 2-3 minutes. Close to 1000 such “pills” have been created. Thanks to the engagement, the academy had close to 100,000 enrolments this year till date and over 35,000 certificates were granted till date,

**The Digital Learning Initiatives**

Today, close to 89% of learning delivery is through digital means with digital infrastructure such as

- Mobile apps and interfaces to facilitate mobile learning
- Knowledge management portal
- Connected classrooms.
- Web2.0 Collaborative social platform for interactions and peer learning
- Quizzing platform
- Virtual labs & simulations
- Video channels

Training for freshers uses a mix of traditional and digital means and today the company has moved into institutionalizing not only digital platforms but also digital competencies which are accessed by over 350,000 of its employees 24X7. Close to 150,000 employees learnt digital skills through internal digital platforms. During the year 2016-17 till date, the company employees acquired more than 525,000 digital competencies. Annually, the company averages over 4 million learning days of effort put in by the employees. Learning days per employee through learning platforms in the company averages about 8 (taking into account last two years). Total 770,000+ certifications were completed FY2017 till date

The digital learning efforts of the company have won it several awards and accolades at international forums.

**CONCLUSION – THE FUTURE OF LEARNING**

The future of learning in corporate learning is not too distant. Learning would be more performance oriented, with learning ecosystems facilitating real time learning. Focus would be on cohesive learning rather than traditional courses, so that participants get a more complete learning experience. Mobile learning is already gathering pace (about 34% of companies surveyed by ATD are using mlearning) and is set to further build through usage of wearable and augmented reality applications. Life-long learning is to be further cemented by means of social platforms which involve learners into discussions, feedback and real time collaboration. Learning would no longer be a standalone function but is likely to be integrated and drawn from work.

The current state of learning and future scope has relevance to the education sector. The Academic institutions also are grappling with the challenge of engaging Gen Y students and increasing competition from global institutions for student enrolments. Digital learning initiatives with a mix of collaboration and feedback orientation can be an important factor going forward. With digital technologies, universities can be available for students 24X7, 365 days a
year. Knowledge repositories, digital libraries, remote connect with faculty, experts and industry, assessment samples and mock tests, discussion forums, project communities and so on are all possible for learner engagement. The digital experience at university level would also equip students for a seamless movement from campus to corporate life, where such tools would be extensively deployed.

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Continuing Analysis Of Undergraduate Students' Ethical Perceptions Between Similar Religiously-Affiliated Institutions

Joe W. Cotter, Freed-Hardeman University, USA
Thomas W. De Berry, Freed-Hardeman University, USA
Jason J. Haen, St. Norbert College, USA
Kathleen K. Molnar, St. Norbert College, USA
Amy Vandenberg, St. Norbert College, USA

ABSTRACT

By controlling for size and existence of a religious affiliation, this study adds to the literature (which reports inconsistent research results) regarding opinions of undergraduate business students about the ethical nature of actions. Analysis of student survey data from two institutions similar in these characteristics continues in this study. Overall results have reversed from those of the previous study. In this study, there is a significant difference in student perceptions of academic-related dishonest acts between the two institutions studied, but not in business-related dishonest acts. Furthermore, after the data was separated by gender, ethical perceptions of male students differed for both academic and business-related dishonest acts between institutions while ethical perceptions of female students did not differ between institutions.

Keywords: Cheating (Education); Student Attitudes; Business Ethics; Religious Affiliation; Institution

INTRODUCTION

Evidence suggests that business students have differing opinions of actions that are ethical and those that are not and that these views may be related to the types of institutions the students attend (Comegys, 2010; Davis, 1993; Molnar et al., 2009). Results of previous research have been inconsistent regarding the relationship between business students' perceptions about ethical behavior and the characteristics of the institutions attended (Lawson, 2004; Smyth and Davis, 2004). Our previous study further explored this relationship by controlling for size and the existence of a religious affiliation of the institutions. This current study continues this research by also controlling for gender.

Numerous studies report that females are more ethical than males. Smyth, et al. (2009) found females are more ethical in both academic and business-related situations. Therefore, this study removes the possible gender bias by separating the data by gender to more closely examine the role institutions may play in student ethical perceptions. In the following sections, previous research regarding student ethical perceptions is presented, followed by a discussion of the research methods, results and implications.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

A previous study conducted by this research team (Cotter, et al., 2016) controlled for the type and size of institution attended. A significant difference between the ethical perceptions of students was detected, but only for a specific category of questions – those referencing business-related questions. To explore possible explanations about why a significant difference was found even after institution type and size were controlled, the sample size was increased. This study expands the previous research by removing the possible effect of gender while still recognizing that the type of question may be an important variable.
With a larger sample size, this study began similarly to the previous study. Namely, will students attending similar type and size institutions exhibit comparable ethical perceptions? The influence of the type and size of institution attended on the ethical perceptions of students has been widely studied, with inconsistent results reported. Molnar, et al. (2009) found students at a small, private, religiously-affiliated institution consider cheating less acceptable than do students at public universities, regardless of size. Davis (1993) found that students at small, private, liberal arts colleges cheat less than do students at large universities, whether they are public or private schools. Comegys (2010) found evidence that students attending religiously-affiliated schools have more ethical attitudes towards business than do those students attending non-religiously-affiliated schools; sizes of the six schools included in the study were not disclosed.

Smyth, et al. (2009) found the perceptions of students attending a public college were more unethical, but only for the worst types of behavior. The three schools included in the study all had enrollments of less than 3,500. Brown and Choong (2005) found no relationship between the type of school attended and either the participation in academically dishonest acts or the ethical perceptions of those acts. The public university in the study was reported as medium-sized, while the religiously-affiliated school was reported as small.

The varying results from these studies call into question whether the strongest relationship between students’ ethical perceptions is to the type of institution attended, the size of institution attended, both, or neither. Instead, perhaps the most robust relationships of students’ ethical perceptions are specific to other institutional or student characteristics. Therefore, based on results from previous research, no significant differences were expected between the two institutions’ data since both institution type and size is controlled in the study. The initial null hypothesis is:

H1: The acceptability of dishonest acts will not be significantly different between students attending religiously-affiliated schools of similar size.

The previous study conducted by this research team also took into consideration the type of dishonest acts, academic or business. This was again explored with the larger sample size. Most previous research has found that students view both academic and business dishonest acts similarly. For example, Smyth and Davis (2004) and Lawson (2004) found that most students had similar ethical views regarding academic and business situations. Similarly, Nonis and Swift (2001) and Sims (1993) found students who cheated in school tended to cheat more in the workplace. However, these previous studies included only one institution or did not control for the type and size of institution attended.

To address the possibility of the impact on results of survey instruments containing both academic and business activities, the survey instrument for this research grouped questions into academic and business questions. Thus, the following additional null hypotheses were tested:

H2a: The acceptability of academic dishonest acts will not be significantly different between students attending religiously-affiliated schools of similar size.

H2b: The acceptability of business dishonest acts will not be significantly different between students attending religiously-affiliated schools of similar size.

With its larger sample size, this study allowed for the analysis of the effect of gender differences towards the acceptability of dishonest acts on the results. Numerous studies report that females cheat less often than males (Atmeh and Al-Khadash, 2008; Guo, 2011; McCabe and Trevino, 1997; Niiya, et al., 2008; Rakovski and Levy, 2007; Yang and Huang, 2013), and Kuntz and Butler (2014) found females deem cheating and plagiarism behaviors less acceptable than their male counterparts. Cole and Smith (1995), Knotts, et al. (2000) and Ruegger and King (1992) all found that gender has a significant impact on the ethical judgments of students when asked about business situations. Females were found to be more ethical. Further, Simon, et al. (2004) found females were more likely to report a case of academic dishonesty. These previous studies suggest that a gender bias may be present, so the data was further separated by gender. Therefore, the following null hypotheses were proposed.

H3a: The acceptability of academic dishonest acts will not be significantly different between male students attending religiously-affiliated schools of similar size.

H3b: The acceptability of business dishonest acts will not be significantly different between male students attending religiously-affiliated schools of similar size.
religiously affiliated schools of similar size.

**H3c:** The acceptability of academic dishonest acts will not be significantly different between female students attending religiously affiliated schools of similar size.

**H3d:** The acceptability of business dishonest acts will not be significantly different between female students attending religiously affiliated schools of similar size.

**RESEARCH METHOD**

The methodology and survey questionnaires were based on previous research studies (Cotter, et al., 2016; Molnar, et al., 2008) for the academic dishonest acts, and added questions from research by Smyth, et al., (2004) and Lawson (2004) for the business dishonest acts. Following similar procedures from Molnar’s 2008 study, students were asked to complete a paper-based questionnaire asking their perceptions of dishonest acts. Questionnaires were used since the intention to engage in a behavior is a good predictor of behavior (Beck and Ajzen, 1991). Asking respondents to report perceptions of cheating rather than how often they engage in cheating is less threatening and likely to yield more honest responses (Kisamore, et. al., 2007).

In spring 2015, fall 2015 and spring 2016 semesters, surveys were administered to undergraduate students at a small, private, Catholic, liberal arts college in the Midwest and a small, private, Christian university in the Southeast United States. Both institutions are religiously-affiliated and have enrollments of approximately 2,000 students. The majority of respondents were traditional students who had mainly business-related majors.

Survey questions regarding dishonest acts were coded on an interval assumed Likert-scale of 1 to 5, with 1 representing “strongly disagree” with the acceptance of the dishonest act and 5 indicating “strongly agree” with the acceptance of the dishonest act, as perceived by the subject. Therefore, the lower the overall score, the less likely the student felt it was acceptable to commit the dishonest act. The survey asked how the students felt about academic dishonest acts (such as cheating on assignments or exams) and business dishonest acts (such as lying on an employment application or to an employer). Using SPSS, researchers performed independent sample t-test analyses using the dependent variables of user responses to all questions relevant to this research and by categories of academic dishonest questions and business dishonest questions. The mean value of the student responses for each category was used. The larger the mean value of the response represents the more strongly the student agrees that it is acceptable to commit that type of dishonesty.

**RESULTS**

A total of 521 usable questionnaires were collected; 333 were from the Midwestern Catholic college, and 188 were from the Southeastern Christian university. The majority of respondents were business-related majors (over 85%). Sixty-one percent of the respondents were male, and 39% were female. Fifty-four percent were underclassmen (freshman and sophomores) and 46% were upperclassmen (juniors and seniors). Over 66% of respondents indicated they had a GPA of 3.0 or higher.

The researchers performed a principal factor analysis on the Likert questionnaire using the 12 questions relevant to this study. Two primary factor groups remain (after a varimax rotation) which are labeled academic and business dishonest acts respectively. The two-factor solution was obtained using eigenvalue greater than one criterion and factor loadings > 0.5 as suggested by Hair, et al. (1995). Academic dishonest acts had eight questions with factor loadings ranging from .690 to .814, and business dishonest act questions had four questions with factor loadings ranging from .541 to .795. This is consistent with other research using this questionnaire.

Table 1 shows the results by institution overall (for all questions relevant to this study) and by factor (academic versus business categories) between institutions. The t-test results for all questions indicate rejection of hypothesis H1 and reveal that there is a significant difference between the two institutions. The first institution has a lower mean, indicating more ethical responses from its student participants for all relevant questions combined. The t-tests results by the two factor groups isolated (academic dishonest acts and business dishonest acts) show a significant difference.
existing between the two institutions for the academic dishonest acts factor. There is no significant difference with the business dishonest acts factor. These results indicate rejection of hypothesis H2a since the first institution’s mean was lower for the academic-related questions, which indicates more ethical responses from its student participants for these questions. However, hypothesis H2b should not be rejected, as there was no significant difference in the responses related to business-related questions between the institutions.

### TABLE 1. T-TESTS BY INSTITUTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>College</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic and Business</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>20.162</td>
<td>5.822</td>
<td>-2.945</td>
<td>.003*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>21.846</td>
<td>6.985</td>
<td>-4.488</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic-Related Only</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>12.73</td>
<td>4.174</td>
<td>1.614</td>
<td>.107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>14.76</td>
<td>5.334</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business-Related Only</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>7.43</td>
<td>2.257</td>
<td>-4.488</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>7.09</td>
<td>2.436</td>
<td>1.614</td>
<td>.107</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at p<.05

To control for gender, this study split the data into male and female subsets. Table 2 shows the results by males, by question factor (academic versus business categories) by institution. The t-tests results by the two factor groups isolated (academic dishonest acts and business dishonest acts) show a significant difference existing between the two institutions for the academic dishonest acts factor and for the business dishonest acts factor. Therefore, the results indicate rejection of both hypotheses H3a and H3b. However, the first institution’s mean was lower for the academic-related questions, but the second institution’s mean was lower for the business-related questions.

### TABLE 2. T-TESTS BY MALES BY FACTORS BY INSTITUTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>College</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic-Related Only</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>13.35</td>
<td>4.317</td>
<td>-4.045</td>
<td>.000*</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>15.61</td>
<td>5.468</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business-Related Only</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>7.88</td>
<td>2.293</td>
<td>2.218</td>
<td>.027*</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>7.26</td>
<td>2.526</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at p<.05

Table 3 shows the results by females, by question factor (academic versus business categories) by institution. The t-tests results by the two factor groups isolated (academic dishonest acts and business dishonest acts) show no significant differences existing between the two institutions for the academic dishonest acts factor or the business dishonest acts factor. Therefore, neither hypothesis H3c and H3d are rejected.

### TABLE 3. T-TESTS BY FEMALES BY FACTORS BY INSTITUTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>College</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic-Related Only</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>11.86</td>
<td>3.829</td>
<td>-1.844</td>
<td>.068</td>
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<td>63</td>
<td>13.03</td>
<td>4.318</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business-Related Only</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>6.78</td>
<td>2.035</td>
<td>.218</td>
<td>.828</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>6.71</td>
<td>2.128</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at p<.05

### DISCUSSION

As a longitudinal study, the results were compared to those of the previous study (Cotter, et al., 2016). Overall these results are completely reversed from those of the previous study. In this study, student perceptions of dishonest acts overall were significantly different between the two institutions, with the Midwestern Catholic college scoring as more ethical in the combined results and in academic dishonest acts. However, when comparing responses related to business dishonest acts, there is no significant difference between the two institutions. In the previous study, the only significant difference between the institutions was the Southeastern Christian university was more ethical in business-related questions. It is unclear what has changed since the 2016 study. It may be that more data is making differences visible that were not measurable in the previous study.

The reversal of results from the previous study is interesting. Various factors were suggested to attempt to discover the
reason for the reversal. No significant changes in the curricula, research methods and timing, or analysis have been discovered. Gender was identified as a factor that might be contributing to the different results. The previous study had a large number of male respondents (61%), but did not have enough data to separate responses by gender. This study’s analysis shows that females at both institutions hold similar ethical perceptions regarding both academic and business acts. Males are significantly more ethical regarding academic dishonest acts at the Midwestern Catholic college than at the Southeastern Christian university. However, males at the Southeastern Christian university are significantly more ethical regarding business dishonest acts.

First, it is interesting that males and females differ in the results. Additional research regarding gender impact may yield pertinent information that can be used to reinforce ethical actions for each gender. A possibility of a gender-based inclination of students to provide answers perceived to be "expected" (to qualify the student as "ethical") is also considered. Regardless, it is important that gender be controlled for in order to achieve more consistent results.

Second, for male students only, the results are reversed between the institutions based on the type of question (academic vs. business). It should be noted that most students have more firsthand experience making academic ethical decisions since they make them on an almost daily basis when in school. Business decisions may be somewhat foreign to them, resulting in less certainty in how they would handle dishonest acts when engaged in business. Therefore, these differences may be based on the level of employment experiences the students may have such as jobs or internships. The reversal of male student perceptions will be a subject of continued analysis as the study continues. If it is possible to determine factors contributing to the reversal, we may be able to identify actions that contribute to ethical decision making.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This study examined the idea that students attending small, religiously-affiliated institutions may have similar perceptions about the ethical nature of various activities when controlling for these two primary characteristics of institutions participating in the research. The number of institutions involved and the overall number of study participants continues to limit this study.

Continuation of this longitudinal research will yield additional data. Additionally, future extensions of this research may include the introduction of other institutions varying in size and religious affiliation. Other characteristics of the participating institutions such as the existence or absence of a formal honor code, the existence or absence of required religion and/or ethics courses in students’ programs of study, a student’s level of involvement in their religion, level of employment experience or geographic regional locations, may produce fruitful results in the future when studying relationships between students’ ethical perceptions and other specific institutional characteristics. Eventually, the larger data set may be used in expanded research studies that compare results to those from larger institutions, and perhaps those without a religious affiliation.

REFERENCES


How Well Do K-12 Classroom Teachers Meet The Needs Of English Learners In U.S. Schools
Nina L. Nilsson, Saint Joseph’s University, USA
Ailing Kong, Saint Joseph’s University, USA

ABSTRACT
The purpose of this study was to investigate how well K-12 teachers in the U.S. who work with English learners meet the needs of their students. The data consist of 61 interviews of K-12 teachers. Categories of information covered in each interview reflected evidence provided in the International Reading Association’s Standards for Reading Professionals, in the Diversity Standard 4 (Elements 4.2 and 4.3; IRA, 2010). Data were coded using Miles, Huberman and Saldana’s (2013) guidelines and aggregated by program model, teacher ELL training, and school level, with codes then used to generate pattern-based themes. Findings suggest schools at the elementary and secondary levels may benefit from offering professional development and support to help teachers learn ways to assess students’ deep culture, and to use what they learn to advocate for social equity. Teacher education programs also may need to broaden their orientation to include more “sociocultural consciousness and intercultural teaching” (Zeichner, 2009, p. 148) rather than focusing primarily on pedagogy and content area knowledge, as is oftentimes the case (Guttierez & Lee, 2009). Also, professional development at the school district level is needed to help teachers learn how to use students’ English-language proficiency data to improve instruction and provide access to class content. Other implications for teacher education programs are to engage candidates in identifying biases in curricular materials and to introduce systemic functional linguistics (Halliday, 1985; Schleppegrell & Go, 2007) in teacher-training programs in order to help teachers better understand the relationship between language functions and language forms.

Keywords: English Learner (EL), English Language Learner (ELL), English As A Second Language (ESL), K-12 U.S. Schools

INTRODUCTION
An area of great concern for classroom teachers in U.S. schools today is the growing number and low performance of English learners (ELs). For example, U.S. public school enrollment of ELs grew by 56% from 1995-2005, nearly seven times total school enrollment (Batalova, Fix, & Murray, 2007; NCELA, 2006). While the number of ELs in U.S. public schools continues to grow (U.S. Dept. of Ed., 2015), ELs are falling further and further behind their classmates. From 2005-2011, the gap between the NAEP reading scores of eighth-grade ELs and non-ELs in the U.S. increased from 26% to 31% (U.S. Dept. of Ed., 2015). Even more alarming is the fact that more than 59% of all Latino ELs, the largest group of immigrant youth in the United States, drop out of school before graduating (Fry, 2003).

Despite these concerns, in over 30 states in the U.S., there are no teacher certification program requirements for courses addressing the needs of ELs (ECS, 2016). Recognizing the critical need for preparing professionals to teach effectively the diverse student population in schools today, in a separate “Diversity” standard, the International Reading Association describes what teachers in various roles should know and be able to do in professional settings in working with ELs and other diverse students (IRA, 2010). However, to date, there is no study examining how effectively teachers in U.S. classrooms today achieve these goals. This topic became the focus of the current study.
PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study examines the professional practices of K-12 teachers in meeting the needs of ELs in class. Specifically, this study asks the following two research questions: 1) How do elementary- and secondary-level teachers in a major metropolitan area of the Northeast in the U.S. compare in their instructional practices with ELs in terms of how teachers assess diversity (surface and deep culture), differentiate instruction and materials, and provide instruction and materials linked to students’ backgrounds?; and 2) How do the teachers compare in how they provide students with linguistic, academic, and cultural experiences that link their backgrounds with content area learning, advocate for change in societal practices and instructional structures that are inherently biased against certain groups, and provide opportunities for social justice activism and resiliency in the literacy curriculum?

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

The data collected for this study consisted of 61 papers written by graduate students enrolled in four sections of a literacy, language and culture course required for the teacher education program at a private university located in the Northeastern region of the U.S. During their field experiences for the course, teacher candidates interviewed their cooperating teachers who all had ELs in their elementary and secondary classrooms. Categories of information addressed during each interview and written up in the papers were outlined in advance and corresponded to Elements 4.2 and 4.3 of IRA Standard 4: Diversity. Some additional information (e.g., school information, teacher’s prior training in working with ELs) was required, as well.

