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College Affordability and U.S. News & World Report Rankings: Analyzing National and Regional Differences

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ABSTRACT

In an era of billions of dollars in outstanding student loan debt, researchers have posited that the U.S. News & World Report rankings continue to be an influential source of information for prospective students, yet these rankings do not include college affordability metrics in their ranking algorithm. As a result, this study performed a series of college affordability experiments by integrating affordability metrics into the U.S. News ranking algorithm to explore whether any affordability metric predicts overall ranking. Results suggest better ranked institutions enrolled lower percentages of Pell grant receiving students ($p < 0.00$), while the percentage of undergraduates receiving state aid predicted better rankings only at Regional Midwest and Regional West Universities ($p < 0.05$). These results suggest many college affordability metrics are not predictive of ranking among the best-ranked, elite institutions. Implications for theory, practice, and college student choice are addressed.

Keywords: college affordability, college rankings, higher education, student debt, universities, U.S. News & World Report rankings

INTRODUCTION

In early 2019, reports from the United States (U.S.) Department of Education and the Institute for College Success indicated that over 44 million U.S. borrowers collectively owed over $1.5 trillion dollars in outstanding student loan debt, with more than 11% of borrowers in delinquency or default, unable to make timely payments (Friedman, 2019). The U.S. Department of Education (2018) estimated that tuition at public universities has doubled over the past three decades after controlling for inflation, and combined with outstanding student debt, these economic challenges have catalyzed researchers and policymakers to explore methods of making college more affordable and accessible (Patel, 2019).

However, for decades, prospective college students have considered U.S. News & World Report (USN) an authoritative source of information to influence where these students apply, attend, and earn their degrees (Altbach, 2012; Bowman & Bastedo, 2009; Griffith & Rask, 2007; Meredith, 2004; Monks & Ehrenberg, 1999; Morse, 2008; Owings-Edwards, 2005; Sauder & Lancaster, 2006; Taylor, Childs, Bicak, & Alsmadi, 2019). Paradoxically, the USN rankings have been criticized for failing to capture a wide variety of important institutional characteristics (Alsmadi & Taylor, 2018), ignoring inflated variance factors and multicollinearity (Bougnol & Dulá, 2015; Webster, 2001), capturing data in ways that make upward mobility impossible (Gnolek, Falciano, & Kuncl, 2008), and failing to verify self-reported data from highly-ranked institutions (Jaschik, 2018, 2019). As a result, prospective students may be choosing colleges and universities based on a ranking system that does not address college affordability, possibly obscuring student choice, restricting college access, and contributing to the student debt crisis.

However, the USN rankings has claimed to have addressed college affordability in their rankings, explaining that their ranking algorithm for national universities, liberal arts colleges, and regional universities (in north, south, midwest, and west regions) has included percentage of Pell grant graduation rates. Morse, Brooks, and Mason (2018) asserted that Pell grant graduation rates and Pell grant graduation rates against all graduates both contribute 2.5% to an institution's overall ranking algorithm. As a result, college affordability—measured by the percentage of students graduating with Pell Grants—has only contributed to 5% of the overall USN ranking algorithm. Yet, college affordability metrics for nearly all ranked USN colleges and universities, totaling over 900 institutions—has been available at the National Center for Education

Statistics (NCES) for years. These college affordability metrics include in-state tuition rates, out-of-state tuition rates, percentages of students receiving federal, state, and institutional grant aid, and total price of attendance. The USN rankings have been found to be the most influential and popular among many groups of educational stakeholders (Altbach, 2012; Bowman & Bastedo, 2009; Griffith & Rask, 2007; Morse, 2008). Yet, USN has not addressed why their college rankings does not incorporate more student-level affordability metrics, such as institutional aid per student, debt upon graduation, and entry-level career earnings to provide students with a better understanding of their chosen college's affordability.

As a result, this study captured all 2018 USN metrics for national universities and regional universities (N=920) and integrated NCES college affordability metrics into the USN rankings in an effort to explore whether college affordability—in any way—predicts USN ranking. As a result, this study answers two research questions pertinent to college affordability and the U.S News & World Report rankings (national universities) and sub-rankings (regional universities): 1.) Does USN ranking correlate with college affordability metrics? 2.) Controlling for all USN ranking metrics and removing multicollinearity (Bougnol & Dulá, 2015; Webster, 2001), how do college affordability metrics predict USN ranking across both national and regional rankings?

LITERATURE REVIEW

A large and longitudinal body of research has examined why students choose colleges and universities (Chapman, 1981; Hazelkorn, 2007; Monks & Ehrenberg, 1999; Morse, 2008; Paulsen, 1990). Early work in the field defined student choice as a result of student resources, student academic achievement, and institutional-level characteristics, such as the competitiveness of the school and its available resources (Chapman, 1981). Later reports indicated that student choice may be owed to a student's academic fit within an institution, particularly a student's major of study and how that major prepared the student for the job market (Paulsen, 1990). McDonough's (1997) research specifically addressed prospective students' socioeconomic status as a large factor in college choice, as McDonough (1997) argued that students from low socioeconomic high schools and living in low-income households were less likely to choose competitive, elite postsecondary institutions than their more affluent peers. However, no studies have examined how

influential ranking systems, such as U.S. News & World Report, captures college affordability data, or how students perceive these rankings as informing how they view a college's affordability.

Given the increased focus on college affordability and the student debt crisis, many new college and university ranking systems have emerged in recent years, many of which emphasize the costs of postsecondary education. These ranking systems include Niche's (2019) Best Value Colleges in America, the College Consensus (2019) list of the 100 Most Affordable Colleges and Universities, and Best Value Schools' (2019) 25 Most Affordable Universities in America. However, many of these ranking systems do not take into account educational quality metrics and only evaluate specific institution types. For instance, Best Value Schools (2019) limited their university ranking system to "schools with an undergraduate enrollment greater than 4,000 students" (para. 2), while only taking net price (total cost of attendance minus the average amount of federal, state, and institutional aid) into account when calculating rank.

To inform the literature on student choice and institutional rankings, it is important to analyze ranking systems that have considerable influence on student choice and institutional administration (e.g., U.S. News & World Report), while also evaluating ranking systems that take into account educational quality, institutional resources, and other validated and reliable predictors of student support (e.g., retention rates, six-year graduation rates). As a result, this study and literature review focuses on the U.S. News & World Report National Universities and Regional Universities rankings, as these rankings have been found to be both influential and robust in their usage of student-, faculty-, and institutional-level data.

How the U.S. News & World Report Rankings Influences Stakeholders

U.S. News & World Report published their first college and university rankings in 1983. The rankings capture many measures of institutional quality, such as year-to-year graduation performance (7.5% of the ranking) and graduation and retention rates (22.5%), academic reputation held by postsecondary administrators (22.5%), faculty resources and earned grant dollars (20%), per-student spending (10%), alumni giving (5%), and student selectivity indicators, such as incoming undergraduate grade-point average and test scores (12.5%) (Morse, 2008). Since the 1980s, educational researchers have explored how these ranking systems influence student choice, institutional leadership, and how

institutions—in the United States and across the world—compete to improve their ranking (Morse, 2008).

In an early exploration of the USN rankings, Monks and Ehrenberg (1999) asserted that many elite institutions, such as Stanford University, have had the USN rankings audited for credibility and reliability, speaking to historically skeptical views of the ranking system. Yet, despite their skepticism, institutional leaders have promoted their USN ranking as a selling point in admissions materials, indicating that institutional leaders view the USN rankings as influential in student choice (Monks & Ehrenberg, 1999). In the decades since the publishing of the USN rankings, a wealth of research has posited that the USN rankings have a considerable impact on how students choose institutions, how institutional leaders make decisions, and how institutions position themselves in an increasingly competitive higher education marketplace (Altbach, 2012). Concerning student choice, Meredith (2004) investigated the role of USN ranking on admissions outcomes and pricing decisions, finding that USN ranking has been predictive of admissions outcomes, such as admission rate and yield, but changes in the rankings were more significant in different geographic regions and public or private institutional settings. Also related to student choice and admissions outcomes, Bowman and Bastedo (2009) discovered that between Fall 1998 to Fall 2005, national universities (e.g., The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Vanderbilt University) who moved onto the front page of the USN rankings experienced a considerable increase in admissions metrics, such as applications, acceptance rate, and admissions yield. Inversely, however, Bowman and Bastedo (2009) also found that the same was not true for liberal arts colleges (e.g., Vassar College, Reed College), as admissions metrics were more strongly influenced by the total price of attendance. These findings indicated that better ranked institutions often charge higher tuition rates and may be less affordable for students and their families (Bowman & Bastedo, 2009) possibly producing a stratifying effect. However, this study did not explore how USN rankings correlated with other college affordability metrics, such as institutional grant aid or average student loan debt upon graduation.

Regarding institutional leadership, Ehrenberg (2002) reasoned that elite institutions often change their behavior in an attempt to artificially improve their USN ranking, ignoring possibilities of collaborating in ways that would benefit students both educationally and financially. Some of Ehrenberg's (2002) concerns were recently validated, as Jaschik (2018, 2019) reported that many elite institutions have submitted false or incorrect ranking data, leading to a higher ranking than

would be justified using correct data. Similarly, Altbach (2012) and Hazelkorn (2007, 2009) have long studied how USN rankings have contributed to global academic competition between institutions, including how elite institutions have sustained their ranking through an investment in research and knowledge production.

Griffith and Rask (2007) specifically evaluated the role of USN rankings on the decision making of high-ability students, learning that changes in ranking affects where students apply, especially among the best-ranked, elite institutions: These changes in ranking were independent of other changes in educational quality, indicating that the overall USN rank may be more influential in student choice than any student outcome metric, such as retention rate or six-year graduation rate. Moreover, Griffith and Rask (2007) asserted that USN ranking and change in ranking was predictive of admissions yield, meaning that USN ranking was not only influential in informing where high-ability students applied, but also where they ultimately decided to attend. Yet, this study did not investigate low-ability student or define how low-ability students may be differentiated from high-ability students. The same phenomenon was found to be true among law schools in the USN rankings, as Sauder and Lancaster (2006) discovered that not only did USN ranking affect student choice on where to apply, but institutional admissions decisions also changed with ranking.

Grewal, Dearden, and Glilien (2008) explained that as USN rankings gained in popularity among students and administrators, institutions often remain stuck in the rankings given the abundance of financial resources at some institutions compared to others, such as Harvard University's multi-billion dollar endowment, which has been used to lower the student-faculty ratio and expand the institution's research impact. Gnolek, Falciano, and Kuncl (2014) also hinted at the stratification and competition to improve in the USN rankings, as their results indicated that an institution ranked in the 30s would require significant financial resources to enter the top 20, rendering it improbable or impossible for many institutions to improve their ranking, even with modest increases in financial resources. Bastedo and Bowman (2010) learned that as USN rankings change, institutional leaders often adjust their perception and peer assessment of other USN-ranked institutions, independent of whether the institution actually improves educational quality or performance, echoing earlier findings of rankings stratification (Sauder & Espeland, 2009; Volkwein & Sweitzer, 2006). Here, the authors asserted that many institutional leaders may consider USN ranking itself as a measure of institutional quality without considering how the ranking

was actually calculated, leading to a stratified set of rankings where elite institutions can assess each other favorably in perpetuity (Bastedo & Bowman, 2010). Moreover, as the USN rankings did not explicitly measure college affordability, these studies were not able to analyze how increases in per-student spending on teaching and faculty support may influence a college's affordability or a student's perception of a college's affordability.

Why the U.S. News & World Report Rankings are Problematic

For as influential as the USN rankings have been for decades, researchers and policymakers have criticized the USN rankings for its ranking algorithm and failure to integrate other meaningful metrics into that algorithm.

To investigate which ranking metrics most contributed to overall USN ranking, Webster (2001) performed a principal component analysis of all 11 ranking metrics used by USN to calculate their national universities rankings. Webster (2001) found that academic reputation most contributed to ranking, prefacing future studies regarding the role of institutional assessments of other institutions producing a stratified ranking hierarchy (Bastedo & Bowman, 2010; Sauder & Espeland, 2009; Volkwein & Sweitzer, 2006). This finding led Webster (2001) to criticize the rankings for placing such a heavy emphasis on subjective measurements (e.g., peer administrator rankings) instead of objectively measurable institutional metrics, such as a college's cost of attendance or its tuition rate stability over time.

However, Webster (2001) also discovered "severe and pervasive multicollinearity among the ranking criteria" (p. 235), with average SAT score of enrolled students being the most significant ranking criterion, even though some institutions have not required the SAT, nor has any major, national-level study found SAT score predictive of institutional quality, graduation rates, retention rates, or other student- and institutional-level outcomes. As a result, Webster (2001) argued that students and other stakeholders may be making decisions based on a ranking system that primarily relies on a single test score and ignores institutional support of students and an institution's affordability. Similarly, Bougnol and Dulá (2015) expanded upon Webster's (2001) study, arguing that USN rankings may take into account average SAT scores of enrolled students, but within the USN ranking algorithm, there has been no differentiating metric among institutions with similar student

outcome metrics but different student enrollment or quality metrics. Bougnol and Dulá (2015) explained:

> If we compare two imaginary universities in a ranking using the USNWR model with identical values for all attributes except "SAT/ACT Score" we may conclude that the one with the lower of these two values is more efficient; it produces the same outcomes with the same inputs but proportionately fewer top-testing students. (p. 861)

Here, Bougnol and Dulá (2015) argued that the USN algorithm has not allowed for differentiation between institutions who recruit and retain less-academically advanced students or institutions who produce similar student outcome metrics (e.g., retention rates) with considerably fewer financial resources. This criticism from Bougnol and Dulá (2015) was elaborated upon in their discussion of Webster's (2001) discovery of multicollinearity inherent in the USN ranking algorithm. Bougnol and Dulá (2015) argued that not only do many USN metrics produce substantial variance inflation factors within regression models predicting ranking, but many institutions could receive the same scores in multiple categories, leading to a lack of differentiation between institutions. This lack of differentiation, for Bougnol and Dulá (2015), may be confusing prospective students exploring postsecondary institutions. These flaws in the USN ranking algorithm led Bougnol and Dulá (2015) to assert that prospective students may use USN rankings to make decisions based using problematic metrics that do not capture how colleges and universities support students from diverse educational or financial backgrounds.