Data were coded using Miles, Huberman and Saldana’s (2013) guidelines and aggregated by program model, teacher ELL training, and school level (i.e., elementary vs. secondary). The aggregated data were then used to generate pattern-based themes, which allowed for identifying similarities and differences in the diversity-related professional practices of teachers in each context.

FINDINGS

Research Question 1. Regarding the first research question, the findings reported here pertain to the submersion, or “sink or swim,” classroom contexts (n=26; elementary level=10; secondary level=16), since this is the most common classroom model with ELs in the U.S. (Garcia & Kleifgen, 2010). In terms of assessing diversity, the degree and form of assessments used ranged along a continuum, with 6 different categories of assessment types reported. Some assessment forms overlapped across school levels (4), with some differences (2). Only 8% (5/60) of the assessment forms reported evaluated “deep culture,” implemented mostly by teachers working in schools where there was a strong focus on cultural diversity, including “deep culture.” As for differentiating instruction, five different profiles of schools were identified, with 17 forms of differentiation of instruction reported. Less than 5% (4/85) of the instances of differentiation of instruction reported involved use of English-language proficiency (ELP) levels to guide language adjustments and instruction. All teachers who used students’ ELP levels to differentiate instruction had prior graduate-level ESL training or ESL endorsement. With regard to linking instruction and materials to ELs’ backgrounds, more teachers at the elementary than secondary level (50% vs. 27%) linked materials to students’ backgrounds, whereas more secondary-level teachers linked instruction to students’ backgrounds (73% vs. 50%).

Research Question 2. With regard to the second research question, findings are based on the analyses of interviews with 19 elementary teachers and 40 secondary teachers. Data analyses suggest a high percentage of both elementary (68%) and secondary (73%) teachers created opportunities for students to make connections to their cultural and linguistic backgrounds in class discussions, learning activities, or class assignments. Forty-two percent of elementary teachers and 45% of the secondary teachers reported taking measures to advocate for change in societal practices and institutional structures that are inherently biased or prejudiced against certain groups. Teachers also taught about diversity, tolerance and respect for all cultures, although more elementary teachers (63%) reported doing so than secondary teachers (40%). More elementary teachers (74%) than secondary teachers (50%) reported reaching out to parents and caregivers to learn about their students’ backgrounds. However, data analyses also suggest only a small percentage of teachers (0% of elementary teachers and 13% of secondary teachers) pointed out to their students the biases in textbooks or readings. Less than a quarter of the teachers (21% of elementary teachers and 23% of secondary teachers) participated in cultural events or conducted teacher research to learn about their students’ communities. Few
teachers (0% of elementary teachers and 5% of secondary teachers) reported valuing language functions (meaning, concepts, & communication) over language forms (accuracy).

CONCLUSIONS

In assessing diversity, most teachers at both levels reflected narrow views of cultural diversity, assessing surface aspects of culture, and gaining few insights into students’ values, beliefs and practices, with the exception of a small percentage of teachers with graduate-level ESL training or ESL endorsement and strong district support focused on diversity. In differentiating instruction in terms of process, across both levels, those with graduate-level ESL training or ESL endorsement used students’ ELP levels to adjust language expectations and adapt instruction. However, not all teachers, including teachers with ESL training, showed evidence of knowing how to differentiate process by using these levels. In terms of linking instruction and materials to students’ backgrounds, elementary teachers reported doing both to similar degrees. In contrast, secondary-level teachers reported linking instruction to students’ backgrounds more often than materials.

IMPLICATIONS

Findings suggest schools at both levels (elementary and secondary) may benefit from offering professional development and support to help teachers, including some who already received ESL training, learn ways to assess their students’ deep culture, and how to use what they learn to develop and implement strategies to advocate for equity. In addition, teacher education programs may need to broaden their orientation to include more “sociocultural consciousness and intercultural teaching” (Zeichner, 2009, p. 148) from an orientation oftentimes focused more on pedagogy and content area knowledge (Guttierez & Lee, 2009). Also, more district-wide professional development is needed to help teachers learn how to use students’ ELP data to improve instruction and provide access to class content. Other implications for TE programs are to engage candidates in identifying biases in curricular materials and introduce systemic functional linguistics (SFL) (Halliday, 1985; Schleppegrell & Go, 2007) to help the teachers better understand the relationship between language functions and language forms.

AUTHOR BIOS

Nina L. Nilsson is an Associate Professor in the Teacher Education Department at Saint Joseph’s University, Philadelphia, PA, U.S.A, where she teaches graduate- and undergraduate-level courses on topics related to literacy, language and culture. Her research interests include diverse literacy learners and teacher preparation. Dr. Nilsson’s work appears in a number of scholarly books and journals, including The Reading Teacher, Reading & Writing Quarterly; and Critical Issues in Teacher Education. Dr. Nilsson has presented at numerous national and international literacy conferences, including the International Reading Association, Literacy Research Association, National Council of Teachers of English, and Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers.

Ailing Kong is an Associate Professor of Education at Saint Joseph’s University in Philadelphia, U.S.A. She received her BA degree in English Language from Beijing Foreign Languages Institute, China, her MA in TESOL from University of London, Britain, and her Ph.D. in Educational Psychology from Michigan State University. She has taught students at elementary, secondary and university levels. Dr. Kong has done research on Book Club, reading strategies, and teaching English Language learners. She has presented at national and international conferences and published in scholarly journals, including The Reading Teacher and Research in the Teaching of English.

REFERENCES


Antithetical Rubrics For The Assessment Of Collaborative Learning
Ryuji Ishikawa, University of the Ryukyus, Japan
Minako Yogi, University of the Ryukyus, Japan

ABSTRACT

This study proposes antithetical rubrics as an innovative solution to the challenges faced by dual assessments indispensable for collaborative learning. Rubrics, in their existing form, are useful assessment tools of learning outcomes. However, while they are effective in most every field of learning, the learning outcomes are measured on single scales such as “content: excellent to poor.” Single scales are not suitable for collaborative learning where mutually opposing pairs of competencies such as “leadership and assistantship” and “consistency and flexibility” need to be simultaneously measured. Learning 21st century competencies such as critical thinking, problem solving, innovating, communicating, and collaborating, require acquisition and integration of complex social skills and attitudes. In collaborative learning, particularly, the outputs of teams are not always consistent with the individual qualities of members. Therefore, individual qualities must be assessed appropriately with the qualities of the team products. However, the individual qualities involved consist of mutually opposing pairs of competencies, a problem which antithetical rubrics attempt to resolve.
Adolescent Entrepreneurial Education: What’s Missing From Entrepreneurial Motivation
Alfonza Darnell Jr. (BiG Al), International School of Management, USA

ABSTRACT

There has been an immense amount of research conducted on entrepreneurial education as well as entrepreneurial motivation. Entrepreneurial education is even being implemented as early as kindergarten by organizations such as Junior Achievement, which started doing so in 1992 (Scotter, et al., 1996). Entrepreneurial motivation, as enumerated in Shane, Locke & Collins’ article, Entrepreneurial Motivation, consists of six quantitative characteristics: 1) Need for achievement, 2) Risk taking, 3) Tolerance for ambiguity, 4) Locus of control, 5) Self-efficacy and 6) Goal setting (Shane, et al.). While these six characteristics do well in covering many of the entrepreneurial motivations of adults, they neglect to comprehensively encompass all of which motivates adolescents. As a result of this host of research I have developed a new construct in regard to that missing motivational characteristic. This construct will also be applicable in dozens of other industries to implement measurable change and improvement in the field of educating and motivating adolescents to better learn and retain entrepreneurial education as well as become entrepreneurs. The purpose of this paper is to answer the question, what primary motivator of adolescents engaging in entrepreneurial endeavors is currently missing from the canals of research literature.
Passion Seminars: An Interdisciplinary Approach To Building Basic University Success Skills For Freshmen At Salve Regina University

JD Swanson, Salve Regina University, USA

ABSTRACT

In 2013 Salve Regina University, a Sister of Mercy liberal arts university located in Newport RI introduced a new core curriculum. One of the key features of this curriculum was the addition of two “passion seminars” in our freshman sequence. The purpose of these seminars was to allow the faculty flexibility in teaching a subject that is their passion while concurrently teaching key skills that freshmen require to have a greater chance of being successful in college. The first class, taken in the fall, aims at initial key skills such as research, basic writing, organization, and speaking skills, while the second course, taken in the spring, builds on these skills and develops college writing. To date, a wide variety of class topics has been offered all with the deep aim of helping students be successful in college. This presentation is a demonstration of one such class that is offered in the first semester. This class, titled “Moving Meditation” is based around Shotokan Karate, and is broken down into a physical component and a classroom component. The two components work together to bring a wide variety of skills into the freshman experience. The practical portion exposes students to a new culture and is taught using the Japanese culture and language. While the class component equally discusses the history, biomechanics, and philosophy of the Asian martial arts. These topics give the students an opportunity to practice research skills, develop different forms of writing skills, and work on presentation skills. Additionally, we make use of a “peer mentor” a junior or senior level student who works with the faculty member to teach 15-minute writing snippets to help develop the mechanics of college level writing. This presentation will discuss the design, implementation, and execution of this class over its first three years, as well as the challenges and successes the university has faced introducing these classes.
Creating Extraordinary Leaders Through Exemplary Followership

Jasmine D. Darnell, Pepperdine University, USA

ABSTRACT

Currently in the workplace within the United States, only 30% of employed residents are engaged at work (Adkins, 2015). There is a need to increase this percentage as a means to counter the impending productivity and profitability gap due to disengagement. Robert Kelley (1988), conceptualized Followership to identify, create, and encourage organizations to raise up effective employees known as exemplary followers. These exemplary followers are trained to take on leadership roles that have increasing independent critical thinking and active employee engagement responsibilities within the organization (Latour & Rast, 2005). Active engagement and critical thinking are the major components of creating exemplary followers and are essential skills for leaders in all types of settings (Dyck, Walker, Starke & Uggerslev, 2012). In their followership study, Latour and Rast (2005), conclude, “We determined that these competencies should enable followers to become leaders almost effortlessly” (p. 109). Thus, it is the opinion of this researcher that exemplary followers can be created through the training of critical thinking and active engagement.

From the creation of exemplary followers, employee transition into leadership will be “effortless.” To create a pipeline of leaders, this researcher will conduct a survey investigation of exemplary followers’ external contributors to independent critical thinking and active engagement performance in the workplace based upon employee external work environments. This research, an innovative approach to leadership and followership development, examines the influence of employee external behaviors within leadership and followership research for the purposes of creating a training program in the workplace. This presentation seeks to explore the exemplary follower effects of external behaviors in a leadership development program for the purpose of improving leadership development, management training, followership breeding, and employee recruitment.
Combination Of Team-Based Learning And A Massive Open Online Course In A General Physics Flipped Classroom

Jo-Chi Jao, Kaohsiung Medical Universit, Taiwan

ABSTRACT

Flipped classroom is a student-centered teaching strategy. This study aimed to investigate the impact of the combination of Team-based learning (TBL) and a Massive Open Online Course (MOOC) on student's learning outcome in a flipped classroom of General Physics. Three TBL modules about Mechanics were developed over the fall semester in 2014 in a medical university. Each TBL module included pre-class preparation, individual readiness assurance test (iRAT), team readiness assurance test (tRAT), and individual review test (iRET). The pre-class reading materials were assigned from a textbook and a MOOC: Easy to Learn Mechanics, which was granted by the Ministry of Education in Taiwan in 2014. The topic of the first TBL module was “Momentum and Collisions”. The grades of 41 students about the first TBL module were evaluated using paired t-test statistical analysis. Results demonstrate that the mean score on tRAT was significantly higher than the mean score on iRAT (p < .001), and the mean score on iRET was also significantly higher than the mean score on iRAT (p < .001). There were no significantly difference between the mean scores of tRAT and iRET. The results indicate that students has positive learning outcome on the topic of “Momentum and Collisions”. Students can realize their misconceptions and make corrections through group discussions. This finding will help the course instructor to have a better design in the future general physics course by combining TBL and a MOOC in a flipped classroom.

Keywords: Flipped Classroom, Team-based Learning, Massive Open Online Courses, Learning Outcome, General Physics, Mechanics
Creativity, Innovation & Leadership
Alfonza Darnell Jr. (BiG Al), International School of Management, USA

ABSTRACT

Creativity and innovation are two very distinct, yet inextricably interlinked phenomena. This paper posits that it takes a specific type of leadership to animate and progress creativity into an actual and successful revolutionary innovation. Bearing in mind the myriad of variations that leadership, creativity and innovation can take, this paper will focus on charismatic leadership, team-level creativity and blended innovation, each of which will be further defined below. The purpose of this paper is to add to the current body of knowledge, both the impetus and a time-proven method leading to how revolutionary innovation is both created and sustained. All things in physical existence operate within observable patterns. These patterns can be identified as oscillations within registered standard deviations or by time-measured seasons. Nonetheless, this volleying of flexing to relaxing and back to flexing is what generates a sustainable fiber that endures invariable environmental changes that will in one way or the other challenge the existence of any phenomena. The goal of this paper is to present research validating the concept that team-level creativity, when guided by charismatic leadership leads to a sustainable, blended innovation when strategic timing is introduced as a moderator.
Determinants Of Outward FDI: Evidence From Norway, Sweden And Denmark
Shaista Nisar, University of Tampa, USA

ABSTRACT

Using cointegrating regressions with Fully Modified OLS (FMOLS) and the vector autoregressive and error correction model (VAR/VECM) on quarterly data, this study is examining the impact of micro-level (firm-specific) factors and macro-level (country-specific) factors on outward foreign direct investment (FDI) in three small open economies: Norway, Sweden and Denmark under the location specific advantage. Norway, Sweden and Denmark are small open economies which share many common features: they are about the same size, they belong to the same cultural block and their political institutions and traditions share many of the same characteristics. This allows us to explore the differences and similarities in the internationalization process of their MNEs.

Keywords: Foreign Direct Investment, MNE, Norway, Sweden, Denmark
Global Leadership  
And Emotional Intelligence  
Jay W. Edwards, PhD, Lincoln Memorial University, USA  
Andrew E. Honeycutt, DBA, Anaheim University, USA

ABSTRACT

Emotional intelligence influence on leadership is a developing field, as such, the question of what constitutes a successful leader in the global marketplace yields a long list of factors, most of which are not adequately conceptualized and operationalized, and are often based on intuition rather than empirical verification (Morrison, 1999). It is important to understand some of the key characteristics of emotional intelligent leaders to discuss how global leadership contributes to the development of such characteristics. The emotional intelligent leader and manager are expected to play several critical roles, such as integrator, coordinator, innovator, coach, and strategy developer. In order to fulfill these roles, the global leaders of today must have several competencies.

INTRODUCTION

Emotionally intelligent (EL) leaders whom are considered servant leaders take a transformational approach to leadership. Story (2011) lists the following characteristics that make an emotionally intelligent servant leader: listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people and building community. The possession of these characteristics allow the servant leader to lead others through consensus building and team development. Servant leaders behold the needs of others as the highest priority.

Wong (2007) suggested emotional intelligent leadership is not new. It is about influence rather than power and control. It is about inspiration rather than position and title. It is about character and caring rather than skills. EL is about creating a climate of love rather than a culture of fear, it focuses on others’ strengths rather than weaknesses, it is about listening rather than giving orders, it is about humility rather than pride, it is about long-range benefits rather than short-term profits, it is about global vision rather than territorial instinct. Servant leadership is about creating new futures rather than maintaining the status quo. From a global perspective, servant leadership seems to offer an answer to recent concerns about corporate scandals, toxic work environment, employee-burnout, and retention problems (Wong, 2007). These attributes of servant leadership will find utility in an increasingly connected global business environment where the needs of multiple stakeholders will need to be met.

The successful organizational leader possesses a variety of qualities that work to positively impact a company’s bottom line. According to McEwan and Bradbury (2015), leaders must work to put aside their own self-interests and those of their individual business unit and act in the best interest of the organization as a whole. However, in order to work most effectively within the organization, leaders must first understand themselves and their own emotions in order to be able to lead people and understand other’s emotions. This concept is defined as emotional intelligence (EI).

The concept of emotional intelligence encompasses a leader’s ability to understand their emotions sufficiently to be able to communicate with others more effectively (Gines, 2015). By managing their own and understanding others’ emotions, EI leaders can better relate to others through intangible qualities such as self-awareness, empathy and motivation. EI can also encourage employee creativity, which can lead to increased job satisfaction (Jafri, Dem & Choden, 2016).
DEFINITION

According to Mayer, Roberts and Barsade (2008), emotional intelligence (EI) was discussed in 1950’s literature and psychology prior to the emergence of the four-branch model of EI in the 1990’s. That model, developed by Salovey and Mayer (1990), as referenced by Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2004), described EI as “the ability to a) perceive emotion, b) use emotion to facilitate thought, c) understand emotions, and d) manage emotion” (p. 199). EI is also described as being able to know one’s own and other’s feelings and to use that information to make informed decisions (Jafri, Dem & Choden, 2016). The emotionally intelligent leader uses these abilities to communicate goals effectively to subordinates and motivate subjects to be productive employees, while understanding the importance of emotions and positive social interactions.

THE CASE FOR EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

EI can impact the success of organizations through increased employee performance. For example, according to Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2013), a global division of the Siemens Corporation looked to identify its top managers by conducting a series of extensive interviews that measured EI. The competencies of a group of so-called managerial “stars,” who were responsible for a 10 to 15 percent growth in sales, were interviewed and compared to managers with average performance. The unique strengths of the top performers turned out to reflect the four prominent areas of emotional intelligence.

According to Goleman, Boyatzis, McKee (2013), the top managers were results driven, established initiative, possessed collaborative skills and could effectively lead teams. No technical or other skill emerged prominently in the interviews. Once corporate leadership identified the characteristics of emotional intelligence resulting from the interviews, another team of branch managers were trained to obtain same core competencies. In the end, business performance increased for the entire division, as did revenues for the whole firm. The emotional intelligence of the managers impacted the organization’s bottom line.

Emotionally intelligent leaders can also positively impact employee performance. According to Castro, Gomes, de Sousa (2012), EI leaders know how to inspire followers and motivate each toward opportunities in which one can express creativity. Employee satisfaction is increased when the opportunity to be creative exists. According to Jafri, Dem, Choden (2016), EI allows for differentiation in emotions, which also enhances creativity and thinking. This lends itself to an environment for “out-of-the-box” thinking in which many employees qualify as the freedom to be creative.

One popular example of a creative workplace is e-commerce shoes and clothing company, Zappos, headquartered in Las Vegas. Company President Tony Hseih, encourage employees to be authentic in a system of “holocracy” or a “hands-off” management environment (Lowe, 2016). Despite a busy schedule, employees suggest Hseih is accessible and willing to listen to new ideas. After being acquired by Amazon in 2009 and moving out of Silicon Valley, Zappos has maintained its eccentric culture; for example, featuring a wall of severed neckties and a popcorn machine in the lobby. In fact, according to Wolske (2014), two of the company’s ten core values include “be adventurous, creative and open-minded,” and “pursue growth and learning” (pg. 12).

While there was some initial resistance when Hseih moved the company to the holocracy model, Zappos continues to be a successful and well-managed firm due to his level of emotional intelligence. Hseih is presumably able to understand his own emotions enough to understand his employees’ emotions and motivate staff to be creative. Zappos is well-known for its customer service-friendly qualities such as fast shipping, free returns and commitment to the support of communities in need via its sales. The company continues to thrive with no signs of slowing down.

WHEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IS LACKING

According to Castro, Gomes, de Sousa (2012), emotionally intelligent leaders can understand conflicts and tensions within a group and can use indifferences to stimulate individual creativity. According to Thory (2015), conflicts and pressure-filled situations can bring out the worst in some managers. Many managers report having negative emotions
as such and easily becoming angry with others, displaying mood swings and/or dealing with irritability. In the last five
d years, outcomes of negative emotions have been reportedly increasing (Thory, 2015).

Workplaces are filled with stories of an emotionally withdrawn boss who “just doesn’t understand,” or “who doesn’t
care.” As referenced, it can be a problem particularly as manager’s progress into senior leadership roles, whereby
displaying emotion can be viewed as a weakness and emotional intelligence can be reduced (Mayer, Salovey, and
Caruso, 2004). However, according to Thory (2015), it is important that EI be taken into consideration so that
managers are encouraged to connect with their feelings at work. Managers must be authentic, emotionally honest,
ethical and comfortable in their own skin to be the most effective leaders.