Also related to educational and financial outcomes, Owings-Edwards (2005) reasoned that one of the primary purposes of pursuing higher education is to gain employment after graduation, suggestion echoed by prior research (Chapman, 1981; Paulsen, 1990). Major national surveys have indicated that prospective students often choose colleges based on the perceived earning potential of a degree from a certain institution (Owings-Edwards, 2005). However, Owings-Edwards (2005) found that no statistically significant relationship existed between USN ranking and wage earned after graduation, bringing into question how USN may not be addressing post-graduation outcomes which have been critically important for students and their ability to pay back their student loans. Owings-Edwards (2005) also argued that USN ought to update or alter their ranking algorithm to reflect student behaviors and labor market realities, thus providing students with a better sense of a college's affordability and how that college may prepare students for their careers.

Finally, given the rise of internet technologies in the student choice process, both Alsmadi and Taylor (2018) and Taylor et al. (2019)

argued that the USN ranking algorithm—for both undergraduate and graduate institutions—do not control for web presence or scholarly research output, leading to an entire digital landscape falling outside of the scope of the rankings. Alsmadi and Taylor (2018) learned that highly-ranked USN institutions often publish larger and more popular websites than lower-ranked peers, while Taylor et al. (2019) reasoned that higher-ranked graduate education programs published smaller but more popular websites than lower-ranked peers. Here, educational research has posited that the Internet has been a critical source of student information for decades (Alsmadi & Taylor, 2018; Morse, 2008; Taylor et al., 2019), yet the USN ranking algorithm has not captured any web-related data, much less data related to college affordability amidst the student debt crisis (Patel, 2019).

As a result, this study fills a considerable gap in the literature related to both U.S. News & World Report rankings and college affordability by answering the following two questions:1.) Does USN ranking correlate with college affordability metrics? 2.) Controlling for all USN ranking metrics and removing multicollinearity (Bougnol & Dulá, 2015; Webster, 2001), how do college affordability metrics predict USN ranking across both national and regional rankings?

RESEARCH METHOD

The following sections detail how the research team established population and sample, collected data, analyzed data, and addressed limitations. This study employs multiple regression to answer the research questions and evaluate how USN measures national and regional universities. In addition, this study makes use of data from multiple sources to make a unique contribution to the literature and provide ample evidence for further exploration into the relationship between institutional rankings and college affordability.

Population and Sample

For the 2018 USN rankings, a total of 920 institutions reported complete statistics to USN. All 920 of these institutions are included in the regression analyses, and these institutions were sorted by overall ranking across the five major university ranking categories from USN: national universities (n=301), regional north universities (n=187), regional south universities (n=141), regional midwest universities (n=164), and regional west universities (n=127). All grant, aid, and price related data were

extracted from IPEDS and is not captured by USN rankings. A description of the institutions in this study can be found in Table 1.

Table 1

Descriptive statistics of overall population and by U.S. News & World Report ranking group

Characteristics	All ranked institutions	*U.S. News & World Report* ranking group				
		National Universities	Regional North	Regional South	Regional Midwest	Regional West
% private	52.3%	37.3%	65.2%	51.8%	66.5%	51.2%
% public	47.7%	62.7%	34.8%	48.2%	33.5%	48.8%
Average *USN* rank	95.9	141.1	87.2	65.9	77.3	59.5
Min. *USN* rank	1	1	1	1	1	1
Max. *USN* rank	230	230	142	107	128	96
IPEDS: Percentage of students:						
Receiving federal grant	38.1%	30.4%	40.6%	46.2%	39.6%	41.5%
Receiving Pell Grant	37.5%	30.0%	40.2%	45.3%	38.7%	40.6%
Receiving other federal aid	13.2%	9.7%	15.7%	13.3%	17.2%	12.1%
Receiving local/state aid	35.6%	29.8%	36.5%	49.5%	33.0%	35.9%
Receiving institutional aid	72.3%	64.3%	77.5%	68.9%	81.9%	75.3%
IPEDS: Average total price						
In-district, on-campus	$36,507	$37,142	$40,850	$31,876	$35,637	$34,891
In-state, on-campus	$36,507	$37,142	$40,850	$31,876	$35,637	$34,891
Out-of-state, on-campus	$42,137	$46,651	$44,106	$36,875	$37,874	$39,883
N	920	301	187	141	164	127

Data Collection

All data for this study was gathered from two sources: the 2018 U.S. News & World Report rankings and 2016-2017 institutional data from the Integrated Postsecondary Educational Data System ([IPEDS]; National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2019). All institutions of higher education report institutional data to NCES and IPEDS so researchers and policymakers can understand enrollment trends, institutional change, and effects of local, state, and national level policies. For the 2018 USN rankings, institutions reported data to USN one year prior (2017), and a result, 2016-2017 IPEDS data was relevant to 2018 USN rankings.

USN produces rankings of national universities, regional universities, and liberal arts colleges. As liberal arts colleges are traditionally private and have much higher tuition rates than national and regional universities (Bowman & Bastedo, 2009; Morse, 2008), this study focuses on national and regional universities. National universities are generally comprehensive, four-year institutions with some level of Carnegie research classification designation, while regional universities are generally smaller in enrollment and primarily focus on undergraduate education and teaching (Morse, 2008). Of USN variables, the research team gathered 18 metrics used to calculate overall ranking for both

national universities and all regional universities: retention rank, six-year graduation rate, Pell grant graduation rate, retention rate, predicted graduation rate, reputation score, faculty resources rank, percentage of full-time faculty, percentage of faculty with terminal degrees, percentage of classes with ten or fewer students, percentage of classes with fifty or more students, student-to-faculty ratio, selectivity rank, percentage of students in the top 10% of their high school class, percentage of students in the top 25% of their high school class, educational expenses, alumni giving rank, and alumni giving rate. These variables are included in every regression analysis in Tables 3 and 4.

Of IPEDS variables related to college affordability, the research team built upon the Best Values Schools' (2019) calculation of college affordability by gathering both aid metrics and institutional price metrics. From IPEDS, the research team gathered percentage of students receiving federal grants, percentage of students receiving Pell Grants, percentage of students receiving other federal aid, percentage of students receiving state aid, percentage of students receiving institutional aid, total price for students from in-district living on-campus, total price for students from in-state living on-campus, and total price for students from out-of-state living on-campus.

Finally, the research team used IPEDS to gather institutional metrics related to sector (public or private) and institutional endowment, as prior studies have indicated that USN ranking has produced different effects across institutions from various sectors (Meredith, 2004) and with access to different levels of financial resources (Gnolek et al., 2014; Monks & Ehrenberg, 1999).

Data Analysis

To answer this study's first question, the research team performed a simple correlation analysis using Pearson's correlation between institutional ranking and all college affordability metrics (Table 2). To answer this study's second research question, the research team used Python and its numpy and statsmodels packages to perform a series of experimental OLS regressions to predict USN ranking as an outcome variable using both USN ranking metrics and IPEDS college affordability metrics. The first series of OLS models intentionally included multicollinear USN ranking variables, as explained by Webster (2001) to demonstrate how these variables were both collinear with each other and possibly collinear with other IPEDS college affordability metrics (Table 3). Moreover, both USN and IPEDS variables were not transformed

(logged) to the logarithmic scale to explore the multicollinearity eluded to by prior studies (Bougnol & Dulá, 2015; Webster, 2001).

For the second series of OLS models, the research team imputed logged variables of large scales (e.g., institutional endowments, total prices) and performed variance inflation factor (VIF) analyses to remove multicollinearity of both USN and IPEDS variables from the model, as encouraged by prior research (Bougnol & Dulá, 2015; Webster, 2001). These regression models predicted USN ranking as our outcome variable. VIF analyses required the research team to continuously run OLS regressions with all variables, including logged variables, and removing variables with VIF over 10, as VIFs over 10 likely indicate multicollinearity in a regression model. Each variable with a VIF over 10 was removed in the order of VIF, with the variables with the largest VIFs removed in order until the OLS model only included variables with VIFs under 10. The refined OLS models without multicollinear variables can be found in Table 4 across the entire population (N=920) and each USN ranking category.

RESULTS

A Pearson's correlation analysis between USN ranking and college affordability metrics can be found in Table 2.

Table 2

Pearson's correlations between U.S News & World Report rankings, by all ranked institutions and ranking group (national or regional)

Affordability variable	U.S. News & World Report ranking group					
	All ranked institutions (N=920)	National Universities (n=301)	Regional North (n=187)	Regional South (n=141)	Regional Midwest (n=164)	Regional West (n=127)
Institutional endowment	-0.016	-0.073	0.085	0.071	-0.033	-0.084
% receiving federal grant	0.303	0.716	0.608	0.648	0.455	0.506
% receiving Pell Grant	0.312	0.717	0.610	0.656	0.474	0.500
% receiving other federal aid	-0.007	0.137	0.247	0.121	0.047	-0.138
% receiving state aid	0.143	0.466	0.220	0.138	0.077	0.156
% receiving institutional aid	-0.190	0.064	-0.162	-0.288	-0.364	-0.398
Total price, in-district on-campus	-0.409	-0.597	-0.376	-0.415	-0.490	-0.699
Total price, in-state, on-campus	-0.409	-0.597	-0.376	-0.415	-0.490	-0.699
Total price, out-of-state, on-campus	-0.371	-0.792	-0.457	-0.536	-0.527	-0.753

Across many college affordability metrics, correlations between affordability and USN ranking were weak, with many correlations falling between -0.409 and 0.409 among all ranked institutions. However, the percentage of students receiving federal grants (0.716) and Pell Grants (0.717) was correlated with ranking among national universities,

indicating that better-ranked national universities were associated with lower percentages of students receiving federal and Pell Grants. High, inverse correlations between national university ranking and out-of-state, on-campus total price (-0.792) also indicated that better-ranked institutions were associated with higher total prices. This high, inverse correlation between ranking and total price was apparent among regional west universities (-0.753), also indicating that better-ranked regional west universities were associated with higher total prices.

Correlations across all ranking groups also suggest ranking may be unrelated to percentage of students receiving other federal aid, state aid, or institutional aid, indicating that USN ranking may not be correlated with many traditional college affordability metrics. The USN ranking does include an institution's financial resources and its per-student spending, yet this inclusion may be confusing to students, as students may assume highly-ranked institutions with high financial resource scores may be more affordable. These findings could inform a student's college choice, primarily asserting that USN rankings may not be related to college affordability. Regression analyses predicting USN ranking without removing multicollinear variables can be found in Table 3.

Evidenced by prior research (Bougnol & Dulá, 2015; Webster, 2001) and the data in Table 3, results suggest multicollinearity may exist within the USN ranking criteria when integrated with college affordability metrics. These experimental results suggest reputation score is highly predictive of ranking even when controlling for college affordability metrics, a finding hinted at by prior research (Bastedo & Bowman, 2010). Moreover, educational expenses and selectivity rank were also highly predictive of ranking, along with other traditional measures of institutional quality such as retention rank, and faculty resources rank. Of college affordability metrics, only the percentage of students receiving institutional aid was highly predictive of ranking among the entire population and national universities, yet institutional endowment was not. Future research should investigate this finding, as educational researchers may assume that wealthy institutions with large endowments may be best suited to provide higher levels of institutional aid. Regression analyses predicting USN ranking after performing VIF and removing multicollinear variables can be found in Table 4.

Table 3

Regression analyses predicting U.S News & World Report rankings, by all ranked institutions and ranking group (national or regional), without removing multicollinearity