CONCLUSION

Organizational leaders desire to contribute to the success of their organizations and understand how emotional
intelligence plays an integral aspect of effective leadership. EI is described as the leader’s ability to understand their
own emotions and others emotions to be able to make informed decisions that can be used to lead, inspire and manage
individuals. According to McEwan and Bradbury (2015) EI include perceiving emotion, using it to facilitate thought
and managing emotion productively. The existence of EI allows leaders to communicate goals effectively to
employees, as well as motivate and inspire individuals to perform tasks at high levels. When employees are given the
emotional freedom to be creative, job satisfaction is increased.

When managers do not manage their emotions effectively, often fall victim to negative emotions of their own and of
others. Such individuals may be easy to anger and/or emotionally withdrawn. Without the ability to manage their own
emotions, one may not be able to handle the management of others’ emotions simultaneously. This outcome can create
problems especially when conflict and difficulty arise that cannot be expeditiously resolved. EI is encompass
understanding one’s own emotion and how it impacts organizational decision-making.

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Washback: The Effect Of Assessment On Second Language Writing Teaching And Learning
Ling He, Miami University, USA

ABSTRACT

Second language (L2) writing assessment has been a major area of educational research, language testing, and L2 writing classroom in particular. Grading or assessing L2 students’ essays is part of language educators’ routine. The development of valid writing instruments is essential as assessment can have a washback effect on teaching L2 writing, either positive or negative. Positive washback occurs when the assessment helps achieve expected learning outcomes of the classroom teaching (Bachman, 1990), whereas negative washback occurs if assessment drives curriculum and instruction at the expense of missing the course objectives.

While extensive literature emphasizes the issue of assessment validity, what remains less informative is the effect of assessment on L2 writing classrooms. In particular, how to integrate the nature of writing to the rating scale for different genres related to different purposes is a paucity. To meet such need, this study reports evidence of positive washback of assessment on learning of second language writing at a college in the middle east of the United States. Participants were 48 international students taking an ESL composition course at the same level in two academic years. Group 1 with 24 students wrote four types of essays in Fall 2015, and Group 2 did the same tasks in Fall 2016. The essays were assessed using a holistic rating scale with a total score for Group 1 and a six-point analytical rating scale with individual component scores for Group 2. A mixed-method approach was used in comparisons of the final and component scores of four types of essays written by students from two academic years. The quantitative results showed that students assessed by the analytical rating scale wrote better essays in both the overall quality and the specific linguistic and genre features than those those assessed by the holistically scale. The qualitative interview confirmed that the analytical rating scale enhances learning L2 writing through the complete understanding of the explicit expectations of writing embodied in the scale and the teachers’ feedback on specific writing problems. This study indicates that the valid scoring rubric can have positive washback on teaching and learning L2 writing, thereby promoting the accomplishment of curriculum objectives and program goals. The study calls for the development and validation of assessment tools for L2 writing courses.
Binational Tijuana-San Diego Bridge “Cross Border Xpress (CBX)”: Analysis Of Its Impact On Tijuana´s Community

Omaira Cecilia Martínez Moreno, University of Baja California, Mexico
Jose Gabriel Ruiz Andrade, University of Baja California, Mexico
Ricardo Verján Quiñones, University of Baja California, Mexico
Juan Carlos Robledo Fernandez, Bolivar University of Technology, Colombia

SUMMARY

The following document is an approach to the perception that has been made of the “CROSS BORDER XPRESS (CBX)”, a pedestrian bridge that connects an airport of the city of Tijuana (Mexico) with a terminal located in the county of San Diego (United States) whose objective is to identify the perception of the people of Tijuana regarding to if the binational bridge has economic impact in the city, in the generation of greater opportunities of businesses, new jobs, a favorable projection of the city of Tijuana at national and international level and the generation of greater traffic of passengers in the air terminal. The results aim that the perception is divided in positions in favor and against itself. In the same way it happens to the aspects related to the generation of greater businesses opportunities and the generation of new jobs. Nevertheless, the balance of percentage tilts more towards the people that approve the project as a beneficial option for the city economy and that, combined with it, it can also boost certain businesses.

Keywords: Tourism, Transport, Airport, Perception

INTRODUCTION

In each one of the border cities of Mexico it is possible to find step and pedestrian bridges that allow access to the United States through the border. Cross Border Xpress (CBX) is characterized by a bridge that connects the International Airport from Tijuana with a terminal in San Diego, California. It is a pedestrian bridge only for passengers of the Tijuana (TIJ) airport that cross the border between United States and Mexico, which started to operate in December of 2015.

CBX is unique in its style, both nationally and internationally, that along the border between Mexico and United States is not possible to find another pedestrian bridge that connects an airport in a city with a terminal located in a contiguous city. With an extension of 119 meters, the overpass of CBX is the first in the history to connect a building in USA directly with a foreign airport terminal and helps to prevent passengers from having unforeseen delays, and often long waiting in the congested land ports of entry of San Ysidro and Otay Mesa, in Tijuana; it is for exclusive use of the passengers that arrive to the Tijuana airport and that wish to enter to United States immediately, or, for people from of United States, who want to travel through an airline with departure from Tijuana.

BACKGROUND

When searching similar projects developed in other parts of the world, some comparable to the CBX were not identified. There were only found results of hundreds of bridges that connect a city with another, located even in different countries, that are located on streets, houses and/or rivers and seas. Those bridges have been built of different materials such as wood, iron or concrete and that the more impressive ones even arrive to merge with tunnels, such as the case of the Oresud bridge that joins Denmark and Sweden that consists of three main sections, begins with a bridge, an artificial island and subsequently, the tunnel (Lara, 2015). All these serve to transfer both land motor vehicles as well as pedestrians, besides that they do not have any connection with airport terminals.
One of the works that could resemble although not in its entirety to the CBX, is the EuroAirport Basel-Mulhouse-Freiburg, which consists of an airport shared between two European countries, France and Switzerland which has operated since mid 1946. For the realization of this project, France provided the grounds where the construction of tracks and buildings by the Swiss Government was held. After that, it has undergone several modifications and extensions in different years, until it ensures that the airport is technically divided in two, with an area within Swiss territory and the other belonging to the French Government. This airport was built this way in order to represent a corporation tri-national to world level, since later Germany was also involved, addition that it is a international symbol of cooperation between the nations early mentioned, that became vital from end of the second world war in that region (EuroAirport, 2016).

Contextualización of the Tourism in Mexico

Diversification of the offer in different mexicans airports have made that the sector continues to participate actively in the economy of the country. In the latest reported data in the satellite account of the tourism of Mexico, the touristic gross domestic product (PIBT) had a share of 8.7% of the total of the economy at current values by 2013. In the PIBT the rental and business services represent a 21.8% of the total; the transport of passengers takes part with 17.4%; the goods and handicrafts with 16.0%; the restaurants, bars and nightclubs with 10.0%; trade with 8.6%, accommodation with 8.4%; the second homes with 3.6%; recreational services with 1.8%; the travel agencies and the tour operators, as well as the time shares with 0.9%, respectively. In 2013 the tourism generated around 2.3 million workstations, representing 5.9% of the total economy in the country. The greater contribution to the inside of the sector corresponds to restaurants, bars and nightclubs with the 36.3%, following in order of importance the passenger transport, with a participation of the 15.7%, the goods and crafts with 13.6%, the trade with 11.0%, the accommodation with 6.0%, services of rental and business with 3.8%, recreational services with 2.3%, the travel agencies and tour operators with 0.8%, time shares with 0.5% and the second homes with 0.1% "The 9.9% remaining are constituted by diverse services." (SECTUR, 2015). Is here where the great importance of tourism on the economy of the country can be observed and how this relates with the stability, development and improvements in the quality of people's lives.

Importance of the air transport in the economic and social development of the cities

The aviation is one of the fastest and safest means of transport that currently exists. Because of that, it is common that is used in the transfer of people due to its efficiency and mainly because the use of this way of transportation involves a great benefit to different sectors of the population.

In Mexico, the development of air transport started in 1924 and covered route Mexico-Tampico, then the routes Mexico-Tuxpan and Tampico-Matamoros were added."

In 1927 the first airports were in service, located in Pachuca, Guadalajara and Torreon; Mexico city was completed and opened in 1929.

In the year 2005, there were 53 international airports in Mexico. The ones that transport a greater number of passengers are, in order of importance: the one in the Mexico city, Cancun, Guadalajara, Monterrey and Tijuana, that together handled almost the 68% of the total of passengers. (INEGI, 2005).

The General Direction of Civil Aviation, dependency of the Secretariat of Communications and Transport (SCT), published in a report called: Mexican aviation in figures, 1993-2015 that during 2015 in Mexico "the national and foreign companies in regular international household operation, transported more than 73 millions of passengers, this is equivalent to a growth of 12.5% more than in 2014." The national companies managed a growth of 15.4% going from 40.7 to 47.0 million of passengers transported from 2014 to 2015. "On the other hand the foreign companies grew a 7.6% mobilizing 26.3 millions of passengers from and towards the national territory compared with the 24.4 millions of passengers transported in 2014." (SCT, 2016)

International Efforts

In March 18, 2013 the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) and the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO) signed a joint special statement on aviation and tourism, acknowledging the intention of the two bodies of the United Nations to improve conditions and provide facilities for the improvement of the conditions in the two areas.
According to this, the Secretaries-General of both organizations claim that in 2012 more than one billion of tourists crossed borders international and more than the half by air, what allowed make a calculation estimated of 1.8 trillion of passengers in 2030, including travelers of business and leisure. This will promote the increase in the demand for air transportation services and will double the number of aircraft takeoffs a year from 30 million to 60 million for that same date. Likewise, it refers to:

**Whereas ICAO generates security policies and standards for the safety in aviation, safety, efficiency, protection of the environment and the economic development of air transport, the UNWTO promotes tourism as a conductor of economic growth and sustainable development, providing leadership and support to the sector in progress of knowledge policies and tourism around the world. In consequence, ICAO and UNWTO have decided to strengthen their collaborative efforts through the construction of a more sustainable future in the three pillars of the definition of sustainability of the United Nations (UN): Social, environmental and economic and position the air transport and tourism as a strategy of interrelated sectors that benefit the global society they serve** (OACI & OMT, 2013).

With this information is can demonstrate that the tourism and the transport air have much relationship between them, and above all, that the air transport is one of the most used for tour travelling.

**Efforts Made in Mexico**

The Secretariat of Tourism reports that "the tourists via air, the main segment of international tourism, increased in 9.4%, going from 11.0 to 12.0 million in the referred period from September to June of 2015;" "while in 2014 by that way 13.5 million of people interned to the country." (SECTUR, 2015). In the integral analysis of the tourism of the same Secretariat, is indicated that "the air connectivity is an element that helps to three aspects fundamental: pays for the growth economic of the country, contributes to the competitiveness of the tourism sector and feeds the demand of what the tourism needs." (DATATUR, 2015). From this, it can be considered tourism as the main motivator of the air transportation and mainly, identify the high correlation between both entries that bring economic benefits to different sectors of the population involved in tourism and air transport.

**Tijuana: Tourism and Air Transport**

The International Airport of Tijuana belongs to the Airport Group of the Pacific that is the second most important after the International Airport in Mexico City (IACM), and is located within the 5 most important international airports in Mexico. In the official web page "Discover Baja California" is mentioned that the main air door of Baja California State is this same airport where operate 6 airlines that connect with different parts of the country and where "an average of 120 flights daily are made " (Discover Baja California California, 2011). It should be noted that currently the airport has installed capacity to serve "up to 10 million passengers per year and 360 flights per day." (Airport Group of the Pacific, 2015) (see chart 1).
Chart No 1 Statistics of the Flow of passengers in the airport from the International Airport of Tijuana.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Users of the International Airport of Tijuana</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Thousands of people)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internationals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internationals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internationals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internationals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abril</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internationals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mayo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internationals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internationals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internationals</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Self elaboration based in the published statistics by the Airport Group of the Pacific (2016).

The information presented makes fact that during the months prior to the opening of the CBX, the flow of passengers maintained constant ups and downs. However, the number of users of the airport has increased since the start of the bridge operations. The report published by the Airport Group of the Pacific (2016) said that for the month of December 2015 was established a historical record in the number of operations until that time.

Present diagnosis of the CBX

FODA of the CBX

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Threats</th>
<th>Oportunidades</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Rejection of the project by some economic sectors of the city.</td>
<td>1. 60% of the users of the Tijuana International Airport crossed the border to San Diego.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. New immigration policies.</td>
<td>2. Tijuana is the largest border of Mexico.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Possible economic crisis.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
<th>Strengths</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Bad organization of the airport staff.</td>
<td>1. Low cost (16 dollars)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Congestion of airport users.</td>
<td>2. 120 meters of traveling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Lack of indications in the airport.</td>
<td>3. Estimated time of crossing (5 minutes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Little diffusion of the bridge.</td>
<td>4. Variety of trading options.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Access to public and private transport in the terminal of San Diego.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Self elaboration (2016).

Recent Statistics of the Flow of Passengers Through the Bridge

el Grupo Aeroportuario del Pacifico presents monthly reports from the influx of passengers in each of its terminals where compared the influx of passengers per month and period compared to the previous year. In the case of the CBX, presents the number of passengers in the months of January, February, March and April. The data is presented in the table No. 2.
Table No 2. Flow of passengers from the airport and the CBX in the first half of the 2016.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month</th>
<th>Passengers of the airport</th>
<th>CBX</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>January</td>
<td>504,000</td>
<td>78,002</td>
<td>15.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February</td>
<td>412,200</td>
<td>63,000</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>505,200</td>
<td>97,084</td>
<td>19.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abril</td>
<td>461,500</td>
<td>84,872</td>
<td>18.40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>507,200</td>
<td>95,354</td>
<td>18.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>528,000</td>
<td>99,264</td>
<td>18.80%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Self-made elaboration based on the statistics published by the Airport Group of the Pacific (2016).

However, the months of May and June are marked because they are estimates of the possible number of passengers that could cross the bridge since such information is not in the reports of the group through a calculated average between April and May, months which are busiest and more closeness of time. However, it is believed that the number of passengers could be more than 100,000 since the number of users of the airport is extremely high regarding to previous months and similar periods of last years. As it can be observed in the graphic, the number of people that cross the bridge are much related with the influx of passengers of the airport, however, the variation between one is mainly increasing. The data from May and June are calculated based on an average between March and April as they are the months of greatest influx so far this year and the closest, however, it is believed that the number can higher than 100,000.

Sectors and/or People Who Are Favored/Disadvantaged by the Implementation of the CBX

The number of people who travel annually trhu the San Ysidro and Otay borders are over two million people. Taking the CBX as an option for all the people that traveling through the International Airport of Tijuana, seek enter to the United States is a direct solution to decrease the amount of hours expected in order to cross the border. From the point of view of U.S. and Mexican authorities, it decreases the amount of people in pedestrian or vehicular rows and therefore the processes of prevention, revision and control of irregular situations. One of the more considerable elements is the decrease of the CO2 generated in the atmosphere by the automotive parks used for the vehicular crosses.

Stores of food and beverages, souvenirs, travel agencies, clothing stores, car rentals, grocery stores and restaurants located in Tijuana's airport, are some other parts who will result benefited, since people spend more time within the airport if they want to take this bridge. For the US citizens, the bridge has come to be a comfortable and safe option to access to the different destinations that Mexico offers by means of this air terminal, since using it, it is not necessary to exit the street to get a taxi or have to arrive with greater time of anticipation (James, 2015). One of the most threatened sectors by the construction and commissioning of this bridge, is private transport (taxis), since thousands of people already does not move from the airport to the border and vice versa, ensuring it until now that it was their usual route. Also hotels, restaurants and various businesses who attend these clients with the possibility of increasing their sales, are affected by the logistics involving their trips.

GOALS

The presented research, was aimed to know the perception that has the population of Tijuana's city, with respect to the implementation of the binational air bridge between the cities of Tijuana and San Diego. In this first approach, it was proposed to identify the perception of the community of Tijuana on whether the bi-national bridge has an economic impact on the city, in the generation of greater opportunities for business, new jobs, a favorable city at national and international level and the generation of higher passenger’s traffic of the air terminal.

METHODOLOGY

The document that is presented on this occasion, corresponds to a first approximation to the macro research defined as not experimental, cross-cutting, exploratory and descriptive named Impact of the Binational Bridge Tijuana-San Diego (CBX), which objective is to get the perspective that the community of Tijuana has over the bridge, evaluating three approaches according to the United Nations (UN), make up the definition of sustainability: social, economic and environmental.
For the collection of the information, there have been applied surveys both personal and virtual by Internet in various sectors of the town and to citizens of different socio-economic levels.

The instrument used was designed in such way that it enabled information categorized in three different areas: economic, socio-demographic and environmental and is managed to a Likert scale from five categories ranging from total disagree, to totally agree. To corroborate its validity and reliability was the expert opinion and the implementation of a pilot test, achieving with this, an alpha of Cronbach of 93%. The population was defined as infinite, since the Tijuana community exceeds the 100,000 inhabitants; we worked with a 95% confidence level and the size of the sample was determined in 384 individuals. By the receptivity of the people, there have been applied 405 surveys at different strategic points of the city. Among the places that where attended, are the colony Empleados Federales, Zona Rio, Technology square, Square of women, Av. Revolution and the facilities of the Universidad Autónoma de Baja California. The field work was possible thanks to the collaboration of five students participating in the summer program of scientific research Dolphin 2016 (Carlos Esquivel and Guadalupe González, Ián Pitman, Diana Martínez, Julián Gómez).

DEVELOPMENT OR FINDS

Once applied the 405 surveys, it was decided to use the software Statics PASW (SPSS) to create a database and do the analysis. The sample was characterized by the following data: the 47.5% were female and the 52.0% male; the 57.1% of the sample are between 18 and 27 years, 19.5% between 28 and 37 years and 12.6% between 38 and 47 years old. The activity of the people who answered the survey is 28.1% student and 26.6 student/worker, 11% small entrepreneur, 9.9% executive employee and 8% professional independent. 16% working in the academic education sector and 13.8% in the business sector. The 51.7% has Bachelor degree, 25.6% high school and 13.1% postgraduate.

With respect to the analysis of the data, it is possible to identify some contrasts in the position of the respondents with respect to the bridge. For example, 43% of people working in the educational/academic sector, as well as the 71.4% of workers in the business sector, thinking that the Tijuana-San Diego binational bridge will bring more economic benefits to Tijuana. However, a 35.4% of workers in the educational/academic sector does not agree with the idea that the bridge will bring economic benefits to Tijuana and the rest does not know if it will bring benefits or not. In various sectors can be noticed a representative percentage of people who disagree with this argument, including the trade sector with 36%, the restaurateur with a 25%, transport and telecommunications with 36.4%, and Industrial with 28.6%. When performing an analysis of totals, 51.7% of the respondents think that it will bring some economic benefit to Tijuana, to 24% the theme is indifferent and 24.4% think that it will not bring any economic benefit to the city (see table 3).
Table No 3. Perception of economic benefits to Tijuana from the implementation of the binational bridge (CBX) vs Sector where the surveyed population works.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception of better economic benefits</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transport and telecommunications</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurateur</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreation and leisure</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrepreneurial</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physician</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual/religious</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational/academic</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural/Musical/film</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beauty</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Information</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Made with data obtained from the market research of the binational bridge Tijuana-San Diego (2016).

The analysis of the reagents which agree that the CBX generates new jobs and business opportunities, it also presents contrasting data. On one hand, the 52.20% and the 57.80% of respondents considered that they are total and moderate disagree that such bridge can generate new jobs and better opportunities for business. In a contrary way, the 72.4% and the 76.10% claims to be fully in agreement, and they agree that there is a favorable increase in these two situations (see table 4).

Table No 4. Considers that the binational bridge (CBX) generates new employments vs. It will give better business opportunities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>p17 business opportunities</th>
<th>p9 Generates new employment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Totally disagree</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately disagree</td>
<td>Totally disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither agree nor disagree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totally agree</td>
<td>Don't know / No answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Made with data obtained from the market research of the binational bridge Tijuana-San Diego (2016).

Contrary to the responses shown in the previous tables, in table 5 you can see that the 83.20% and the 71.3% is in total agreement or agrees that the bi-national bridge makes Tijuana more visible, nationally and internationally, in addition
to that, with its implementation underway, the number of passengers that go over the city's international airport will increase.