	U.S. News & World Report ranking group					
Variables	All ranked institutions (N=920)	National Universities (n=301)	Regional North (n=187)	Regional South (n=141)	Regional Midwest (n=164)	Regional West (n=127)
Sector (control=private)	***8.357 (2.269)	**14.683 (4.893)	*14.107 (6.724)	5.846 (3.717)	-5.268 (5.326)	*12.449 (4.802)
USN ranking metrics						
Retention rank	***0.430 (0.017)	***0.407 (0.054)	***0.638 (0.074)	***0.539 (0.073)	***0.565 (0.066)	***0.665 (0.105)
Six-year graduation rate	-0.077 (0.088)	-0.321 (0.252)	**0.971 (0.334)	0.132 (0.222)	0.193 (0.208)	**0.700 (0.212)
Pell Grant graduation rate	*-0.126 (0.058)	0.080 (0.142)	0.271 (0.164)	-0.157 (0.110)	-0.144 (0.142)	**-0.285 (0.095)
Retention rate	*0.199 (0.028)	0.396 (0.235)	0.247 (0.265)	**0.512 (0.190)	*0.482 (0.244)	0.134 (0.157)
Predicted graduation rate	**0.210 (0.090)	***0.913 (0.201)	0.132 (0.240)	0.310 (0.189)	0.098 (0.197)	0.247 (0.134)
Reputation score	***-25.749 (1.542)	***-22.901 (2.897)	***-50.207 (4.698)	***-17.855 (3.147)	***-27.876 (3.840)	***-20.631 (2.938)
Faculty resources rank	***0.083 (0.011)	***0.102 (0.021)	**0.105 (0.032)	***0.102 (0.027)	***0.115 (0.030)	***0.108 (0.025)
% full-time faculty	0.027 (0.038)	-0.022 (0.086)	0.001 (0.105)	-0.164 (0.085)	0.017 (0.096)	-0.086 (0.065)
% faculty with terminal degree	-0.059 (0.045)	-0.074 (0.139)	0.051 (0.128)	-0.103 (0.075)	-0.015 (0.100)	-0.090 (0.066)
% classes with <10 students	0.042 (0.035)	0.097 (0.089)	-0.049 (0.102)	-0.030 (0.056)	-0.092 (0.091)	-0.037 (0.059)
% classes with >50 students	***0.338 (0.109)	0.124 (0.188)	0.061 (0.523)	0.240 (0.183)	0.153 (0.425)	0.110 (0.218)
Student-to-faculty ratio	-0.273 (0.163)	-0.276 (0.164)	0.017 (0.045)	0.057 (0.157)	-0.053 (0.182)	-0.090 (0.150)
Selectivity rank	***0.143 (0.027)	***0.141 (0.027)	***0.187 (0.045)	***0.237 (0.043)	**0.116 (0.039)	***0.207 (0.038)
% students in top 10% of HS	0.085 (0.109)	0.091 (0.111)	*-0.640 (0.316)	-0.015 (0.238)	0.508 (0.264)	-0.095 (0.191)

% students in top 25% of HS	*-0.201 (0.101)	*-0.206 (0.103)	0.395 (0.213)	0.037 (0.143)	-0.299 (0.189)	0.136 (0.115)
Educational expenses	***0.112 (0.016)	***0.111 (0.017)	***0.115 (0.026)	***0.136 (0.027)	***0.145 (0.028)	***0.145 (0.033)
Alumni giving rank	***0.077 (0.023)	**0.077 (0.023)	0.120 (0.067)	0.033 (0.047)	0.092 (0.059)	*0.112 (0.045)
Alumni giving rate	0.155 (0.217)	0.159 (0.218)	0.267 (0.745)	-0.084 (0.350)	0.059 (0.581)	0.450 (0.362)
Institutional endowment	-1.901e-06 (3.78e-06)	-1.916e-06 (3.79e-06)	1.084e-05 (1.75e-05)	-1.418e-05 (8.93e-06)	-5.538e-06 (5.73e-06)	1.273e-06 (2.47e-06)
% receiving federal grant	-0.927 (0.719)	-0.941 (0.723)	-0.182 (0.900)	0.298 (0.245)	0.043 (0.268)	-0.108 (0.230)
% receiving Pell Grant	0.963 (0.738)	0.961 (0.740)	0.161 (0.895)	-0.419 (0.247)	-0.142 (0.317)	0.153 (0.244)
% receiving other federal aid	0.105 (0.115)	0.105 (0.115)	-0.079 (0.100)	-0.029 (0.070)	-0.122 (0.085)	0.135 (0.078)
% receiving state aid	**0.105 (0.043)	*0.105 (0.043)	0.014 (0.081)	0.071 (0.037)	-0.067 (0.073)	-0.067 (0.046)
% receiving institutional aid	***0.149 (0.039)	***0.147 (0.039)	0.027 (0.065)	0.007 (0.042)	0.017 (0.067)	0.051 (0.057)
Total price, in-district on-campus	*0.000 (0.000)	**0.000 (0.000)	0.275 (0.167)	*0.000 (0.000)	-0.264 (0.578)	0.000 (0.000)
Total price, in-state, on-campus	*0.000 (0.000)	**0.000 (0.000)	-0.274 (0.167)	*0.000 (0.000)	0.264 (0.578)	0.000 (0.000)
Total price, out-of-state, on-campus	*-0.000 (0.000)	***-0.000 (0.000)	-0.000 (0.000)	*-0.000 (0.000)	2.88e-05 (0.000)	-0.000 (0.000)
Constant	61.129 (9.767)	10.563 (40.768)	-12.413 (45.674)	14.339 (25.953)	47.294 (37.952)	-17.799 (26.410)
Observations	920	301	187	141	164	127
Adjusted R-squared	0.965	0.976	0.921	0.952	0.936	0.956

Notes: Robust standard errors in parentheses, *** p<0.001, * p<0.01, * p<0.05

Table 4

Regression analyses predicting U.S News & World Report rankings, by all ranked institutions and ranking group (national or regional), after logging variables, VIF analysis, and removal of multicollinearity

Variables	*U.S. News & World Report* ranking group					
	All ranked institutions (N=920)	National Universities (n=301)	Regional North (n=187)	Regional South (n=141)	Regional Midwest (n=164)	Regional West (n=127)
Sector (control=private)	*3.998 (1.728)	6.131 (3.658)	2.969 (5.956)	2.697 (3.970)	9.022 (6.007)	7.776 (4.220)
USN ranking metrics						
Retention rank	***0.429 (0.016)	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Six-year graduation rate	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Pell Grant graduation rate	*-0.141 (0.054)	***-1.131 (0.121)	***-0.706 (0.171)	***-0.853 (0.117)	***-1.219 (0.122)	***-0.651 (0.088)
Retention rate	*0.231 (0.085)	***-0.840 (0.246)	-0.532 (0.300)	***-0.767 (0.198)	-0.375 (0.258)	***-0.509 (0.145)
Predicted graduation rate	***0.408 (0.072)	- -	0.186 (0.275)	*0.462 (0.202)	0.217 (0.237)	*0.341 (0.141)
Reputation score	***-25.308 (1.567)	***-25.319 (3.498)	***-52.731 (5.884)	***-17.279 (4.186)	***-28.935 (4.893)	***-19.037 (3.490)
Faculty resources rank	***0.077 (0.011)	***0.140 (0.026)	**0.037 (0.040)	***0.132 (0.035)	**0.126 (0.036)	***0.143 (0.031)
% full-time faculty	0.028 (0.039)	0.197 (0.102)	0.001 (0.105)	0.024 (0.109)	-0.046 (0.121)	0.092 (0.076)
% faculty with terminal degree	-0.076 (0.046)	-0.011 (0.171)	0.051 (0.128)	-0.134 (0.100)	0.095 (0.126)	-0.130 (0.082)
% classes with <10 students	*0.068 (0.034)	*0.206 (0.104)	-0.049 (0.102)	-0.017 (0.074)	0.043 (0.105)	0.034 (0.070)
% classes with >50 students	***0.365 (0.103)	*-0.462 (0.217)	0.061 (0.523)	-0.050 (0.249)	-0.254 (0.546)	-0.201 (0.255)
Student-to-faculty ratio	-0.114 (0.095)	-0.415 (0.221)	0.070 (0.346)	0.057 (0.157)	-0.177 (0.236)	-0.164 (0.197)
Selectivity rank	***0.149 (0.014)	**0.068 (0.024)	***0.231 (0.050)	***0.211 (0.055)	**0.189 (0.047)	***0.269 (0.044)
% students in top 10% of HS	- -	- -	-0.190 (0.218)	-0.052 (0.174)	0.259 (0.190)	- -

% students in top 25% of HS	-0.005 (0.037)	- -	- -	- -	- -	0.153 (0.080)
Educational expenses	***0.133 (0.010)	***0.094 (0.020)	***0.117 (0.032)	***0.170 (0.034)	***0.143 (0.034)	***0.150 (0.040)
Alumni giving rank	***0.078 (0.014)	***0.109 (0.026)	***0.142 (0.032)	0.115 (0.064)	**0.104 (0.033)	*0.127 (0.056)
Alumni giving rate	*0.319 (0.130)	**0.643 (0.241)	- -	0.479 (0.472)	- -	0.639 (0.428)
Institutional endowment (log)	-0.038 (0.258)	-0.272 (0.597)	0.004 (0.942)	0.073 (0.518)	-0.012 (0.701)	0.280 (0.056)
% receiving federal grant	-	-	-	-	-	-
% receiving Pell Grant	-	-	-	-	-	-
% receiving other federal aid	-0.034 (0.042)	-0.044 (0.136)	-0.053 (0.128)	-0.019 (0.086)	-0.140 (0.108)	0.016 (0.095)
% receiving state aid	-0.010 (0.021)	0.035 (0.048)	-0.050 (0.078)	-0.052 (0.046)	*-0.210 (0.084)	*-0.107 (0.048)
% receiving institutional aid	0.018 (0.023)	*0.107 (0.049)	-0.065 (0.079)	-0.011 (0.057)	0.043 (0.085)	-0.005 (0.070)
Total price, in-district on-campus (log)	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Total price, in-state, on-campus (log)	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Total price, out-of-state, on-campus (log)	0.090 (2.682)	*-16.419 (6.767)	14.956 (9.931)	-3.992 (6.495)	-2.320 (7.813)	6.615 (6.380)
Constant	38.203 (27.462)	436.783 (77.377)	94.169 (108.619)	188.173 (71.146)	200.056 (87.468)	44.228 (65.394)
Observations	920	301	187	141	164	127
Adjusted R-squared	0.964	0.962	0.864	0.908	0.890	0.931

Notes: Robust standard errors in parentheses, *** p<0.001, * p<0.01, * p<0.05

After performing VIF analyses and removing multicollinear variables from each model, several USN and college affordability metrics were predictive of USN ranking. Among all ranked institutions (N=920), retention rank, reputation score, faculty resources rank, percentage of classes with over fifty students, selectivity rank, educational expenses, and alumni giving rank were strongly predictive of USN ranking (p < 0.001). Related to college affordability, only the USN metric capturing Pell grant graduation rates was predictive of ranking (p < 0.05).

However, across all other ranking groups, Pell grant graduation rate was highly predictive of USN ranking, along with other USN metrics such as reputation score, faculty resources rank, selectivity rank, and

educational expenses. These findings echo prior research which has suggested that student selectivity metrics (Webster, 2001) and reputation scores (Bastedo & Bowman, 2010) may be overly influential or problematic in USN rankings, as these scores are calculated subjectively by surveying peer administrators and not based on empirical data or measurable institutional characteristics. However, data in this study indicates that several USN ranking metrics may be predictive of rank for some institutions but not others. One traditional measure of educational quality has been retention rate, or the rate at which first-year students remain at an institution for their second year. Retention rate was not predictive of ranking among Regional North and Midwest universities, while retention rate strongly predicted ranking among National, Regional North, and Regional South universities. The same phenomenon occurred with students-per-class metrics (predictive of ranking for National universities) and alumni giving rates (predictive of ranking for National universities). This finding suggests that several USN ranking metrics may better predict ranking of National universities than Regional universities, controlling for sector, institutional wealth (endowment), and college affordability metrics.

Specific to college affordability metrics, data suggest total price for out-of-state students living on-campus was predictive of ranking among National universities (coef: -16.419), indicating that better-ranked, elite institutions likely charge much more than lower-ranked institutions after controlling for all USN ranking metrics and other college affordability metrics. However, the percentage of students receiving institutional aid was also predictive of ranking among National universities (coef: 0.107), indicating that lower-ranked, less-elite National universities may provide more institutional aid than higher-ranked National universities. Here, these two findings indicate that some college affordability metrics may predict USN ranking among National universities, but these affordability metrics indicate that the better-ranked and more elite an institution is, the more they charge in total price and the less they give in institutional aid. These findings represent new contributions to the literature, as prior studies only investigated how high-ability students use USN rankings to inform their college choice (Griffith & Rask, 2007) and how institutions attempt to improve their rank (Bastedo & Bowman, 2010; Bowman & Bastedo, 2009).

Analyzing other college affordability metrics, other federal aid and institutional aid was not predictive of ranking among any Regional university group, with total price charged to out-of-state students living on-campus not predictive of ranking among any Regional university group

either. However, the percentage of students receiving state aid among Regional Midwest (coef: -0.210, $p < 0.05$) and West universities (coef: -0.107, $p < 0.05$) was predictive of USN ranking. The negative coefficients indicate that Midwest and Western states—home to Regional Midwest and West universities—awarded more state aid to students at highly-ranked, more elite universities than lower-ranked, less elite universities in those states. Controlling for all USN metrics and many college affordability metrics, data in this study suggest USN ranking may not be related to many college affordability metrics. Similarly, if college affordability metrics are predictive USN ranking, these affordability metrics are not favorable for prospective and current students, especially those who may not be academically competitive enough for the highest ranked institutions in the National universities category. Low levels of institutional aid and high total prices were related to better rankings among National universities. Meanwhile state aid—a metric of which universities themselves have no control—predicts better USN ranking only among Regional Midwest and West universities.

As a result, prospective students may be using the USN rankings system to inform where they apply and enroll in postsecondary education (Altbach, 2012; Bowman & Bastedo, 2009; Griffith & Rask, 2007; Meredith, 2004; Monks & Ehrenberg, 1999; Morse, 2008; Owings-Edwards, 2005; Sauder & Lancaster, 2006; Taylor et al., 2019). However, little empirical evidence exists to suggest the USN rankings have anything to do with college affordability, and if they do, the USN ranking does not reward college affordability as measured by total price or aid reception.