Table No 5. The bi-national bridge (CBX) makes Tijuana more visible nationally and internationally vs. The increment in the number of passengers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total disagree</th>
<th>Moderately disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Total agree</th>
<th>Don’t know / No answer</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14.80%</td>
<td>11.10%</td>
<td>14.80%</td>
<td>33.30%</td>
<td>25.90%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.30%</td>
<td>16.70%</td>
<td>23.30%</td>
<td>20.00%</td>
<td>20.00%</td>
<td>3.30%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.50%</td>
<td>11.90%</td>
<td>19.40%</td>
<td>43.30%</td>
<td>17.90%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.60%</td>
<td>5.60%</td>
<td>16.70%</td>
<td>46.30%</td>
<td>25.00%</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.60%</td>
<td>3.70%</td>
<td>6.80%</td>
<td>26.70%</td>
<td>56.50%</td>
<td>0.60%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.30%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>8.30%</td>
<td>8.30%</td>
<td>41.70%</td>
<td>33.30%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.90%</td>
<td>6.90%</td>
<td>13.30%</td>
<td>34.30%</td>
<td>36.50%</td>
<td>2.00%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Made with data obtained from the market research of the binational bridge Tijuana-San Diego (2016).

CONCLUSIONS

Based on the obtained results it can be concluded that the perception on the generated profits by the implementation and operation of the bi-national bridge CBX are divided between positions in favor and against. Same thing happens with aspects related to the generation of better business opportunities and the generation of new jobs. However, the scale of percentages leans more toward the people who approve the project as a beneficial option to the economy of the city and that, in addition to this, can boost certain businesses.

The people affiliated to the transportation sector, are identified as real detractors of the bridge, since this affects directly their source of employment and their economic stability. In addition, the qualitative exercises carried out alongside with the quantitative research, it can be concluded that it exists in many sectors of the city an ignorance of the creation and implementation of this architectural work. Some people indicate that they do not know the work and have no reference of the economic impacts that might have for the society and all its actors. Some claim that the greatest benefits that can be received through the CBX, is for the neighbor country, United States.

By the scale of the project and the importance for the city, it requires a major communication strategy that integrates the community and makes public domain the information about the objectives pursued by the airport group having in charge the administration of the international airport of the city of Tijuana and the authorities involved. In addition, it is proposed to do the data analysis to obtain results on the perception one has in dimensions that make up the definition of Sustainability: social, economic and environmental.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Features Of Globalization In Japanese Graduate Schools

Taiyo Utsuhara, The University of Electro-Communications, Japan
Masaki Uto, The University of Electro-Communications, Japan
Asana Ishihara, Japan Institute of Lifelong Learning, Japan
Koichi Ota, Japan Institute of Lifelong Learning, Japan
Ayako Hirano, Japan Institute of Lifelong Learning, Japan
Atsushi Yoshikawa, Japan Institute of Lifelong Learning, Japan
Maomi Ueno, The University of Electro-Communications, Japan

ABSTRACT

Recently, the ratio of students advancing to the master’s course from the undergraduate program has increased in Japan. In addition, desired human resource models have been changed because of rapid globalization. Therefore, it has been necessary to cultivate global human resources in graduate schools. Recent studies conducted worldwide have surveyed effective educational policies to develop such resources. However, these studies were conducted on individual or a few schools. The study described herein analyzed relations between competencies for globalization and educational policies over all Japanese graduate schools. We divided the competencies that should be developed for globalization in Japanese graduate schools into those for 1) global academic activities and 2) global industry. We administered a mail-in survey to acquire data for this study. Results show that overseas experiences and foreign languages courses are mainly effective for resource development at Japanese graduate schools. The results also suggest that practical activities in global industry facilitate growing global academic competency.

Keywords: Global human resources, Correspondence analysis

INTRODUCTION

Recently, the ratio of students advancing to master’s programs from baccalaureate degree programs has increased in Japan (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2016). Moreover, educational policies suited for Japanese global leaders (Okamoto & Matsuzaka, 2015), such as the Program for Leading Graduate Schools (Japan Society for the Promotion of Science, 2016; Yoshida, 2014), have been required. Hence, cultivating global human resources at graduate schools is necessary.

Recent studies conducted worldwide have surveyed beneficial educational policies for such resources (Blings & Maxey, 2016; Kilgo, Ezell Sheets, & Pascarella, 2015; Kilgo & Pascarella, 2016; Miglietti, 2015; Soria & Lueck, 2016; Wright & Lee, 2014; Yoshida, 2014). However, these studies were conducted at individual institutions or at a few institutions. No such study has surveyed numerous institutions. The study described herein analyzes relations between competency for globalization and effective educational policies at all Japanese graduate schools.

For this study, we divide competencies for such resources in graduate schools into the following two groups.

1) Competencies necessary for global academic activities

Communication skills with overseas researchers, expert knowledge required for research activities, motivation for conducting research autonomously, education systems, education contents, global academic courses of foreign languages, support for foreign students, and overseas experiences (study abroad, fieldwork, a presentation at an international conference)
2) Practical competencies necessary for global industry

Basic communication skills in Japanese, skills of problem-finding, skills of problem-solving, internship abroad programs, activities in actual society, and practical programs for developing fundamentally important techniques used for actual businesses.

We administered a mail-in survey to obtain data for this study. In the questionnaire, educational policies are divided into the following six categories: 1) education systems, 2) education contents, 3) activities in actual society, 4) global academic courses of foreign languages, 5) support for foreign students, and 6) overseas experiences.

Details of the policies are described as follows: Desired human resource models have changed because of rapid globalization (Trilling & Fadel, 2009; Wright & Lee, 2014). Moreover, development of higher-level skills for global human resources has been demanded (Trilling & Fadel, 2009). Many previous studies have underscored the importance of critical thinking (Gretter & Yadav, 2016; Stone, 2016; Trilling & Fadel, 2009; Wright & Lee, 2014).

Therefore, we first asked the institutions to have courses that incorporate the following characteristics: a) making teacher–student questions and discussions vigorous, b) fruitful and frequent discussions among students, c) curricula for enhancing student characteristics, and d) effective curricula required for globalization. Additionally, we asked about e) difficulties of graduating the school. We asked if the institutions have f) liberal-arts opportunities, g) programs for logical thinking, h) support for developing foreign language communication skills, or i) practical seminars for developing fundamentally important techniques used in actual businesses.

Purposes of the internship program include providing chances, such as those for finding practical businesses (e.g., Bótas & Huisman, 2013; Kuh, 2008). In addition, volunteer work provides opportunities including human skill development (Kuh, 2008; Wright & Lee, 2014). Consequently, in 3) activities in actual society, we asked the institutions to have a) promoting a domestic internship program, b) facilitating participation in voluntary services, c) invited seminars to find practical business, or d) interacting with workers on tours through workplaces such as fields. Experiences gained through undergraduate research are enhanced by academic writing (Bressette & Breton, 2001), but students tend to suffer from it (Bruce, Coffer, Rees, & Robson, 2016; Gragson & Hagen, 2010; Jalali, Hanlan, & Canal, 2009). Additionally, it has pointed out that not only writing but also reading (Gragson & Hagen, 2010; Trilling & Fadel, 2009) and oral presentation skills (Chandren & Yaacob, 2016) are important. Furthermore, discussions (Wright & Lee, 2014) and group discussions (Blings & Maxey, 2016) are beneficial for problem-solving skill development. Therefore, in 4) global academic courses of foreign languages, we asked the institutions if they have foreign language courses adopting academic a) reading, b) writing, c) presentation, or d) discussion.

Foreign students in Japan have increased greatly in number recently (Burgess, 2015; Japan Student Services Organization (JASSO), 2016). Moreover, interaction with the students has fostered development of cross-cultural tolerance and understanding (Cudmore, 2005). Earlier studies have suggested that mentorship is helpful for acclimating foreign students to campus life (Young, 2014; Yu, 2016). Therefore, in 5) support for foreign students, we asked the institutions about a) expanding acceptance rates of excellent foreign students, b) mentorship programs for students whose mentors are Japanese students, c) scholarship programs for them, d) courses taught in a foreign language, or e) offering of opportunities to acquire Japanese.

Internship programs (Bótas & Huisman, 2013; Kilgo et al., 2015), study abroad programs (Kilgo et al., 2015), international exchange programs, and financial support for the experiences (Bótas & Huisman, 2013; Miglietti, 2015) are effective to develop cross-cultural skills (e.g., understanding, communication). Moreover, many nations provide credit transfer systems at universities, such as the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) (Robertson & Keeling, 2008). However, some higher education institutions mandate internship (Hoven, Walenkamp, & Heijer, 2015; Seidl, 2013; Simpson, 2000) or study abroad programs (Hoven et al., 2015). International competencies including English proficiency are developed through internship programs, which are mandatory for graduation (Hoven, Walenkamp, & Heijer, 2015; Seidl, 2013; Simpson, 2000; Stilma, 2009). A research presentation in English, which is mandatory for graduation, stimulates improvement of the proficiency (Radzuan & Kaur, 2011). Consequently, in 6) overseas experiences, we asked the institutions if they provide students with the following occasions: a) exchange or dispatch to foreign universities (programs, financial support or mandating), b) an internship abroad (same as above), c) credit
transfer systems with foreign graduate schools, d) making a presentation at an international conference (financial support or mandating), e) fieldwork abroad (same as above), or f) support to enhance foreign language proficiency.

First, we analyzed educational policies and the competencies in Japanese graduate schools using correspondence analysis (CA), which is a statistical method that reduces high-dimensional Euclidean spaces of multiple variables (in this study, 40 variables) to low-dimensional Euclidean spaces. The results derived the following three dimensions.

1) When the component score positively increases in the first dimension, competencies for self-regulated learning are expanded. However, when the component score negatively increases, the internship program of the institute becomes mandatory. Then the competencies for self-regulated learning decrease. This means that the enforcement of educational policy interrupts the students’ autonomous learning.

2) When the component score positively increases in the second dimension, competencies required for practical academic activities are enhanced. However, when the component score negatively increases, competencies required for global industry are developed.

3) When the component score positively increases in the third dimension, requirement of fundamental training for global academic activities is increased. However, when the component score increases negatively, the requirement of training for cross-cultural understanding is increased.

Subsequently, we analyzed relations between competencies for globalization and educational policies by applying t-tests or Welch’s t-tests. Additionally, we analyzed each effective size of mean difference using unbiased Hedges’ g. Moreover, we analyzed each rate of type II error by conducting a power analysis. Relations between competencies for globalization and educational policies are suggested as follows considering each effective size and statistical power.

1) Self-regulated learning enhances basic communication skills in Japanese, but a mandatory internship program for graduation is less effective to develop them.

2) Practical academic activities are ineffective to develop all six competencies. However, practical activities that are necessary for global industry facilitate all six competencies. Motivation for conducting research autonomously is especially enhanced by practical activities required for global industry, but it is not enhanced by practical academic activities.

3) Fundamental training for global academic activities is effective to develop skills of problem-finding and skills of problem-solving. However, training for cross-cultural understanding is less effective to develop the two competencies.

DATA

The survey was administered in 2015 to 1868 Japanese graduate schools using a mail survey method. Respondents were the deans of the respective institutions. The survey contents comprise the following two items.

(1) Questionnaires about institution attributes (e.g., location, classifications of installation personnel, disciplines, number of students, number of majors, entrance examination methods).

(2) Nine multiple choice items eliciting data about educational policies and competencies for globalization. Their details are described in the Appendix. Letting X-Y be a variable that takes 1 if choice Y of questionnaire item X is selected, and 0 otherwise, 40 variables were defined from the nine questionnaire items.

From the responses, we removed data without the name of graduate school so that analyses can more represent the actual conditions of Japanese graduate schools in this study. Finally, we obtained 445 valid data. Although the data include missing values, we need to complete them for our analyses. Therefore, we imputed them using multiple assignments based on Multivariate Imputation by Chained Equations (MICE) algorithm (Van Buuren & Groothuis-Oudshoorn, 2000). The percentage of imputed data was approximately 1.9%. The following section uses the data.
CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS (CA)

In this study, we applied correspondence analysis (CA) to the data.

CA is a statistical method that sorts both row and column numerical scores so that the variance between row and column items is maximized. Next, the singular value decomposition (SVD) of a sorted contingency table is conducted so that high-dimensional Euclidean spaces of multiple variables are reduced to low-dimensional Euclidean spaces. Then the commonalities of the variables are interpreted based on low-dimensional Euclidean spaces (e.g., Hoffman and Franke, 1986).

We used CA to analyze the relation between educational policies and competencies for globalization in Japanese graduate schools.

Determine the Number of Dimensions

To conduct CA, the number of dimensions must be given. As the selection method, Cattell’s Scree Criterion (Warne & Larsen, 2014) has been widely used. The method selects a value before a point at which decreasing eigenvalues become small.

Table 1 presents declining eigenvalues in the analysis data. The difference between the second and third eigenvalues is less than that between the first and second, which suggests that one-dimensional Euclidean space is proper. However, the Euclidean space renders the following analyses difficult. After the third eigenvalue, the difference between fourth and fifth eigenvalues is the smallest in Table 1. Therefore, we selected three dimensions for our analyses.

### Table 1 Declining eigenvalues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Differences</th>
<th>Differences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1–2</td>
<td>0.0734</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2–3</td>
<td>0.0050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3–4</td>
<td>0.0042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4–5</td>
<td><strong>0.0027</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5–6</td>
<td>0.0085</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Result of CA

We applied CA to the data. We extracted items with the top three to five largest component scores in each dimension to infer commonalities of the extracted items using each dimension. Table 2 presents component scores for three dimensions.

In the first dimension, 9-6 (Motivation for conducting research autonomously) has the largest positive score. Furthermore, 9-1 (Basic communication skills in Japanese) and 9-4 (Skills of problem-finding) have the second and third largest positive negative scores. However, 8-2 (Internship abroad programs, such as those at abroad companies or public offices, are mandatory for graduation) has the largest negative score. Moreover, 7-2 (Financial support for internship abroad programs, such as those at abroad companies or public offices) and 6-2 (Internship abroad programs, such as those at abroad companies or public offices) have the second and third largest negative scores. Therefore, we interpreted the first dimension as follows. When the component score positively increases in the first dimension, competencies for self-regulated learning are enhanced. However, when the component score negatively increases, the internship program of the institute becomes mandatory. Then the competencies for self-regulated learning decrease. This means that the enforcement of educational policy interrupts the students' autonomous learning.

In the second dimension, 8-4 (Fieldwork abroad programs are mandatory for graduation) takes the largest positive score. Furthermore, 8-1 (Experiencing exchange or dispatch programs to foreign universities is mandatory for graduation) and 8-3 (Making a presentation at an international conference is mandatory for graduation) have the second and third largest positive scores. However, 7-2 (same as above) has the largest negative score. In addition, 6-2 (same as above) and 7-5 (Support to enhance foreign language proficiency required for global academic activities) have the second and third largest negative scores. Therefore, we comprehended the second dimension as follows. When the component score positively increases in the second dimension, competencies required for practical academic
activities are enhanced. However, when the component score negatively increases, competencies required for global industry are developed.

In the third dimension, 8-3 (same as above) has the largest positive score. In addition, 4-2 (Enable writing academic articles in foreign languages) and 4-4 (Enable discussion in foreign languages) take the second and third largest positive scores. However, 7-4 (Financial support for fieldwork abroad programs) has the largest negative score. In addition, 6-3 (Credit transfer systems with foreign graduate schools), 5-5 (Chances of acquiring Japanese, such as curricula and lectures), 3-2 (Facilitate volunteers and community activities for students), and 5-1 (Strategies to increase acceptance rates of excellent foreign students) respectively show the second, third, fourth, and fifth largest negative scores. From these, we interpreted the third dimension as follows. When the component score positively increases in the third dimension, the requirement of fundamental training for global academic activities is increased. However, when the component score negatively increases, the requirement of training for cross-cultural understanding is increased.

Table 2 Component scores of explanatory variables for respective dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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<th>3</th>
<th>1</th>
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<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-1</td>
<td>0.817</td>
<td>0.157</td>
<td>-0.107</td>
<td>-0.016</td>
<td>3.156</td>
<td>-1.651</td>
<td>5-4</td>
<td>-1.637</td>
<td>-1.394</td>
<td>0.188</td>
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<td>-1.524</td>
<td>8.632</td>
<td>-0.154</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>0.401</td>
<td>0.832</td>
<td>-0.556</td>
<td>3-3</td>
<td>-0.364</td>
<td>0.993</td>
<td>-0.621</td>
<td>6-1</td>
<td>-0.950</td>
<td>-0.134</td>
<td>-0.937</td>
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<td>-1.759</td>
<td>4.759</td>
<td>4.106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.125</td>
<td>-0.981</td>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>-0.281</td>
<td>1.971</td>
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<td>-1.654</td>
<td>-1.012</td>
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<td>-2.182</td>
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<td>0.418</td>
<td>-1.262</td>
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<td>-0.650</td>
<td>-0.276</td>
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<td>1-5</td>
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<td>0.129</td>
<td>0.467</td>
<td>4-2</td>
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<td>2.613</td>
<td>6-3</td>
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<td>9-3</td>
<td>0.988</td>
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<td>-0.012</td>
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<td>-0.799</td>
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<td>7-3</td>
<td>-0.738</td>
<td>-0.705</td>
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<td>-0.565</td>
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<td>0.298</td>
<td>5-2</td>
<td>-1.325</td>
<td>-0.986</td>
<td>-1.355</td>
<td>7-4</td>
<td>-1.055</td>
<td>-0.565</td>
<td>-2.182</td>
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<td>0.643</td>
<td>9-6</td>
<td>1.010</td>
<td>-0.560</td>
<td>0.298</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Bold font indicates the three positive component scores.

**Underlined font represents the three negative component scores.

RELATIONS BETWEEN COMPETENCIES FOR GLOBALIZATION AND EDUCATIONAL POLICIES

We analyzed relations between competencies for globalization and educational policies using t-tests or Welch’s t-tests. Groups of the analyses are for each competency for globalization. Scores of the analyses are component scores in each dimension. First, Levene’s test p-values were calculated for equality of group variances. Second, t-tests (if p > 0.05) or Welch’s t-tests (otherwise) were applied. Third, unbiased Hedges’ g (g) with significance level α = 0.95 is assigned to analyze each effective size of the mean difference. The previous study has pointed out a small effect if effective size d > 0.200, a medium effect if d > 0.500, and a large effect if d > 0.800 (Cohen, 1992). Therefore, although a significant difference is found, it is a vague point that a competency for globalization is enhanced by an educational policy when d > 0.200. Finally, if p < 0.05 in the t-tests, then power analysis is applied for a rate of type II error 1-β using a statistical power. In power analysis, α is equal to that of the t-tests; β has usually given 0.800 (Cohen, 1992). If 1-β > 0.200, then we fail to reject the null hypothesis, although it is false.

Table 3 presents equality of group variances, with differences in acquiring competencies for globalization between educational policies, effective sizes of samples, and statistical powers.
In the first dimension, significant differences were found for 9-1 (Basic communication skills in Japanese) and 9-6 (Motivation for conducting research autonomously). The effective size of 9-1 is large ($|g| > 0.800$), but that of 9-6 is small ($|g| > 0.200$). Moreover, type II errors might occur when one of the two competencies is an independent variable. In the second dimension, all six competencies show significant differences. An effective size of 9-6 (same as above) is large ($|g| > 0.800$), but the others are medium ($|g| > 0.500$). A type II error might occur only when 9-1 (same as above) is an independent variable. In the third dimension, only 9-1 (same as above) shows no significant difference. Only the effective size of 9-4 (Skills of problem-finding) or 9-5 (Skills of problem-solving) is medium ($|g| > 0.500$), and the others are small ($|g| > 0.200$). Moreover, a type II error might occur when one of the 9-2 (Communication skills with overseas researchers) or 9-3 (Expert knowledge required for research activities) is an independent variable.

Summarizing the results, relations between competencies for globalization and educational policies are suggested as follows considering each effective size and statistical power.

1) Self-regulated learning enhances **basic communication skills in Japanese**, but the mandatory internship program for graduation is ineffective to develop them.

2) Practical academic activities are ineffective to develop **all six competencies**. However, practical activities required for global industry facilitate **all six competencies**. Especially, **motivation for conducting research autonomously** is enhanced by practical activities required for global industry, but it is not enhanced by practical academic activities.

3) Fundamental training for global academic activities facilitates **skills of problem-finding** and **skills of problem-solving**. However, training for cross-cultural understanding is less effective to develop them.

### Table 3 Equality of group variances and differences in acquiring competencies for globalization between educational policies, effective sizes of samples, and statistical power

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competency</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>$df$</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>$df$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>Average 0</th>
<th>Average 1</th>
<th>$\text{unbiased Hedges' } g$</th>
<th>CI-Low</th>
<th>CI-High</th>
<th>Power</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9-1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.205</td>
<td>0.651</td>
<td>-4.070</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>-0.437</td>
<td>0.383</td>
<td><strong>0.821</strong></td>
<td>-1.231</td>
<td>-0.421</td>
<td>0.772</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.338</td>
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<td>-0.477</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>0.634</td>
<td>0.301</td>
<td>0.349</td>
<td>-0.047</td>
<td>-0.252</td>
<td>0.158</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>0.463</td>
<td>0.497</td>
<td>1.123</td>
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<td>0.262</td>
<td>0.426</td>
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<td>0.309</td>
<td>0.217</td>
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<td>-0.397</td>
<td>0.126</td>
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<td>0.857</td>
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<td>443</td>
<td><strong>2</strong></td>
<td>0.032</td>
<td>0.391</td>
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<td>-0.612</td>
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<tr>
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<td>443</td>
<td>***</td>
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<td>***</td>
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<td>1.091</td>
<td>0.999</td>
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<td><strong>2</strong></td>
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<td><strong>-0.370</strong></td>
<td>-0.627</td>
<td>-0.114</td>
<td>0.809</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Bold font indicates unbiased Hedge’s $g$ | $> 0.800$ or Power $> 0$, and *underlined font indicates unbiased Hedge’s $g$ | $> 0.500$.**

Average 1 is mean when a questionnaire item of each competency is selected, and Average 0 otherwise.

DISCUSSION

First, we analyzed questionnaire results related to competencies for globalization and educational policies using CA. Next, we analyzed relations between competencies for globalization and educational policies using t-tests or Welch’s t-tests. Additionally, we analyzed each effective size of samples using unbiased Hedge’s $g$. Results show that relations between competencies for globalization and educational policies are the following, especially considering the respective effective sizes.
1) Self-regulated learning promotes basic communication skills in Japanese, but the mandatory internship program for graduation is less effective to develop them.

2) Practical academic activities do not enhance all six competencies. However, practical activities necessary for global industry facilitate all six competencies. Motivation for conducting research autonomously is especially enhanced by practical activities required for global industry, but it is not grown by practical academic activities.

3) Fundamental training for global academic activities facilitates skills of problem-finding and skills of problem-solving. However, training for cross-cultural understanding is less effective to develop them.

The results suggest that practical academic activities in English might be difficult for Japanese graduate school students. However, in other countries, study abroad programs (Kilgo et al., 2015) and international exchange programs (Bótas & Huisman, 2013; Miglietti, 2015) are effective to develop cross-cultural skills (e.g., understandings, communication). In addition, a research presentation in English, which is mandatory for graduation, stimulates improvement of the proficiency (Radzuan & Kaur, 2011). The results also suggest that fundamental training in Japanese graduate schools is effective to develop competencies necessary for globalization. Particularly, the practical competencies that are necessary for global industry can be grown through training. In the world, discussions (Wright & Lee, 2014) and group discussions (Blings & Maxey, 2016) are beneficial to develop problem-solving skills. Consequently, results suggest that discussions develop practical competencies in Japan and in other countries.

In this study, although the results reveal significant differences in several areas, the effect of significant difference is small ($|g| > 0.200$). Therefore, it is ambiguous that self-regulated learning enhances motivation for conducting research autonomously.

From the results presented above, to develop competencies for globalization, Japanese graduate schools must introduce practical activities required for global industry and provide fundamental training for global academic activities rather than practical academic activities.

**CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK**

In this study, we analyzed relations between competencies and educational policies among all Japanese graduate schools.

First, we analyzed educational policies and competencies in Japanese graduate schools using CA. In this study, high-dimensional Euclidean spaces of the 40 variables were reduced to the following three dimensions.

1) When the component score positively increases in the first dimension, competencies for self-regulated learning are enhanced. However, when the component score negatively increases, the internship program of the institute becomes mandatory. Then the competencies for self-regulated learning decrease. This means that the enforcement of educational policy interrupts students' autonomous learning.

2) When the component score positively increases in the second dimension, competencies that are necessary for practical academic activities are enhanced. However, when the component score negatively increases, competencies required for global industry are developed.

3) When the component score positively increases in the third dimension, the requirement of fundamental training for global academic activities is increased. However, when the component score negatively increases, the requirement of training for cross-cultural understanding is increased.
Next, we analyzed the relations by application of \(t\)-tests or Welch’s \(t\)-tests. Additionally, we analyzed each effective size of the mean difference using unbiased Hedges’ \(g\). We analyzed each rate of type II error by conducting a power analysis. The results suggest the following relations.

1) Self-regulated learning enhances basic communication skills in Japanese, but a mandatory internship program for graduation is less effective to develop them.

2) Practical academic activities are ineffective to develop all six competencies. However, practical activities that are necessary for global industry facilitate all six competencies. Motivation for conducting research autonomously is especially enhanced by practical activities required for global industry, but it is not grown by practical academic activities.

3) Fundamental training for global academic activities is effective to develop skills of problem-finding and skills of problem-solving. However, training for cross-cultural understanding is less effective to develop the two competencies.

One avenue of the future work is conducting longitudinal research for repeated responses over long periods of time (e.g., Kilgo et al., 2015). Benefits of this method include the following two: 1) clarifying time series variations and 2) using the acquired survey data effectively over a long time. Therefore, we need to conduct longitudinal research to clarify and critique the results obtained from this study.

REFERENCES


APPENDIX: Questionnaire used to gather data for the present study

Q1. What education system do you implement? (Check all that apply.)
1. Making teacher–student questions and discussions vigorous in a class
2. Thought-out classes discussed fruitfully and frequently among students
3. A rigid curriculum such that students cannot graduate unless they are diligent
4. Curricula to enhance thought, humanity, and a broad vision of students
5. Curricula to make students aware of global learning

Q2. What education content do you implement? (Check all that apply.)
1. Liberal arts education for developing a broad vision and fundamental thought
2. Programs for logical thinking
3. Support for developing foreign language (FL) communication skills for non-FL subject majors
4. Not only formal curricula but also practical seminars for developing fundamental techniques used in actual businesses

Q3. How do you impress students on actual society? (Check all that apply.)
1. Promote domestic internships for students.
2. Facilitate volunteers and community activities for students.
3. Augment opportunities to find practical businesses by workers invited seminars.
4. Augment opportunities to interact with workers on tours through workplaces such as fields.

Q4. What effort for global academic courses of foreign languages do you make? (Check all that apply.)
1. Make it possible to read research papers in foreign languages.
2. Enable writing academic articles in foreign languages.
3. Make it possible to make a presentation in foreign languages.
4. Enable discussion in foreign languages.

Q5. What support for foreign students do you implement? (Check all that apply.)
1. Strategies to increase acceptance rates of excellent foreign students
2. Mentorship programs for foreign students whose mentors are Japanese students
3. Original scholarship programs for foreign students
4. Courses held in a foreign language
5. Chances of acquiring Japanese, such as curricula and lectures

Q6. What overseas experience program for students do you implement? (Check all that apply.)
1. Exchange or dispatch programs to foreign universities
2. Internship abroad programs, such as those at abroad companies or public offices
3. Credit transfer systems with foreign graduate schools

Q7. What support for overseas experience program to students do you implement? (Check all that apply.)
1. Financial support for exchange or dispatch programs to foreign universities
2. Financial support for internship abroad programs, such as those at abroad companies or public offices
3. Financial support to make a presentation at an international conference
4. Financial support for fieldwork abroad programs
5. Support to enhance foreign language proficiency necessary for global academic activities

Q8. What overseas experience program for students is mandatory for graduation? (Check all that apply.)
1. Experiencing exchange or dispatch programs to foreign universities
2. Internship abroad programs, such as those at abroad companies or public offices
3. Making a presentation at an international conference
4. Fieldwork abroad programs

Q9. What competency do you want current students to acquire? (Check all that apply.)
1. Basic communication skills in Japanese
2. Communication skills with overseas researchers
3. Expert knowledge required for research activities
4. Skills of problem-finding
5. Skills of problem-solving
6. Motivation for conducting research autonomously
Immigration, Racism And Social Inequality In Modern Spanish Culture: New Pedagogical Approaches
Scott Dale, Marquette University, USA

ABSTRACT
In his book, Creating Significant Learning Experiences (2013), L. Dee Fink outlines effective approaches to teaching college courses. For me, finding effective pedagogical approaches in teaching Spanish culture and history is essential. “Teaching” Spanish history to a new generation of visual learners can be a daunting task. How can a college instructor really help an undergraduate comprehend Spanish culture, history and identity in the classroom, especially when this course is taught in Spanish? Technology helps. Music is fun. Documentaries can be of some use. New virtual reality tools are gaining popularity. However, all of these tools tend to gloss over the depths of the subject matter. Reading about the empire of Carlos V or watching a documentary about the bombing of Guernica have limits as good teaching tools. How can a college instructor truly inspire an undergraduate to profoundly comprehend the human experience in Spanish history? If we remember what Fink (2013) argues, one of the most effective methods to enhance profound learning is to identify a human dimension and then expand on that area in order to inspire students to reflect on their own humanity and personal experiences. The key is to have the undergraduate reflect on their own experiences and then identify similar experiences in Spanish history and culture. For example, I have shown in my teaching that students are very familiar with the concepts of “ethnocentric anxiety,” racism and cultural intolerance, all major themes in Spanish history and culture. In my 20-minute presentation I will give examples of how my undergraduates compared specific examples of “ethnocentric anxiety” in Spanish history and then compared these events with very similar events in their own lives, as well as in contemporary U.S. culture. By expanding and reflecting on these emotional examples of the human experience, it becomes clear that profound comprehension of Spanish culture and history can be significantly elevated.
Should Students Be Taught A Curriculum That Includes Environmental Protection And Resource Conservation?

Maali Alruwaili, Southern Illinois University Carbondale, USA

There is an argument to be made that climate change is the single most important issue of 21st century. With the level of importance that climate change has established within the human context, the question for this paper is whether or not secondary school students should be focused on environmental protection and resource conservation as opposed to the traditional curriculum dominates their educational experiences. This study will examine the beliefs of students as well as the beliefs of teachers in terms of the kind of information and education that would be more relevant to creating innovation and solutions to problems of the world.

The primary emphasis in most curriculums today are on language arts skills and math skills. However, there is some belief that education should be focused on a more practical application of information, which would include looking at climate change as a substantial problem for the 21st century which should be addressed within secondary school curriculum frameworks. Although there is the opportunity to interject this kind of inquiry into science and history, it is possibly a vital part of innovating for the future that secondary school students be introduced to concepts that can help to impact their behaviors in terms of the environment. This study will examine how these issues are placed into current curriculum as well as the potential for placing them into curriculum in specific high school education centers.

LITERATURE REVIEW

One educator who went against classic beliefs in terms of curriculum was Ben Chavis (2009). One of his primary goals was to end the concept that children from lower socioeconomic backgrounds, or who were identified as marginalized minorities, could not perform at the same level as children from affluent, white neighborhoods. His approach was to look at curriculums as an absolute necessity and therefore include language arts and math focus at the core of the AIPCS curriculum. As he was working with students who were Native Americans, he believed that Indian language and art could be learned after school, but in school they needed to be learning language because they could not read. There is some support to suggest that basic curriculum needs to be attended in order to allow students to have the tools with which to expand their knowledge.

Of course, creating a curriculum that holds a great deal of expectations for students also means that teachers must be up to the challenge. According to Arslan, Cigdemoglu and Mosely (2012), when researchers evaluated 157 preservice teachers on the issue of atmosphere related environmental problems. The preservice teachers showed that they had limited understanding of climate change and therefore their capacity for including that within the curriculum was limited.

Mun et al (2014) studied hundred and 55 high school students who were asked to select various areas of the map as a means of identifying where certain types of climate change issues were taking place. In addition, there were many misunderstandings about the way in which climate change could and would take place. Therefore, including those in the curriculum as the most important issue for the 21st century would provide an opportunity for expanding minds and creating possibly innovative solutions.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this paper is to investigate whether or not climate change should be a significant part of an understanding of what is occurring in relationship to climate change. This includes presenting evidence that can contradict popular notions that climate change is not actually a reflection of human activity. Intention is to show that
including climate change and environmental issues in the curriculum will help to promote innovative ideas and creativity.

REFERENCES


High Impact Educational Practices: Innovative Teaching Strategies For Student Learning And Student Success
Schnequa N. Diggs, California State University East Bay, USA

ABSTRACT

Learning how to engage students in educationally purposeful activities has been a challenge for academics in higher-education. It is often hard to push through institutionalized pedagogical boundaries that are grounded in traditional “teach-at-you” approaches to learning however the demands of a diverse student body is changing the approach to learning we have come to adopt. Incorporating opportunities for student engagement has been delineated as an effective practice for student learning and success which helps to narrow achievement gaps across the student population. A number of innovative, high-impact practices have been identified but the aim of this paper is to discuss five specific high-impact educational practices in existing literature and the impact active learning activities have on student retention, student learning and student success.

Keywords: Student Learning, Student Success, Active-Learning, High-Impact Practices
Value Of Open Access Publications To Global Communities
Ann Toler Hilliard, Bowie State University, USA

ABSTRACT

The global Open Access gives readers unrestricted access to peer-reviewed scholarly work at one’s request digitally. The growth of Open Access can be challenging and rewarding when it comes to getting research published. Writing and getting research published can be very time consuming and concentrated. However, once the work is published there is so much joy to reviewing one level of the finished product, but the ongoing question is how valuable is this work to the research community. Beyond one’s own self-fulfillment is truly making a difference in helping others to gain free access overall to useful printed information that can improve the knowledge, skills and professional disposition in learning, teaching and leading in global communities at various levels and disciplines. This study gives a brief view of Open Access based on value, benefits, motivation to the people in global communities, public libraries and stakeholders. Addressing policy issues, best practices and future projections of Open Access also directed this study.

Keywords: Open Access, Value and Benefits, Global Communities
Influence of L1 on the target language (L2) has been of interest to both researchers and foreign language learners. In this presentation, we will present the phonological discovery of collective patterns and rules of tonalization of Hong Kong Cantonese English (HKCE), its multi-disciplinary impact, research possibilities and applications it opens up, with particular focus on our current research on acoustical characterization of HKCE and de-cantonization training.

Hong Kong Cantonese English refers to the L2 English acquired by native speakers of Hong Kong Cantonese. It is overwhelmingly tonalized with regular tone patterns, generated by a small set of rules and a canonical pattern. Due to the predictable patterns, not only new perspectives across various areas of linguistics such as pidgin English, code-switching, colonization, world English, second language teaching, are opened up, but also unprecedented research possibilities in foreign accent related sciences, e.g., criminology and social integration, can be triggered off. By virtue of the discrete categories, automatic recognition of the tonalized foreign accent will in principle be feasible. Furthermore, this human speech behaviour phenomenon is also fascinating for physicists since there are some models and analogies of classical and quantum physics which can be drawn on to elicit its discrete mechanics and fine structure. HKCE is of particular importance because it will, similar an ideal laboratory case, become a classical model for large-scale urban-wide tonalization found in other cities in Asia. This phenomenon affects not only Asia but also Europe. HKCE will serve as a point of departure for individual and small-scale cases of tonalization. We will give some first-hand observations in a European context.

In view of the global significance of this prevalent but unexplored phenomenon across atonal-tonal, East-West, natural science-humanities boundaries, a series of experiments and investigation has been planned, not only to determine its patterns and rules, but to verify the tonalized (quantised) nature, and demonstrate its verifiability from different observers’ and speakers’ points of view.

Based on the discovery of the patterns and rules of Hong Kong Cantonese English, our present research, as a continuation of what has been started in Switzerland and Japan and reported in a series of seminars of linguistics, aims at verifying the empirical claims about the patterns and rules of tonalization of HKCE from different points of view. In view of our background as a division of speech science, our first research attempt was on acoustical characterization of HKCE. To be able to identify the Cantonese tones in HKCE, one has to able to identify and characterize them in the first language, which has formed the main focus of my current works. That brought us to develop a speech musical scale for general description of voice pitch. Our current research project is on characterizing teachers’ English accent and experimenting with teacher training on de-cantonization (reduction of cantonized accent) in general, and de-tonalization (getting rid of tonalized accent) in particular, on the one hand, while attempting to enhance subjects’ English accent to a more native-like level choosing British English as the target.

Last but not least, we will take this opportunity to present our long-term goal of establishing centres for tonalization research in Asia and overseas, which aims at bringing together physicists, engineers, linguists, toneticians, sociologists, historians and so on under the same roof, to deal with the diverse research aspects triggered off by the core phonological phenomenon. To end, we would like to call for collaboration and funding support to lay a foundation
stone for a novel cross-departmental, cross-linguistic and cross-cultural academic knowledge, to help inaugurate a new era of quantum linguistics

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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Motivating A Diverse Group Of Students In A Large Classroom
Dr. Rajiv Narula, State University of New York at Canton, USA

ABSTRACT

Being an educator is not easy! One constantly struggles with a diverse group of students, some who are highly motivated, others who are not. The challenge is greater in a large introductory level course & the situation worsens if that course is Chemistry. How does one effectively teach facing these challenges? In my experience the best way is to connect to students the very first day. My first lecture incorporates effective techniques that I have learned in my own continuing education coursework. I have been taking graduate level education courses at St. Lawrence University, Canton NY which have helped to improve my pedagogy. The learning from these classes also forms the basis of my first lecture which I would like to share with you at this conference. The results are phenomenal. My first lecture changes the “climate” of the classroom setting students up for success. It also makes them aware of my expectations of them in class avoiding future conflicts during the semester.

Keywords: Diverse class, Introductory Course, Effective Teaching, Class “Climate”
Partial Least Square Structure Equation Modeling For Examining The Effect Of Linguistic Style In MD&A On Stock Market Reaction

Mohamed M. Tailab, Lincoln University, USA

ABSTRACT

This paper investigates the impact of linguistic style in MD&A section on stock market response. It provides a new technique for combining qualitative with quantitative information by applying the partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM). In this paper, I model the influence of verbal tone from MD&A section as a cause to the stock market reaction as a consequence. For those unfamiliar with the PLS-SEM, I outline the procedures to evaluate the predictive model. The quantity to be predicted is the CARs as a proxy of market return, while the CAPM and volatility are a proxy of market risk. Furthermore, FutureROA_{t+1} is a proxy of expected future financial performance. The research tests its hypotheses by utilizing a balanced panel data sample from the MD&A section of 96 U.S. firms, all of which were listed in Fortune 500 in 2015. Specifically, the data collected spanned five years, from 2010 to 2014. The sample starts with 2010 as the author wished to neutralize the effect of the financial crisis on market reaction. Results indicate that the model for predicting future performance is considered moderate ($R^2 = 0.304$) while it is considered poor for predicting market reaction. As for the path coefficients, I find that there was no evidence of linguistic style in an MD&A having a significant effect on market reaction in general. This paper confirms that the stock market responded similarly to the total size of MD&A documents. Nevertheless, descriptive statistics designates that the verbal tone content in an MD&A was not adequately consistent with financial performance. Because of some limitations, these findings must be interpreted with caution.

Keywords: Linguistic Style, Market Reaction, Market Risk, Financial Performance, Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling
The Effect Of Text Difficulty Modification On Korean Learners’ Metacognitive Reading Strategy Use
Kyung-Ae Cha, Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, South Korea

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to investigate the changes of Korean learners’ metacognitive awareness development in terms of text difficulty. Metacognition has been recognized as a key factor in L2 reading and reading strategy studies. The significance of metacognition is clear in that it facilitates readers’ recognition regulation of their reading progress. According to Hudson, metacognition refers to “knowledge of or regulation of cognitive endeavors...it is basically cognition about cognition.” (Hudson, 2007, p. 112). He also mentioned that it is different from cognition in that metacognitive skills help one “to understand and regulate the performance on the task” (Hudson, 2007, p. 112). Baker and Brown (1984) illustrated that readers who are aware of the nature of reading and of their own reading strategy use tend to be better readers in comparison with readers who show deficits in using strategies.