Limitations

As with any study analyzing USN rankings or any ranking system in general, limitations arise when institutions are relied on to report accurate data, a limitation recently addressed by the higher education community (Jaschik, 2018, 2019). Moreover, this study is delimited by the institutions included in the data collection and data analysis, as this study did not gather liberal arts colleges data, understanding that many liberal arts colleges do not report complete data to either USN or the National Center for Education Statistics. However, national universities and regional universities reported complete 2018 USN data, in addition to complete data reported to IPEDS in 2016-2017 regarding college affordability metrics. Additionally, this study only captures one year of USN rankings and IPEDS data, partially owed to the time-consuming process of imputing USN data and the changing nature of the USN ranking algorithm from year to year (Morse, Brooks, & Mason, 2018).

As a result, future studies could focus on liberal arts colleges and datasets spanning longer periods of time to better understand how college affordability does or does not affect the USN rankings and other pertinent student outcomes, such as student debt upon graduating and future wages, also recommended by prior research (Owings-Edwards, 2005). In addition, both qualitative and quantitative researchers could investigate student impressions of postsecondary ranking systems and how students view college and university competition, building upon prior work into competition in higher education (Brankovic, 2018; Hazelkorn, 2007, 2009).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

As the first study of its kind to assess college affordability as a predictor of a commonly used, well-researched, highly influential college and university rankings system, this study makes several important contributions to the literature.

First, answering this study's first research question, data suggest USN ranking is only slightly correlated with college affordability metrics (Table 2). When these metrics do correlate with ranking, they are often correlated with higher total prices or a lower percentage of students receiving aid. Although a high ranking in the Regional West universities group was correlated with lower total prices (-0.699), many other college affordability metrics are not correlated with better-ranked USN colleges and universities. For instance, many of the most elite, well-resources colleges and universities in the world were ranked in the USN National universities group in 2016-2017, including Harvard University, Stanford University, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and the University of California at Los Angeles. However, the highest-ranked, most elite institutions in this USN ranking group were highly correlated with low percentages of students receiving federal or Pell grants and higher total prices. Although many students applying to these elite institutions may come from wealthy, privileged backgrounds and do not require Pell grants to afford the costs of college, data in this study suggest the most elite institutions in the United States may also be the most unaffordable for many students from middle- or low-income backgrounds. This finding— that the best ranked institutions may be the most unaffordable—is troubling, given the pressure prospective students face to not only gain entry to the best institution but also be cognizant of their ability to afford that institution. Here, the USN rankings may be influencing prospective

students to choose institutions based on factors unrelated to affordability, possibly contributing to the student loan debt crisis.

Understanding these findings, prospective students should be made aware that the USN rankings do not measure college affordability, and college counselors and support networks should help prospective students strike an appropriate balance between high-quality academics and an affordable education. To assist these students, college counselors and support networks should work with students to clearly define a student's level of financial support and an institution's overall cost of attendance over multiple years. This approach would allow students to plan for any rising costs of tuition and living, positioning a student to select an affordable institution for the entire length of their undergraduate degree plan.

Answering this study's second research question, data suggest not only are USN metrics highly multicollinear supporting extant research (Bougnol & Dulá, 2015; Webster, 2001), but very few college affordability metrics predicts USN ranking across multiple ranking groups (Table 2). Echoing findings from the correlation analysis, data in Table 4 suggested that lower percentages of students receiving institutional aid and higher total prices (cost of attendance minus aid received) were predictive of National university rankings. Here, many prospective college students in the United States may use the USN National university rankings to inform their decision on where to apply and enroll, but National universities seem to be the least likely to provide institutional aid (Table 1) while charging the highest total prices, controlling for all USN metrics. Instead, prospective college students could learn from the findings of this study, primarily that highly-ranked, elite universities in the Midwest and West regions charge substantially less in total price than National universities (Table 1), while awarding a large percentage of students with state-based aid (Table 4). From here, college counselors and a student's support network could investigate out-of-state institutions in the Midwest and West, if the student desires to attend an institution outside of their home state. Furthermore, researchers and policymakers should investigate why Midwest and West institutions of higher education are better able to provide aid and lower the total price of a student's education, examining how these institutions raise student funds and spend their endowments to improve college affordability.

Ultimately, savvy prospective students may want to consider accessing higher education in the Midwest and West regions of the country, given the relationship between college affordability and USN ranking in these areas. However, the costs of travel and the lack of a local

support system for an out-of-state undergraduate may serve as deterrents for students to choose an institution of higher education far from home. As a result, prospective students from more expensive USN regions may be unfairly marginalized from local institutions of higher education. Future research could explore how both in-state and out-of-state students view the affordability of in-state and out-of-state institutions and whether this perception influences their future college enrollment plans. Additionally, researchers could advocate for students to use alternative forms of rankings that do emphasize college affordability, such as the College Consensus (2019) and Niche (2019) ranking systems, in conjunction with better established ranking systems, such as U.S. News & World Report. Striking a balance between ranking systems that measure educational quality and college affordability would likely result in prospective students feeling better informed and more confident that they can not only access the institution of their choosing but afford it, too.

However, the USN rankings are important in that this ranking system has been well researched and captures many institutional quality metrics, such as graduation rates and faculty support. However, prospective students could better understand their college choice by balancing important USN institutional quality metrics—such as retention rates—with college affordability metrics—such as total price or aid awarded—to make the most fiscally responsible decision possible. As a result, prospective students could be better informed about their institution of choice and their own financial future, contributing to a more equitable system which works toward decreasing student loan debt and increasing college access across the United States.

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Value-Creating Perspectives and an Intercultural Approach to Curriculum for Global Citizenship

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ABSTRACT

Several recent scholarly works have challenged the Western dominated paradigm underlying the UNESCO-led agenda of global citizenship education. This includes the heavy influence of Enlightenment liberalism. Further discussions must also be centered on integrating non-Western perspectives so that the practice of global citizenship has a more critical and intercultural focus. This paper offers suggestions to develop curriculum for global citizenship based on a study of leaders and their movements, including Wangari Maathai and Daisaku Ikeda who have inspired people to act within their local communities based on their personal values that are rooted in their experiences with being engaged in both Western and non-Western modes of thinking.

Keywords: Global Citizenship Education, Education for Sustainable Development, Ikeda, Maathai, Makiguchi, Toda

INTRODUCTION

This paper shares key outcomes from my recent work and publication on the education strand of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization's (UNESCO's) 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The United Nation's (UN's) 2030 agenda "seeks to eradicate extreme poverty and strengthen universal peace by integrating and balancing the three dimensions of sustainable development – economic, social and environmental" (UNESCO 2018: 3). As argued through my study of literature and works from selected Asian thinkers is that what seems to be missing in this UNESCO-led discourse is a more detailed engagement with the human/personal dimension, as well as a values-based framework for Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) and Global Citizenship Education (GCED or GCE) reflected in target 4.7 of the SDGs.