Learners’ metacognitive awareness and use of reading strategies have been examined in various contexts. Yet, little is known about the strategic reading awareness of Korean university students who are learning in an EFL context. Moreover, there are not many studies that investigated text difficulty effect in readers’ metacognitive strategy use. The present study aimed at examining the effect and changes of text difficulty on Korean university students’ metacognitive reading strategy use within students of differing proficiency level (4 high and 4 low level students). Two texts were selected and modified from the main instructional materials, Touchstone book published by Oxford University Press. The modification was done by editing and revising the texts along five dimensions: sentence length, word frequency, referential cohesion, narrativity and syntactic complexity (McNamara, Graesser, Cai, Kulikowish, & McCarthy, 2010). The modified difficult texts included more complex sentence structures, low frequency words, sophisticated and detailed information and expressions than does its original counterpart. Eight Korean university students (1 male and 7 female freshman year students) participated in this study. The results of statistical analyses will be examined. Most of the studies will be discussed based on a qualitative analysis using data on strategy questionnaire called SORS (Survey of Reading Strategy) which is originally developed by Shorey and Mokhtari (2001), the learners’ reading strategy log.

The results of the study will reveal the significance of understanding the role of the reading strategy and text difficulty in accounting for text difficulty. The current study can provide useful information for pedagogical implications. On pedagogical grounds, text difficulty studies can increase instructional quality by providing L2 teachers with a clearer understanding of the existence of text difficulty, and thereby encouraging them to adapt their instruction to the diverse needs of readers. Second, practitioners can identify which strategies to emphasize once they have a clearer understanding of different types of metacognitive strategies and their direct effect on reading performance. Finally, the results of this study will provide insights in teaching reading strategy for improving EFL Korean learners’ reading comprehension in terms of text difficulty.

MAJOR REFERENCES

Perceived Accent In English Stress Production By Cantonese ESL Speakers – A Preliminary Temporal Analysis
Manwa L. Ng, University of Hong Kong, China
Rerrario Shui-Ching Ho, University of Hong Kong, China

ABSTRACT

Accent originate from deviation in articulation during production of L2 speech sounds. The amount of perceived accentness should correspond to the degree of misarticulation when producing L2 sounds. For native Cantonese speakers who are learning to speak English as a second language (ESL), their L2 English have been reported to accompany varying degrees of accent. Many theories have been developed to explain or to help us understand the source of L2 accents. Acoustically, L2 English accent manifests itself in frequency, intensity and duration properties associated with different English sounds. For example, it has been reported that English stressing is closely associated with the relative levels of pitch (frequency), loudness (intensity), and duration of the syllables being uttered.

The present investigation attempted to examine L2 English accent associated stress production by Primary School Teachers of Hong Kong. In particular, duration of stressed and unstressed syllables produced by L2 English speakers of Cantonese were compared, and data were compared with productions by a native English speaker.

As discussed in the literature, in English, stressed syllables tend to exhibit a greater pitch and loudness, as well as longer duration, when compared with unstressed syllables. However, this contrast is not present in Cantonese, the mother tongue of native Cantonese speaking English teachers. By comparing the durational values, articulatory deviation and thus accent originating from durational discrepancy can be revealed.

Preliminary analysis tends to indicate a lack of durational contrast between stressed and unstressed syllables in English produced by ESL speakers of Cantonese, which is in contradiction to native English speaker’s productions. This may be related to the influence of L1, as stressing effect is minimal in Cantonese, as Cantonese (Chinese) is a syllable-timed language, and English is a stress-timed language. This finding implies that durational training should be included in English classes provided to ESL speakers.

Acknowledgement: This research was supported by the Standing Committee on Language Education and Research (SCOLAR) (EDB(LE)/P&R/EL/164/24), Education Bureau of Hong Kong, Hong Kong.
The Effects Of Collaborative Videoconferencing In EFL College Course: A Case Study For Enhancing Global Minds
Minako Yogi, University of the Ryukyus, Japan

ABSTRACT

With the development of ICT, numerous scholars explored the benefits and challenges of integrating technology in language education programs. Incorporating interactive videoconference is an effective means for sharing information, thoughts, and communicating with people around the globe. The purpose of this study was to implement videoconferencing in an EFL college English course to provide students an authentic environment, cultivate language and communication skills, improve presentation techniques, deepen cultural knowledge, and build problem-solving skills. A total of 202 students participated in the collaboration during the academic years 2012 through 2017. Students gathered information on topics related to the content covered in freshmen English class and created manuscripts and slides for the live presentation sessions. Survey questions were developed by the author to obtain feedback on the following viewpoints: videoconference evaluation, global and cultural awareness, process and outcome of the collaborative project work, effects of interaction with the counterpart, issues on language skills, and perspectives for future careers. The results of the questionnaire and comments reveal that the majority of students were satisfied with the content, task, and outcome of the videoconference collaboration. The findings also indicate that the participants considered the interactive experience extremely rewarding and motivating for improving language, communication skills, presentation techniques, and cultural awareness, which are inevitable components for becoming a successful language learner. Consequently, implementation of an innovative approach in English education programs may have potentials to provide firsthand experience, facilitate unique learning opportunities, and enhance 21st century skills, which may generate promising individuals for this global era.
Scientist’s Intellectual Leadership While Performing The Pedagogical Activities In Higher Education: Type Of Institution And Work Status

Vaida Jurgile, Vytautas Magnus University, Lithuania
Vilma Zydziunaite, Vytautas Magnus University, Lithuania

RESEARCH ABSTRACT

Background

While effective teaching is vital for student learning in higher education, academics in Europe are not as prepared for their teaching careers as they are for their research. Recent changes in higher education make the development of academics’ teaching skills a priority. National and international competition for students forces higher education institutions to market themselves to all potential students. Consequently, these institutions attract students with different levels of knowledge and skills. Through teaching, higher education plays an important role in disseminating and promoting the use of research. Social and cultural changes accompany these economic changes: deepening democracy in Europe calls for citizens who are able to think critically and possess other skills and virtues, including, for example, empathy for different cultures. This cultural change also relies upon higher education. The Bologna process, which now recognises the need for improved classroom teaching, aims to increase student mobility. Mobility will only bring desired outcomes if students can expect attractive and competitive education at home and abroad. European efforts at quality assurance call for qualified and competent teaching staff so that the quality of education is enhanced and comparable across the region (Pleschová et al., 2012).

Quality teaching is the use of pedagogical techniques to produce learning outcomes for students. It involves several dimensions, including the effective design of curriculum and course content, a variety of learning contexts (including guided independent study, project-based learning, collaborative learning, experimentation), soliciting and using feedback, and effective assessment of learning outcomes. It also involves well-adapted learning environments and student support services (Henard & Roseveare, 2012). Experience shows that fostering quality teaching is a multi-level endeavour. Support for quality teaching takes place at three inter-dependent levels (Henard, 2009):

- At the institution-wide level: including projects such as policy design, and support to organisation and internal quality assurance systems.
- At the programme level: comprising actions to measure and enhance the design, content and delivery of the programmes within a department or a school.
- At the individual level: including initiatives that help teachers achieve their mission, encouraging them to innovate and to support improvements to student learning and adopt a learner-oriented focus.

These three levels are essential and interdependent. However, supporting quality of teaching at the programme level is a key aspect so as to ensure improvement in quality of teaching at the discipline level and across the institution. To help all students to learn in and for in the changing environment, academics as higher education school teachers need a better understanding of teaching and learning issues as well as to advance their pedagogic competences. Many current methods, such as widespread lecturing to students, relegate students to passivity, tend to focus narrowly on subject knowledge, and, thus, are inadequate. Instead, effective teaching needs to put student learning at the centre of the teaching process (Henard & Roseveare, 2012). In Europe, developments in higher education have reinforced each other, creating demands on teachers for which many are unprepared (Allan et al., 2009; Pleschová et al., 2012;
Modernisation of Higher Education, 2014): student-centred teaching, knowledge economy and knowledge societies, changing conception of education, increasingly diverse student body, diverse teaching staff, the changing platform of education, shrinking funding, tuition fees.

The aim of the research was to provide the research-based evidences about the intellectual leadership of a scientist within the pedagogical activities in the higher education context.

The research question was the following: “What are differences and similarities of the scientist’s intellectual leadership features according to type of institution and work status?"

METHODOLOGY

The design for the study was chosen to be qualitative. The Constructivist Grounded theory (CGT) (Charmaz, 1983, 2005, 2006, 2011, 2012, 2014) as the methodology and method were applied in the study. CGT focuses on interpretive understandings of meanings, and this version of GT is equal to multiple social realities (Charmaz, 2011). CGT coding is inductive, comparative, interactive, and iterative and then deductive (Charmaz, 2012). Charmaz (1983, 2005, 2006, 2011, 2012, 2014) distinguishes several phases of GT coding: i) Initial coding refers to the close data analysis. Here, all details are important, i.e. word-by-word coding, line-by-line coding, incident-by-incident coding. ii) Focused coding enables a researcher to synthesize and explain larger segments of data. iii) Axial coding aims at relating categories with subcategories. iv) Theoretical coding emphasizes the guidance to reconsider the codes selected during the focused coding. The theoretical codes help to figure out possible relationships between categories. In this article the findings from focused coding are provided.

The qualitative sample consisted of 39 scientists from 10 universities and 9 Colleges of Lithuania. 30 research participants work only at the University setting and only in College work 5 research participants; 4 participants combine the work at the University and in the College; 1 research participant combines the work in business and at the University and 1 scientist combines the work in civil service and at the University. 23 research participants work only the academic (mostly pedagogical) work in higher education school. In research did not participate scientists who have the only administrative position in higher education school. 17 research participants combine the administrative and academic work positions in higher education school.

FINDINGS

Scientists in higher education schools perform pedagogical activities and their intellectual leadership in this work is experienced through supporting, growing, directing, performing, initiating, discovering, seeking for consistency through directions to students, the higher education institution and to the self. Scientists recognise creative and routine components in their pedagogical activities, they are balancing between the satisfaction and disappointment by being in communion with students. Scientists also speak about individual autonomous work within their pedagogical activities because of competition with colleagues, academic selfishness and responsibility for quality of content of lectures.
Table 1

Categories and subcategories in regard to scientist’s intellectual leadership while performing pedagogical activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Subcategories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SUPPORTING</td>
<td>Helping students to study with motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Helping students to start the professional career</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advising the young colleagues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GROWING</td>
<td>Developing personally through collaboration with students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recognising the effectiveness of lectures through questions of students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private self-awareness in regard to the pedagogical responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Taking responsibility for the quality of lectures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIRECTING</td>
<td>Conducting the student toward the goal by providing the intellectual support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘Raising’ the students toward quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERFORMING THE</td>
<td>Experiencing the work abundance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROUTINE WORK</td>
<td>Experiencing the multidirectionality of pedagogical activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INITIATING</td>
<td>Collaborating with students through working for society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISCOVERING</td>
<td>Observing professional self-determination among students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPERIENCING</td>
<td>Observing superficial learning among students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISSAPPOINTMENT</td>
<td>Relating students’ motivation and their learning quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Observing students’ expectations regarding the unity of lecturer’s opinions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPERIENCING</td>
<td>Working “without problems” with motivated students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATISFACTION</td>
<td>Observing students’ representations of their selected professions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Preparing for lectures responsibly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Being capable to communicate the information for audience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning from students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sharing the collective responsibility for the quality of the study subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEING AUTONOMOUS</td>
<td>Experiencing personal responsibility for quality of prepared materials for lectures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experiencing the reserved individuality by competing with colleagues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expressing the academic selfishness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VALUING THE WORK</td>
<td>Being competent lecturer interculturally and internationally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPERIENCE</td>
<td>Avoiding collaboration for teaching quality among lecturers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEEKING FOR</td>
<td>Relating efforts of the lecturer and the student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONTINUITY</td>
<td>Initiating the students’ self-empowerment in lectures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEING IN COMMUNION</td>
<td>Listening and understanding the motivated students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Explaining repeatedly for unmotivated students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experiencing lack of peer support regarding scientist’s dedication to work with unmotivated students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Respecting the student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Observing dissapearence of boundaries between teaching and learning among lecturers and students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Observing the students’ detachment from the outlined lecture’s content by the lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEING IN CERTAINTY</td>
<td>Providing unregulated activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEEKING FOR</td>
<td>Recognising the lecturer’s expertise within the virtual space</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONSISTENCY</td>
<td>Harmonising theoretical lectures and practical work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Intellectual leadership of scientists working at Universities and in Colleges is manifested within the pedagogical activities in a higher education school through growing, directing, performing, experiencing dissapointment and / or satisfaction, performing routine work, being in communion or / and in certainty, and seeking for consistency. Only for College scientists within their pedagogical activities are relevant initiating and discovering when they implement the intellectual leadership. However, only the scientists working at Universities in the pedagogical activities mention supporting, being autonomous, valuing experience, and seeking for continuity, when they implement the intellectual leadership.
Scientists who perform academic and administrative activities in higher education schools speak with one provision (keep on unified attitude) regarding the intellectual leadership in higher education – they are focused there on the following aspects: supporting, growing, directing, performing routine work, discovering, experiencing disappointment and / or satisfaction, being autonomous and / or being in communion. These opinions / attitudes are complemented by scientists who perform only academic activities in higher education schools – they note that their intellectual leadership is related to initiating, valuing the work experience, being in certainty and seeking for consistency.

Table 3

Features of the scientist’s intellectual leadership while performing pedagogical activities according to the type work status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>University</th>
<th>College</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Growing</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directing</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performing</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiencing disappointment</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiencing satisfaction</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being in communion</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being in certainty</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeking for consistency</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being autonomous</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valuing the work experience</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeking for continuity</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiating</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discovering</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

University and College teachers, realizing intellectual leadership within the pedagogical activities emphasize the scientist’s continuous learning from daily practice, and the moment of the expediency. University scientists express the need for support, autonomy and continuity of variety of scientific activities. They also say that the scientist's initiative and learning from the experience allows for intellectual leadership in pedagogical activities in higher education school. Scientists from colleges see discoveries, although they do not specify what kind of discoveries.

Scientists who are engaged with academic and administrative activities in higher education school unanimously say that the intellectual leadership within the pedagogical activities in higher education occurs only when scientists i) receive full support and when they have the possibilities for growth continually, ii) they may purposefully carry out the research, iii) they are autonomous and have the opportunity to share experiences in the academic community. Scientists engaged in academic activities complement this opinion by focusing not only on external, but also on internal personality-related aspects. They argue that within the pedagogical activities the scientist must be able to learn from experience, be proactive and consistently carry out the research. These components significantly contribute to
the realization of the intellectual leadership within the pedagogical activities in higher education school.

Conclusions. Scientists are prepared for their role as researchers, but not for their teaching duties. Despite growing evidence for the benefits of development programmes for teachers in higher education school, teaching is still viewed as an activity that anyone can do. Thus, higher education schools in Lithuania do not make substantial investment into enhancing the teaching abilities of their academic staff. In other words, the preparation of higher education school teachers remains ad hoc. While formal degree programmes exist to develop and certify competence in research (Masters / PhD) and is a clear expectation that academic staff is qualified to this level, the requirement to gain a formal qualification in teaching is not widespread within the higher education schools in Lithuania.

If teachers and the higher education schools in which they work adopt a more student-centred view of teaching as encapsulated in this section, their students will learn more deeply, and they are more likely to be intellectually and morally transformed by their higher education school experience. But the higher education sector needs to be willing to promote this kind of significant learning and help teachers learn how to achieve those aims. It must create environments in which student learning of this kind can take place and in which teachers are rewarded for engaging in such practices. It will not happen by itself.

In order to professionalise academics as teachers for higher education school, it is recommended that higher education schools that strive for quality education offer educational development opportunities for their teachers. Excellent teachers are made; they become excellent through investment in their teaching abilities. Leaving teachers to learn from trial and error is a waste of time, effort and higher education school resources. Therefore, staff involved in teaching and supporting student learning should be qualified, supported and adequately resourced for that role.

Keywords: Grounded Theory, Higher Education, Intellectual Leader, Pedagogical Activities, Scientist.

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Visibility Of A Scientist’s Intellectual Leadership Within The Scientific Activities In Higher Education: Type Of Institution And Work Status

Vaida Jurgile, Vytautas Magnus University, Lithuania
Vilma Zydziunaite, Vytautas Magnus University, Lithuania

RESEARCH ABSTRACT

Background

Scientists nowadays perceive a duty to talk to the media about their research as part of their professional role. Most Universities and research organizations react positively to their researchers’ work being covered by the mass media (Peters, 2013). The societal function of the media is, however, not limited to the provision of information. Based on the necessity of selecting their topics, journalistic media label issues, events, and actors as relevant to society. Coverage by the media is widely perceived as an indicator of relevance and success, as in policy fields related to science (Petersen et al., 2010). The assumption that media visibility helps to secure social support and public legitimacy—not only for science in general but also with respect to higher education institutions—is widely held by the management and public relations staff of science organizations as well as by scientists (Peters, 2012). The media contribute to a transformation of scientific knowledge by relating it to phenomena, events, issues, knowledge, and concerns outside science. This transformation goes beyond simple “translation” as the principal goal of journalism is to increase relevance and comprehensibility for an audience of nonscientists (Salomone et al., 1990). Scientists generally embrace dissemination and marking something as relevant to society because they perceive these as being mostly beneficial to themselves and to the audience. However, they have greater difficulties with the journalistic transformation of scientific knowledge and often associate it with distortions and inaccuracies (Boykoff, M. T. & Boykoff, J. M., 2004).

The relationship between science and the public has been characterized by gap. Scientists and journalists are like strangers to each other, not able to understand each other’s language, and driven by different agendas (Peters, 2013). The notion of a gap between science and the media may not be a valid description of the science–media interface if it is taken to mean a gap separating scientists and journalists, with scientists standing on one side and journalists on the other. However, as a metaphor to describe a separation of arenas of internal scientific and public communication, it captures aspects of public science communication. According to this view, scientists are communicators in each of the two arenas, which are structured by different institutions and governed by different rules. Scientists in the public arena have to adjust to the logic of the media to attract attention (Etzkowitz, 2008).

The scientists do actually distinguish clearly between the arenas of internal scientific and public communication as far as journalistic mass media are concerned. This distinction has at least two aspects: the exclusion of the public from communication dealing with knowledge creation and validation, and the conceptualization of scientific knowledge as special knowledge. Both distinctions lead to a communication pattern that is usually labeled popularization, i. e., the use of selected, simplified, sensationalized, and pedagogically tailored messages when addressing the general public. Dissemination of science reconstructed for public consumption (Dunwoody, 1993) is seen as a follow-up step after scientific results have been achieved.

The other aspect of the “gap” concerns the distance between scientific / academic knowledge and everyday knowledge. Scientists in general and in particular do not consider their knowledge part of general education, i. e., they regard it as knowledge that not everybody is supposed to have (Dunwoody et al., 2009). The journalistic reporting of science
therefore labels this knowledge as originating from a different sphere than that of journalists and their audiences. Branding scientific knowledge as specialist knowledge relieves scientists of the need to treat the general public as a peer group; this group is rather conceived of as an external audience that has to be informed or educated (Peters, 2013). The humanities and social sciences typically show a less strict demarcation between internal scientific and public communication and between scientific and general knowledge than the sciences (Jensen et al., 2008).

When dealing with the mass media, scientists—more than social scientists and scholars from the humanities—are aware they are talking to an audience of outsiders, i.e., that they are communicating in an arena clearly distinguished from that of internal scientific communication. The gap between the arenas has two aspects: first, the content of communication, marked as special knowledge and carrying the label scientific, is not merged into the everyday knowledge of the audience; second, scientific knowledge is produced and validated without the expectation that the general public should be involved (Peters et al., 2008).

Rather than viewing scientists’ interactions with the media as the result of individual decisions based on a consideration of costs, benefits, and perceived moral duty, it is more appropriate to conceive of their readiness to interact with the media as part of the modern scientist’s role, especially of the intellectual leadership role. If scientists are involved in research relevant for the media, it is now expected of them by journalists and by their own organization, and tolerated or even rewarded in terms of gain in reputation by their scientific community, for them to be prepared to interact with the media (Peters, 2013). Psychological factors may still have a mediating influence on how scientists play out this part of their role but playing along is the default, and refusing media contacts without legitimate reason has become unacceptable (Borchelt, 2008).

Based on the belief that visibility in the media helps secure societal support and legitimacy, attracts the attention of sponsors, and increases competitiveness in markets for students, clients, patients and research and development contracts, public relations on the part of scientific organizations have become part of the strategic management of higher education schools (Nelkin, 1987).

The aim of the research was to provide the research-based evidences about the visibility of a scientist’s intellectual leadership in the higher education context.

The research question was the following: “What are differences and similarities of the scientist’s intellectual leadership visibility according to type of institution and work status?”

**METHODOLOGY**

The design for the study was chosen to be qualitative. The Constructivist Grounded theory (CGT) (Charmaz, 1983, 2005, 2006, 2011, 2012, 2014) as the methodology and method were applied in the study. CGT focuses on interpretive understandings of meanings, and this version of GT is equal to multiple social realities (Charmaz, 2011). CGT coding is inductive, comparative, interactive, and iterative and then deductive (Charmaz, 2012). Charmaz (1983, 2005, 2006, 2011, 2012, 2014) distinguishes several phases of GT coding: i) Initial coding refers to the close data analysis. Here, all details are important, i.e. word-by-word coding, line-by-line coding, incident-by-incident coding. ii) Focused coding enables a researcher to synthesize and explain larger segments of data. iii) Axial coding aims at relating categories with subcategories. iv) Theoretical coding emphasizes the guidance to reconsider the codes selected during the focused coding. The theoretical codes help to figure out possible relationships between categories. In this article the findings from focused coding are provided.

The qualitative sample consisted of 39 scientists from 10 universities and 9 Colleges of Lithuania. 30 research participants work only at the University setting and only in College work 5 research participants; 4 participants combine the work at the University and in the College; 1 research participant combines the work in business and at the University and 1 scientist combines the work in civil service and at the University. 23 research participants work only the academic (mostly pedagogical) work in higher education school. In research did not participate scientists who have the only administrative position in higher education school. 17 research participants combine the administrative and academic work positions in higher education school.
Visibility of scientist’s activity is perceived through openness, initiation, limitations, materiality, formalities, maintaining of reputation, and being directed to entrepreneurship.

**Categories and subcategories: visibility of scientist’s intellectual leadership in higher education**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Subcategories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BEING OPEN</td>
<td>Experiencing peers’ respectful trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INITIATING</td>
<td>Representing scientific activities through personal efforts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Achieving visibility through personal efforts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Involving scientist into multi-directed research activities by institutional initiatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-empowering of the team for dissemination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Committing personally to opinion leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEING LIMITED TO</td>
<td>Forming the targeted audience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Observing insignificance of scientific production within the international arena</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Being aware of personal publications’ citations and impact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Representing the institution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIRECTING TO</td>
<td>Preparing publications for scientific editions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MATERIALITY</td>
<td>Seeking for visibility of the research group through publications within the international arena</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEING FORMAL</td>
<td>Connecting the scientific activity with the certification of the scientist at the institution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAINTAINING</td>
<td>Acknowledging the scientist according to scientific topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REPUTATION</td>
<td>Acknowledging the scientist’s expertise within the topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIRECTING TO</td>
<td>Taking institutional responsibility for the sale of research production</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENTERPRENEURSHIP</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While implementing intellectual leadership in higher education, the visibility for scientists representing both the applied and comprehensive universities is related to initiating and being limited to.

Only those researchers who represent the applied sciences’ University indicate directing to materiality. However, the University’s representatives highlight being formal, maintaining reputation and directing to entrepreneurship.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Type of higher education school</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiating</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being limited to</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being formal</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintaining reputation</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directing to entrepreneurship</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directing to materiality</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Those scientists who work in the Universities acknowledge the need to be initiative. Indeed, they are limited to the local (institutional) and national levels. Therefore the enthusiasm of a scientist by demonstrating own achievements is relevant. The University scientists are under pressure for their orientation towards the production (materiality) and entrepreneurship in higher education. They completely perceive the essence of institutional requirements referring to the political and competitive approach in higher education market. However, the scientists are confident that national, local and international achievements could serve as benevolent for the higher education institutional requirements.

The scientists working at the administrative position in the higher education schools do not mention anything special which could be related to the academic activities, namely, initiating, being limited to and directing to materiality. Yet only the scientists working at the academic position while referring to the visibility of implemented intellectual leadership in higher education can provide quite large number of aspects being undisclosed by the scientists. Those aspects are the following: being open, being formal, maintaining of reputation and directing to entrepreneurship.
Table 3

Visibility of scientist’s intellectual leadership in higher education according to the type of institution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Work status in higher education school</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Academic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiating</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being limited to</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directing to materiality</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being open</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being formal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintaining of reputation</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directing to entrepreneurship</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Those scientists who implement academic and administrative activities indicate that (personal) initiatives, scientific productivity and explicit perception of own intellectual leadership limits are relevant for the visibility of a scientist’s intellectual leadership. However, those scientists implementing academic activities point out the need to integrate openness (for learning and innovations, perception of formal requirements, the need for entrepreneurship in higher education, as well as benevolent attitude towards diverse higher education changes. Namely the integration and consciousness of a scientist leads him / her towards visibility by implementing intellectual leadership in higher education.

CONCLUSION

Science journalism is expected to disseminate scientific knowledge and knowledge about science, making this knowledge widely accessible for audiences outside the scientific community. Scientists are members of scientific / academic communities and of higher education schools. In both contexts, they are exposed to normative expectations regarding media interactions. Scientific / academic communities nowadays tolerate media interactions or even reward them if certain conditions are met. Higher education schools usually encourage media visibility but also keep an eye on scientists’ media interactions to make sure that these are in line with the higher education school’s interests.

Keywords: Grounded Theory, Higher Education, Intellectual Leader, Media, Scientist, Visibility.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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REFERENCES

Leadership Styles Influence On Employee Engagement At Telecommunication Companies In Jordan As Observed By Employees
Islam A. Azzam, Yarmouk University, Jordan

ABSTRACT
This is a study on the influence of leadership styles on employee engagement at Telecommunication Companies in Jordan. This research examines three major leadership styles, autocratic, democratic and Laissez-faire and their influence on employee engagement.

Using the quantitative research methodology approach the researcher applied questionnaires as the research instrument. A total of 283 questionnaires were received. The responses were analyzed to identify what leadership style influences employees in the Telecommunication Companies in Jordan to be more engaged.

The Statistical Analysis System (SAS) software version 9.3 was used to run the test of reliability, Pearson correlation and linear regression. The results of the research show that there is a significant relationship between the leadership styles and employee Engagement.

Keywords: Leadership, Influence, Employee Engagement, Telecommunication Companies.

INTRODUCTION
This research will explore the influence of leadership styles, which include autocratic leadership, democratic leadership, and laissez-faire leadership, on employee engagement in Telecommunication Companies in Jordan. The relationship between the dependent variable (employee engagement) and independent variables (autocratic leadership style, democratic leadership style, and laissez-faire leadership style) will be examined in order to answer to the research questions and achieve the objectives of this research. This chapter will discuss the background of the research, research objectives and questions, hypotheses of the research and state the problems that prompted for this research. Moreover, the importance of the study and chapters layout of this research will also be presented.

RESEARCH BACKGROUND
The current Jordanian government has shifted its focus from the public sector to the private sector as a strategy to sustain economic growth and national development (Peebles, Darwazeh, Gosheh, & Sabbagh, 2007). This research targets individuals working in the private sector in Jordan as it is a fast growing sector and there are more opportunities. (Husseini, 2010)

The main purpose of this research is to identify the influence of leadership styles of leaders and the employee’s engagement towards the organization in Telecommunication Companies in Jordan. Organizational employee engagement is considered as one of the concepts which have always been attended to by many researchers and scholars. Paramount significance of the employee’s engagement for all organizations has already led to implementation of many researches in the field of management on the employee’s engagement and other issues like job satisfaction and turnover. Scientific researchers have already proved that employees with more organizational engagement are more loyal, productive and accountable. Moreover, organizational engagement is considered as one
of the reliable and sustainable predictors of the absence, turnover, productivity, efficiency and job satisfaction of the employees.

Many researchers show their keen interest in studying leadership as a subject which resulted in establishment of different leadership theories. Organization's success relies on employee's engagement and their focus towards achieving the organization's prime goals. Another prime factor of organization's success is the manager's leadership styles. It is the ability of the manager to influence his subordinates by making them more satisfied, committed and in return increases productivity (Mosadeghrad, 2003). Kreitner (1995) determines that leadership behavior can be used to create a significant impact on employees in order to improve organization commitment. In the past few years, there is a rebellion change in the ways the leadership and their attitudes is defined, moving from more autocratic to a more participative approach. In the world of global economy people are becoming more eloquent and more educated; they require an environment of participation and more involvement in decisions (Stewart, 1994). There are different styles of leadership ranging from autocratic, charismatic, participative, situational, bureaucratic, democratic, laissez faire, transactional, and transformational leadership (Mosadeghrad, 2003). None of the early mentioned styles is fit for every situation, a leader may seems to be highly effective and proficient in one situation but may not be as affective in the other.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

As a strategy for economic growth, Jordan has focused on the private sector, three major Jordanian telecommunication companies agreed to participate in this research (Zain, Orange, and Umniah). These international companies are regulated by Jordanian labor laws which include gender and equality guidelines. The total population in these organizations is 3,872 employees.

The efficiency of the telecommunication sector is highly affected by leadership styles, manager’s practice in the field. Due to social and cultural variables managers use inappropriate leadership styles on the wok which affect both employee engagement and organization effectiveness. This study aims to explore leadership style utilized at work and their effect on employee engagement (Global Research, 2006).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY:

- This study intends to identify the style or the styles are applicable in the telecommunication companies in Jordan.
- Seeks to evaluate the impact of leadership styles on employee engagement.
- Explore the relationship between the independent variables (autocratic, democratic, and laissez faire), and dependent variable (employee engagement).
- This study is using a quantitative approach. Surveys are used to collect data from the employees of telecommunication companies in Jordan.

THE STATEMENT OF THE STUDY:

This study is a significant endeavor in promoting good work environment and increasing the employee engagement at telecommunication companies in Jordan which reflect beneficial to the managers to increase the employee engagement in a way that reflect positively on the performance of the organization itself. Moreover, this study will provide recommendations on how to evaluate the employee engagement in three styles of leadership (autocratic, democratic, and laissez faire), also it would be a start point to the researchers in the future.

PRIMARY RESEARCH QUESTIONS:

1. How does leadership styles affect employee engagement at telecommunication companies in Jordan?
2. Does the independent variables (autocratic, democratic, and laissez faire) influence the dependent variable (employee engagement) at telecommunication companies in Jordan?
3. What is the level of engaged employees at Telecommunication Companies in Jordan?
MODEL OF THE STUDY:

HYPOTHESES:

H1: There is a statistical relationship between leadership style and employee engagement among employees in telecommunication companies in Jordan.

H2: There is a statistical relationship between autocratic leadership style and employee engagement among employees in telecommunication companies in Jordan.

H3: There is a statistical relationship between democratic leadership style and employee engagement among employees in telecommunication companies in Jordan.

H4: There is statistical relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and employee engagement among employees in telecommunication companies in Jordan.

RESEARCH DESIGN:

This study is a descriptive study, data gathered from the questionnaire and surveys, it is proposed the analysis of the questionnaires shall be done using SPSS software. After data is prepared and entered into the computer, data must be analyzed and explored through diagrammatic representation (if possible). The survey built based on the items of factors from conceptual framework: three leadership styles (autocratic, democratic, and laissez faire), employee engagement that were mentioned in the literatures review, in order to measure validity and reliability of the results.

RESEARCH LOCATION:

From the private sector three major telecommunication companies in Jordan will be investigate the setting for this research will be. Study will seek to identify the role of leadership styles that influence the employee engagement at telecommunication companies in Jordan. These are international companies.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The study of leadership has been an important and central part of literature on management and employee behavior for several decades. Actually no other organization element has received more interest than that of leader (Schwandt & Marquardt, 2000). Leadership concept is not considered as new concept, it had been studied since ages bake to the
time of Plato, Caesar (Bass, 1981). Over the years, researchers have developed and generated a lot of work and data that adds value to the concept of leadership.

HISTORICAL EVOLVEMENT OF CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP AND LEADERSHIP STYLES

The earlier concept of leadership focused on “great man” born with skills and qualities of leadership.

The Great Man Theory of leadership attempted to explain leadership on the basis of heredity. This theory explains that the leader is born with superior qualities and skills that differentiate him from his followers.

Trait theories argue that effective leaders share common personality traits or characteristics. These include traits and qualities such as integrity, honesty, assertiveness, motivation, vision, innovation, intelligence, and etc. early trait theories explain that the person naturally born to be a leader. Trait theories now evolved and pose that one can learn leadership traits, and that positive leadership trait can be developed through training and education. Many of studies have identify traits of successful leaders. The Forbes top 10 qualities that make a great leader include: honesty, creativity, intuition, confidence, commitment, ability to inspire, delegate, and communicate, a sense of humor, and positive attitude. (Forbes, 2012). After the trait approach the behavioral approach came into existence. Researchers began to focus on the apparent leadership behaviors.

Behavioral leadership theory: behavioral leadership was based on leader’s behavior. In the early 1930s, Kurt Lewin presented a framework based on the behaviors which divided the leadership styles into four categories: autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire, and consultive (Daiels, 2004 and Brundrett, 2010).

Autocratic leadership leaders are those type of leaders who give orders “Do what I say to do with no commitment”, moreover Adebakin and Gbadamosi (1996) describe an autocratic leader as one who interested about the chair and position, which is give him the authority to give orders, also he has little faith and trust in his subordinates, he feels that employee’s salary is just reward for work and it is the only way to motive them. Autocratic leaders give themselves the decision-making rights. They can lead the organization to it end by force their followers to execute strategies and services in very narrow way, based on what they think about successful idea looks like. Moreover autocratic leaders are not sharing a vision and little motivation beyond coercion. Therefore innovation and creativity are typically not found by autocratic leadership style.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt, (1958) describe democratic leader as they share the authority with subordinates, so this type of leadership can consider that decision-making is decentralized. Criticism and praises are objectively given and a feeling of take a responsibility is developed within the group. Moreover the democratic leaders give followers the chance to use their initiative and make contributions in accomplishing duties and tasks. The biggest problem with democratic leadership is underlying assumption that everyone has an equal stake in an outcome as well as shared levels of expertise with regard to decisions. While democratic leadership theory sounds good, it often bogged down with slow process, and workable results usually an enormous amount of effort.

LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP:

Laissez-faire leadership is a passive kind of leadership style. There is no relationship exchange between the leaders and followers. Laissez-faire leadership style is the other end of autocratic leadership styles. With this type of leadership styles leaders attempt to pass the responsibility of decision making process to the member of the group (employees), (Igbaekemen, 2014). It represent a careless style about other’ issues, where a necessary decisions are not made. Actions are delayed, leadership responsibilities are ignored, and authority unused. As a result, the duties may not be taken seriously and tile conditionally become chaotic (Flippo, ET,al, 1982). The following table contains the description of each style, relevant leader behaviors and potential impact on employees:

LEADERSHIP STYLES

(Idrus, 2014), study have been conducted by interdisciplinary journal, aimed to investigate the influence one style of leadership, organization culture and organization commitments on organization performance. The study showed the
role of bureaucratic leadership in the Jayapura government was not able to improve the quality of the financial managers to reach the maximum of the performance. Moreover researcher spots the light on the importance of the organizational culture and the role that can play to support the member of the organization to reach the wanted performance. The type of the study was explanatory. This study explained the relation between bureaucratic leadership style, organizational culture, and organizational commitment as independent variables, and organization performance as dependent variable. The study found that the influence of bureaucratic leadership was negative on the organization commitment. Organization culture was not able to support the performance, and the organizational commitment was able to support the organization performance. Organizational commitment was served as a mediator of influence on bureaucratic leadership and organizational culture on organization performance.

(Elkordy, 2013). Another study was studied the impact of leadership on the employee attitudinal outcomes the researcher focused on the job satisfaction and organizational commitment as a key work attitude, leading to the highest level of the organizational performance. This study explained the extent of which transformational leadership and organization culture influence employees’ attitudinal outcomes, Also investigate the effect of job satisfaction on organizational commitment. Survey was the method that had been used to collect data from Egyptian employees working across seven industries. The result found that job satisfaction was explained by perceptions of organizational culture and transactional leadership; organizational commitment was explained by employees’ job satisfaction, culture, and transformational leadership, with satisfaction had the strongest impact followed by culture and transformational leadership.

Dukakis et al. (2010) argue that the negative impacts of autocratic leadership are starkly evident in private sector organizations compared to public sector organizations. To explain this point, Dukakis et al. (2010) reason that leadership issues in private sector organizations associated with the application of autocratic leadership style would be reflected in the level of revenues, whereas leadership ineffectiveness in public sector organizations might be tolerated for longer periods of time.

Kotur and Anloazhagan (2014) investigated the different leadership styles of the workers by studying three main styles of leadership, which are: autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire styles. Moreover the study aims to measure the influence of age and gender on the leadership styles of the workers. The study was in Chittoor sugar factory located in south town of India. The study concentrated on three styles that are on the top, bottom, and middle of the leadership authority. The sample of the study comprises of 652 employees among them, 36 employees hold a supervisory role and the rest of 616 are the workers. The technique was used in this study is random sample in the survey. The hypothesis of this study were: 1. There is a significant difference in the number of employee with their inherently leadership style, 2. There is no significant difference between male and female employees in term of leadership styles. The results of this studies are: all of the leadership styles are not equally present in the employees, inherently, the democratic leadership style was dominate among employees, the laissez-faire comes next, while autocratic leadership style exhibited by least number of employees. Moreover study shows that gender and age have their own influence on the workers leadership style.

LEADERSHIP AND EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

Rassol.et.al (2015) research investigated the impact of leadership styles on employee’s performance in the health sector located in Pakistan. According to this research leadership styles considered as independent variables, while employee’s performance considered as dependent variable. The purposes of this research are: 1. to determine the prevailing leadership style in health sector in Pakistan, and 2. to observe the relationship between leadership style and employee’s performance. Therefore the researchers set out three hypothesis to analyses, 1. Transactional leadership style has a positive relationship with employee’s performance, 2. Transformational leadership style is most prevailing leadership in prevailing leadership styles in the health sector organizations, and 3. There is a positive relation between transformational leadership and employee’s performance. The researcher distribute questionnaires to collect data from the target population (Doctors, health nutrition officers, medical technicians, and other supportive staff), whom working in health sector of Southern Punjab. Target population was chosen in basis of convenience sampling. The questionnaires distributed through various hospitals and received 332 filled questionnaires. Researchers found that transformational leadership is dominate leadership in health sector of Pakistan, also the found that there is a positive relationship between employee’s performance and transformational, transactional leaders, also the found that
transformational leadership style has a strong relation with employee’s performance.

Khour and Yen (2014) argue the effect of leadership styles on employee engagement in Binh Dong city. This research aimed to find the influence of employee sociability on employee engagement and its mediation were examined. According to this research leadership styles consider to be independent variables, while employee engagement considered to be dependent variable, and employee sociability as moderate variable. The approach of this study was based on quantitative method, with statistical technique applied, including factors, multiple regression, and path analysis. The target population is employees who are working in five industries in BinhDoung; sample size of this study consist of 269 office employees. The researcher indicates that the higher level of the employee sociability, ethical leadership were positively associated with higher level of the employee engagement, also organic leadership were positively affected employee engagement, on another side the transactional leadership style had negatively correlated with employee engagement. Moreover the researchers found that employee sociability is positively associated with their engagement. Based on that the researchers recommended that in order to improve engagement of employees, organizations should apply ethical and visionary leadership and avoid transactional leadership style.

AL-Ababneh (2010) investigated the influence of managerial leadership style on employee job satisfaction in Jordan hotels. This research aimed to explore and find the prevalent leadership styles in a sample of hotels in Jordan and the relation between the styles of leadership that adopted by managers and the job satisfaction of their followers or subordinates in the same hotels.

The target population of this study contains all employees who work at six Jordanian hotels located around the Dead Sea and in Petra. The researcher choose this population since most of Jordanian resorts located in this location, also the researcher funneled the population choosing the four and five stars hotels only to meet the purpose of his study. The researcher divided the population into two subgroups: line employees, and managers and supervisors using two instruments to collect data from two matched sampling frames in Jordanian resort hotels. The researcher used job satisfaction instrument and distributed it to line employees while distributed a leadership instruments to managers and supervisors. The leadership instrument was consisted of 21 statements about three leadership styles – autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire. The researcher used five-point Likert-type scale to analyze the data that have been collected from the sample. 360 questionnaires were distributed consist of 200 job satisfaction questionnaires and 160 leadership styles questionnaires. The researcher retrieve 220 completed questionnaires, giving 61% response rate for the line employees questionnaires, and 69% response rate of the managers and supervisors questionnaires. The results that reached by the researcher were: there was indeed significant differences in job satisfaction according to the demographic characteristics of employees, but he mentioned that employees moderately satisfied with their jobs. Moreover the researcher found that there is a significant differences in leadership style due to manager’s demographic characteristics. Furthermore he spot the light on democratic leadership style as a preferred style among managers, in contrast to suggestions that hotel managers prefer to be autocratic. The researcher also mentioned that he did not prove the relationship between job satisfaction and leadership styles and he recommended to complete his research in the future.

TELECOMMUNICATION COMPANIES IN JORDAN:

Based on Investment Board Society (2011) (IBS), Jordan has a communication infrastructure at a high degree of sophistication. Telecommunications sector in Jordan is growing very rapidly, and is updated constantly infrastructure and expand service. Telecommunications sector in Jordan remains the most competitive in the Middle East. Telecommunications in Jordan within the means of many media include telephone, radio, television, and the Internet. Since 2002, Jordanian Telecommunications sector occupies one of the three top ranks of foreign direct investment. Telecommunications and information technology revenues have doubled within five years from $450 million in 2000 to one billion dollars in 2005. Telecommunications sector in Jordan had grown during the period 1921 – 1971. The beginning was the foundation of Department of lightning and mail in 1921 that offers the telegraph and mail services for the Emirate of Transjordan. In 1930, the British Telecommunications Company (the cable and Telecommunications Company) with the help of Department of lightning and mail has developed Telecommunications and international links services. Cooperation with the cable and Telecommunications Company for nearly four decades has continued. In 1961, the Ministry of Transportation was established, dedicated to the improvement and expansion of telephone and telegraph communication services to suit the needs of the country and became fully and directly responsible for...
all national Telecommunications within the Kingdom. The first automatic telephone exchange in Amman was run with a rough capacity amounted to 5000 lines. In 1966, cooperation had been terminated with British Telecom (cable and Telecommunications Company), and hence, the responsibilities entrusted to the Ministry of Transportation. In 1971, Telecommunications Corporation established which was owned by government and assigned to secure telecommunications terrestrial and satellite. During the years from 1973 to 1985, Jordan Telecom network has significantly expanded with the recovery of oil prices and the increase in the cash conversion from expatriates, which flourished Jordanian economy and increased public spending by the government on the networks. In 1988, Jordanian company for automatic was granted license to provide pagers service. Ministry of Transportation name was changed to the Ministry of Post and Telecommunications in 1992. In 1993, the government allowed the private sector to invest in Telecommunication projects. In October 1994, the Jordanian government granted the first license to run a public mobile telephone service, for Jordanian company for mobile phones / Fastlink, and establishment of the Telecommunications Regulatory Commission (TRC). In 1997, Telecommunications Corporation has been converted into a company wholly owned by the government and it was registered in the Companies Registry under the name of "Jordan Telecom Company” as a first step towards the privatization of the company. Petra Jordanian Mobile Telecommunications Company / MobileCom in 1999 was granted a license to provide mobile service in the Kingdom. In the new millennium, Jordan became a full member of the World Trade Organization (WTO). Jordan provided its obligations regarding the Telecommunications sector within the presentations made to join the organization, which included the liberalization of the Telecommunications sector in full by the end of 2004. 40% of Jordan Telecom Company shares were sold to Arab Bank and France Telecom, and 8% for the benefit of the Social Security Corporation and 1% for the staff of the Jordanian Telecommunications Company. In August 2004, Umniah for mobile phones was granted a license to provide mobile communications services. In June 2008, the Commission announced its intention to introduce third-generation services in Jordan. In mid-August 2009, Orange cellular company awarded a license to provide third-generation services in the Kingdom (TRC, 2011).

RESEARCH DESIGN:

To determine whether the research is qualitative or a quantitative research, the researcher must understand the differences between them. Qualitative data obtained by interviewing individuals seeks to understand human behavior and reasons that govern such behavior, also qualitative is used to understand the phenomena at exploratory stages of the study. In quantitative research, it is objective in approach in the sense that only seeks to precise measurements such as frequencies, mean, and standard deviation, and analysis of target to answer the inquiry. Therefore, the researcher can conclude that this research on the role of leadership styles that influence employee engagement at telecommunication companies in Jordan is quantitative research, due to quantify data from sample to the population of interest by distributing structured questionnaires to a large number of respondents.

Based on Sekaran (2009), who classify research on basis of its purpose, into exploratory research, descriptive research and causal research. In this research on the role of leadership styles that influence employee engagement at telecommunication companies can be classified as descriptive research, since descriptive research is undertaken in order to ascertain and able to describe the characteristics of the variables of interest in a situation.

A survey was administered to a random sample distributed to a population that were identified and recommended by telecommunication company’s headquarters in Jordan. The term ‘survey’ is commonly applied to a research methodology designed to collect data from a specific population, or a sample from that population, and typically utilizes a questionnaire or an interview as the survey instrument (Robson, 1993).

According to Leary (1995), there are distinct advantages in using a questionnaire vs. an interview methodology: questionnaires are less expensive and easier to administer than personal interviews; they lend themselves to group administration; and, they allow confidentiality to be assured. Robson (1993) indicates that mailed surveys are extremely efficient at providing information in a relatively brief time period at low cost to the researcher. For these reasons, the researcher chose a descriptive research methodology and designed a questionnaire survey instrument to assess the perceptions of selected sample in the headquarters of Telecommunication Companies in Jordan regarding to the role of leadership styles that influence employee engagement.
POPULATION OF THE STUDY:

The population of this study are all employees in the headquarters at telecommunication companies in Jordan (Zain, Umniah, and orange). Based on annual reports for companies, the number of employees respectively (980, 504, 570)

Table (3-1): The number of employees at telecommunication companies in Jordan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>Number of employees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Zain</td>
<td>980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Umniah</td>
<td>504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orange</td>
<td>570</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SAMPLE OF THE STUDY:

For this study, the researcher selected random sample, because random sample is the best single way to obtain a representative sample. No technique, not even random sampling, and guarantees a representative sample, but the probability is higher for this procedure than for any others. (Sekran&Bougie, 2010).

Based on previous studies like Garyouty and Khawaldeh (2014), and based on Sekran&Bougie (2010), the sample size consisted of (325) employee from the headquarters of three companies (Zain, Umnihai, and Orange), represented nearly (16%) of the population of the study, distributed as following: (155) Zain, (80) Umniah, and (90) orange.

The number of questionnaires were retrieved (290) out of the distributed questioners. The number of valid questioners, used in this study is (283) represented (87%) of total distributed questionnaires.

The following table shows the final number of valid questionnaires retrieved for analysis:

Table (3-2) Number of distributed and retrieved questionnaires

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>Number of employees</th>
<th>Distributed questionnaires</th>
<th>Retrieved questionnaires</th>
<th>Excluded questionnaires</th>
<th>Valid questionnaires</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Zain</td>
<td>980</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Umniah</td>
<td>504</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orange</td>
<td>570</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2054</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>283</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study sample consisted of (283) employees in the headquarters at telecommunication companies in Jordan (Zain, Umniah, and orange), Table (3-2) shows the distributionof the sampledependingonthepersonalvariables.

DATA COLLECTION METHODS:

Data collection is an important aspect of any type of research study. In correct data collection can lead to invalid results. One must process data into meaningful information in order to get information from data which had been gathered. There are a various methods to interpreting data. Data source which can be classified into two types, primary data which is the data observed or collected directly from first-hand experience, and secondary data which is the published data and the data collected on the past or other parties.
DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Authoritarian leadership

Table (4-3): Means and standard deviation for "Authoritarian leadership" items and total means of them (n=283)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard. Deviation</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Agreement Degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Employees need to be supervised closely</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Employees in the general population are lazy</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>As a rule, employees must be given rewards in order to motivate them to achieve organizational objectives</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Employees feel insecure about their work</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The leader is the chief judge of the achievements of the members of the group</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Effective leaders give orders then clarifying procedures</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Means</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td></td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4-3) shows that: The highest means reached (4.18) for strategy (1) "Employees need to be supervised closely" by high agreement degree, then for strategy (2) "Employees in the general population are lazy" by high agreement degree, then the lowest for strategy (6) "Effective leaders give orders then clarifying procedures", by Medium agreement degree (means3.20).

Democratic leadership

Table (4-4): Means and standard deviation for "Democratic leadership" items and total means of them (n=283)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard. Deviation</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Agreement Degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Employees want to be part of the decision-making process</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Providing guidance without pressure is the key to being a good leader</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Most workers want supportive communication from their leaders</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Leaders need to help subordinates accept responsibility for completing their work</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>It is the leader’s job to help subordinates find their “passion“</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>People are basically if given a task they will do a good job</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Means</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td></td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4-4) shows that: The highest means reached (4.14) for strategy (1) "Employees want to be part of the decision-making process" and strategy (2) "Providing guidance without pressure is the key to being a good leader" by High agreement degree, then for strategy (3) "Most workers want supportive communication from their leaders" by High agreement degree, then the lowest for strategy (5) "It is the leader’s job to help subordinates find their “passion”", by Medium agreement degree (means3.42).
Laissez-faire leadership

Table (4-5): Means and standard deviation for "laissez-faire leadership" items and total means of them (n=283)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard. Deviation</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Agreement Degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>In complex situations, leaders should let subordinates work problems out on their own</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Leadership requires staying out of the way of subordinates as they do their work</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>As a rule, leaders should allow subordinates to appraise their own work</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Leaders should give subordinates complete freedom to solve problems of their own</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>In most situations, workers prefer little input from their leader</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>In general, it is best to leave subordinates alone</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Means</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td></td>
<td>Weak</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4-5) shows that: The highest means reached (2.22) for strategy (5) "In most situations, workers prefer little input from their leader" by weak agreement degree, then for strategy (6) "In general, it is best to leave subordinates alone" by weak agreement degree, then the lowest for strategy (2) "Leadership requires staying out of the way of subordinates as they do their work", by weak agreement degree means (2.08).

Employee Engagement

Table (4-6): Means and standard deviation for "Employee Engagement" items and total means of them (n=283)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard. Deviation</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Agreement Degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I am enthusiastic about my job</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>My job inspire me</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I feel happy when I am working intensely</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I am proud of the work that I do</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I am immersed in my work</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I get carried away when I'm working</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Means</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td></td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4-6) shows that: The highest means reached (3.98) for strategy (3) "When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work" by High agreement degree, then for strategy (1) "I am enthusiastic about my job" by High agreement degree, then the lowest for strategy (6) "I am immersed in my work", by Medium agreement degree (means3.20).

Hypothesis testing

Pearson’s correlation analysis is performed to measure the degree of relationship between two variables. In this research, all of the variables are measured by Likert scale, Lind et.al, (2008), stated that any correlation coefficient ranged between -1.00 or +1.00 indicates a perfect correlation between the variables. Therefore, variables that are found with a person r value that is closer to -1.00 or +1.00 will be a perfectly related. Nevertheless, the significance of
The relationship between variables is also determined by the significance level with p-value, which is less than .05, an indication that most researchers used. In this research, Person correlation coefficient was used to test hypothesis. Person correlation coefficient indicates the direction, strength and significance of the relationship between variables that were measured at an interval or ratio level (Sekaran& Bougie, 2010). According to Hire .et.al (2007), the intensity of strengths between the variables can be categorized as shown in table (4-7).

Table (4-7): Intensity of Strength in Person correlation coefficient

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficient range</th>
<th>Strength</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>±0.91 to ±1.00</td>
<td>Very strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>±0.71 to ±0.90</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>±0.41 to ±0.70</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>±0.21 to ±0.40</td>
<td>Small but definite relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.00 to ±0.20</td>
<td>Slight, almost negligible</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


HYPOTHESIS TESTING 1

H1: There is a positive relationship between leadership styles and employee engagement.

To test this Hypothesis was Pearson Correlation Between leadership styles (authoritarian & democratic & laissez-faire) and employee engagement, Table (4-8) shows that:

Table (4-8): Pearson Correlation between leadership styles (authoritarian & democratic & laissez-faire) (n=283)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>leadership styles</th>
<th>employee engagement</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Authoritarian</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.30**</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.54**</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>laissez-faire</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.42**</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the result shown in Table (4-8), democratic leadership has r= (0.54) correlation with the employee engagement, thus there is a positive correlation between the two variables. This means that if a leader practice democratic leadership style, a positive affective engagement from the followers will be reached. Moreover the correlation coefficient r= (0.54) is categorized as the high relationship with the variables which is ranged from ± 0.71 to ± 0.90. Also as shown in table (4-8), the p-value of democratic is 0.00 which is less than the alpha value (α≤0.05). Therefore, H1 is accepted and there is a significant positive relation between democratic leadership style and employee engagement.

From the result shown in Table (4-8), autocratic leadership has r= (-0.30) correlation with the employee engagement, thus there is a negative correlation between the two variables. This means that if a leader practice autocratic leadership style, a negative affective engagement from the followers will be reached. Moreover the correlation coefficient r= (-0.30) is categorized as the small but definite relationship with the variables which is ranged from ± 0.21 to ± 0.40. Also as shown in table (4-8), the p-value of autocratic is 0.00 which is less than the alpha value (α≤0.05). Therefore, H1 is accepted and there is a significant negative relation between autocratic leadership style and employee engagement.

From the result shown in Table (4-8), laissez-faire leadership has r= (0.42) correlation with the employee engagement, thus there is a positive correlation between the two variables. This means that if a leader practice laissez-faire leadership style, a positive affective engagement from the followers will be reached. Moreover the correlation coefficient r= (0.42) is categorized as the moderate relationship with the variables which is ranged from ± 0.41 to ± 0.70. Also as shown in table (4-8), the p-value of laissez-faire is 0.00 which is less than the alpha value (α≤0.05).
Therefore, H1 is accepted and there is a significant positive relation between laissez-faire leadership style and employee engagement.

**HYPOTHESIS 2**

**H2:** There is relationship between autocratic leadership style and employee engagement among employees in telecommunication companies in Jordan.

To test this hypothesis, and to detect the relationship between autocratic leadership style and employee engagement, the (linear Regression) analysis was used; table (4-9) shows that.

**Table (4-9): result of the (Linear Regressions) analysis of the relationship between autocratic leadership style and employee engagement items (n= 283)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>&quot;t&quot; value</th>
<th>&quot;t&quot; sig</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>&quot;f&quot; value</th>
<th>&quot;f&quot; sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>autocratic leadership</td>
<td>5.449</td>
<td>0.040</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>29.68</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Dependent variable: employee engagement

Table (4-9) shows that:

There are a statistically a significant relationship between autocratic leadership styles and employee engagement role at significant level (α≤0.05), where "t" value reached (29.68) by statistically significant (0.000) (R) Value reached (0.30), (R2) value reached (0.09) and Beta value reached -0.30.

The researcher (linear Regression) analysis between autocratic leadership style and employee engagement, after the analysis, the researcher found that the least contributor variation of the dependent variable is autocratic leadership style in which standardized Beta value is -0.30, which indicates when the leader performs autocratic leadership style, there will be an adverse impact toward employee engagement.

Autocratic leaders tend to provide direction, tactfully, without open any opportunity to their followers to give their opinions or to let them participating in decision making. This type of leadership style according to McNamara (2003) leads to passive resistance from team-members and may require a continuous direction from the leader. The main goal of this style is task completion and employee compliance and relies on organizational rewards and punishments to influence employee performance. Employee engagement is built when the employees have the willingness to help the leaders archive the goals, but not through authority. Therefore there is negative influence on employee engagement.

**HYPOTHESIS 3**

**H3:** There is relationship between democratic leadership style and employee engagement among employees in telecommunication companies in Jordan.

To test this hypothesis, and to detect the relationship between democratic leadership and employee engagement, the (linear Regression) analysis was used; tables (4-10) shows that.
Table (4-10): result of the (Linear Regressions) analysis of the relationship between democratic leadership and employee engagement items (n= 283)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>&quot;t&quot; value</th>
<th>&quot;t&quot; sig</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>&quot;f&quot; value</th>
<th>&quot;f&quot; sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>democratic leadership</td>
<td>22.71</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>55.946</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Dependent variable: employee engagement

Table (4-10) shows that:

There are a statistically a significant relationship between democratic leadership and employee engagement role at significant level (α≤0.05), where "f" value reached (55.946) by statistically significant (0.000). (R) Value reached (0.54), (R2) value reached (0.29).

The researcher applied (linear Regression) analysis between democratic leadership and employee engagement, after the analysis the results found that is democratic leadership style reached the highest variation influence on employee engagement with value of Beta equal of (0.54). Since democratic leadership style has a positive value of Beta, it indicates that democratic leadership is a crucial factor of enhancing the employee engagement. Moreover it can support the suggestion of leader with democratic style will positively related to employee’s engagement through building trust and empathizing on development’s with employees (Garg & Ramjee, 2013). Also it may show a greater commitment and loyalty to the work organizations (Scholl, 1981)

HYPOTHESIS 4

H4: There is relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and employee engagement among employees in telecommunication companies in Jordan.

To test this hypothesis, and to detect the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and employee engagement, the (linear Regression) analysis was used; tables (4-11) shows that.

Table (4-11): result of the (Linear Regressions) analysis of the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and employee engagement items (n= 283)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>&quot;t&quot; value</th>
<th>&quot;t&quot; sig</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>&quot;f&quot; value</th>
<th>&quot;f&quot; sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>laissez-faire leadership</td>
<td>22.33</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>98.79</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Dependent variable: employee engagement

Table (4-11) shows that:

There are a statistically a significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership styles and employee engagement role at significant level (α≤0.05), where "f" value reached (98.79) by statistically significant (0.000) (R) Value reached (0.80), (R2) value reached (0.64), and Beta value reached (0.42).

The researcher was applied (linear Regression) analysis between laissez-faire leadership style and employee engagement, after the analysis the researcher found that there is a statistically a significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership styles and employee engagement role at significant level. Some of the past researches support this study findings about laissez-faire relationship with employee engagement. However the employees under laissez-faire leadership style were less well organized, less satisfaction, less efficient, to members that under democratic leadership style (Frischer, 2006). Meyer and Allen (1997) argue that if an employee perceived that the organization is not able to provide him a competent environment, he may leave the job.
CONCLUSION

This study aimed to identify the role of leadership styles that influence the employee engagement within telecommunication companies in Jordan. To achieve the objective of the study, the researcher following the descriptive analytical method, The study concluded the existence of high degree of the role of leadership styles that influence the employee engagement. The results show that high degree of (democratic, laissez-faire), The results show that lowest degree of autocratic leadership. Also, the results show that high degree of Employee Engagement.

For democratic leadership style, it will affect the most towards employee engagement. For autocratic leadership style, it influence negatively toward the employee engagement. For laissez-faire leadership style, it influences employee engagement positively. Using this research results mangers can determine which the leadership style should be applied in order to get the certain commitment that they desired to have from their employees.

Despite that researcher achieved the objective of the research, there were a few limitations that brought challenges throughout the study, which require further improvement in future researches. However, the findings of this research can be useful for the future research especially the researches that will discuss the influence of leadership styles.

STUDY LIMITATIONS:

Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010) state that is important for academic studies to define the limitation of the study. Therefore, it is important to spell here the limitations that faced the researcher while working on this study:

Firstly, the limitation of this research is that in this research focused only on three styles of leadership styles. Moreover in this research the researcher only focused on telecommunication companies, while leadership styles can influence on other sector such as hotel industry, manufacturing industry, and educational sector. Also, Study conducted within the Jordan country, and that could lead to the issue of generalizability. Further, the leadership behaviors that were a part of this questionnaire may have not been that important factors in determining employee’s level of engagement. Instead, environmental factors may have been more important for these employees.

The approach were used in this study is quite costly and requires time to reach to bigger size of respondents over the country. Beside, telecommunication companies require various level of approval before the questionnaire is passed to the employees to be filled for survey. Some employee are only allowed to fill up the questionnaire in the lunch’s time. This process takes a long time more than what the researcher expected to be completed.

In addition it was a lack of Arab studies about leadership styles, and employee engagement.

Reliance only on the questionnaire as a tool for measurement, due to lack of sufficient time to use more than one instrument, and lack of cooperation of the surveyed companies, to obtain more accurate outcomes.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Some recommendations are provided to solve the limitations encountered on this research, and to improve related research studies conducted by other researchers in the future. In this research, the researcher recommended for future researches not only focus on the private service sector, but also to concentrate on the public service sector in Jordan. Moreover, future researches can be done by focus on other factors. In this research, the main factor that effects the employee engagement in telecommunication companies in Jordan is leadership styles which include democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire leadership style. Thus, there is limitation in this research study because the other factors that might also influence the employee engagement in telecommunication companies in Jordan, such as environmental factors, and competition were not covered by this research. Also, in order to reduce the bias of result and improve the reliability and accuracy of data, the researcher recommended to reach a larger sample size by distributing more questionnaire and apply qualitative method interviewing the high level of management in telecommunication companies in Jordan.

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