The key proposal of this paper is that the knowledge of all groups, not only the dominant but also the subordinate groups, as well as less widely known perspectives are represented within the curriculum across formal, non-formal, and informal education settings across the world. A more substantial engagement with alternative paradigms and perspectives on education can develop a more intercultural approach to the curriculum. At a basic level, the inclusion of diverse knowledge systems can be selected from different regional diasporas that are similar to but also distinct from each other. For example, Ubuntu from Sub-Saharan Africa (see Swanson 2007), Buen Vivir from South America (see Van Norren 2017), and Soka from Japan (see Sharma 2018). These approaches are necessary to bring into the mainstream discourse within ESD and GCE for a variety of reasons as explored in this paper.

SDGS FOR A PEACEFUL AND GLOBAL WORLD

Let me start by providing some context to these discussions within the emerging discourse on GCE. Several scholarships challenge the Western dominated agendas and the underlying Western worldview in GCE (Andreotti 2006, 2011; Andreotti and de Souza 2012; Bowden 2003; Calhoun 2002; Dill 2013; Gaudelli 2016; Jooste & Heleta 2017; Merryfield 2009; Tarozzi & Torres 2016; Torres 2017). And so, a question worth considering is, "how and where do we fit in less widely known perspectives within the discourse in GCE?" Among various possible responses to this query is the need to promote

comparative and contextual studies that bring into focus alternative ways of thinking, being, acting, and living that have informed people and have led to the development of sustainable communities worldwide. This paper reiterates my emphasis through ongoing presentations and publications of the importance of paying attention to different philosophical understandings and values-based perspectives that can bring forth diverse and creative solutions to global issues, such as, environmental degradation and climate change. Education within the classroom can learn lessons from initiatives in which people and communities have been propelled to take part in local, national, regional, and global solutions as engaged citizenry based on their values that have informed their action for positive personal, social, and environmental transformation.

Examples include the Green Belt Movement in Kenya pioneered by Wangari Maathai (1940-2011) and inspired by African tradition, such as, the mythology surrounding the Sycamore Fig Tree (Webster 2012; also see SGI 2014). Kenyan folklore and the traditional narratives of the Kikuyu people, the largest ethnic group in Kenya, have long revered and worshipped the Fig Tree as sacred. Maathai advocated the importance of the Fig Tree's presence on the entire ecosystem and the people who depend on the soil and water to live. (See https://www.greenbeltmovement.org/node/374) She encouraged rural women to plant trees to combat the negative effects of soil erosion and forest devastation that was causing them social and economic anxiety. Their initiative was confronted by the dictatorial political regime and consequently a nationwide movement to protect the Natural environment took place which had positive impacts in terms of economic growth, defend human rights and promote democracy within the nation. The marches led by Maathai in 1970s with protestors holding seedlings to stop deforestation can be compared to the marches led by the leader of the non-violent movement for Indian independence, Mahatma Gandhi (1869-1948), for example, the 1930 Salt March to gather salt from the ocean in a campaign to boycott the British rule. These examples suggest that development can be possible through harnessing the ontological understandings that come from peoples' native culture. Further, a perception of the unity of human life and its Natural and social environment can act as an enabling condition for environmental and social progress.

There are several recommendations for policy and praxis made in my recent study (Sharma 2018) that also challenge the dominance of English as the *lingua franca* in developing and promoting GCE worldwide, which makes it particularly important that curricular themes and practices can allow

learning from other views that are developed within non-English and/or non-Western contexts.

THE RELEVANCE OF ALTERNATIVE PARADIGMS AND PERSPECTIVES TO THE PRACTICE OF SDGS

In re-examining possible alternative paradigms, perspectives, and praxis in achieving the SDGs, there are two questions that I have posed through my ongoing work in relation to this enquiry.

- Are there different ways in which we might approach issues of social justice? And tied to this question is

- How can we expand our focus from individual empowerment to enable bold collective efforts (see Ikeda 2018)?

It is no exaggeration to state that given the heavy dominance of neoliberal capitalism worldwide and its impact across various national educational policies, the efforts and plans to tackle the SDGs are largely oriented to empower the individual human being. While this is important, it also leaves out the particularities that are also equally important in meeting these goals, such as, the particularities of culture, of the individual's needs, interests, and values.

One of the guiding questions for my work has been on how education can focus on the individual but not become individualistic. This to me is a serious concern that has emerged from the Enlightenment period, Western-scientific-industrial revolution, and modern capitalism. My long-term study of selected Asian thinkers shows that their engagement with particularities, values, and beliefs have led to their own creative and distinct strategies and action to create positive change and sustainable communities within their respective geographical locales.

These include the Japanese educators, Tsunesaburo Makiguchi (1871-1944), Josei Toda (1900-1958), and Daisaku Ikeda (b. 1928). Makiguchi, Toda, and Ikeda are the leaders of the lay Buddhist organization, the Soka Gakkai, and the members of the Soka Gakkai International (SGI) across 192 countries and territories have provided support to achieve the UN's efforts to build a peaceful and sustainable world within their own communities, particularities, and daily life. Ikeda is also the founder of several institutions promoting peace, culture, and education. This includes several kindergartens, primary, and secondary schools, and universities across the

world. His annual peace proposal offers several suggestions often directed to various UN initiatives. In the recent past, there has been a surge of studies that examine the relevance of Ikeda's Soka education (lit. Value-creating education) to contemporary education, human rights, and a sustainable future.

In comparative and contextual studies of the Soka progenitors and other thinkers from across the world, I have tried to develop confluences in their ideas. For instance, the ideas and values of Gandhi and the Soka progenitors who have galvanized millions of people to work for social justice. The practice of ESD and GCE and efforts to achieve the SDGs can take strides forward through drawing on the important lessons from the vast repository of human wisdom that these thinkers have generated in building consensus within disparate groups and communities. In a lecture titled "Thoughts on Education for Global Citizenship" delivered at the Teachers College, Columbia University in 1996 Ikeda proposes as an essential element of a global citizen "the wisdom to perceive the interconnectedness of all life and living" (Ikeda 2008: 444). This wisdom, Ikeda notes elsewhere is a "living wisdom" that can be learned from various cultural traditions that appreciate the unity and connectedness of life, such as, the Desana people of the Amazon and the Iroquois people of North America" (Ikeda 2002).

One of the consequences of similar worldviews has led some nations states, including Ireland and India, to give constitutional rights to trees and rivers as being sacred. This wisdom, of perceiving the interdependence between the self and the Natural and social environment, is what Maathai was able to perceive through the influence of the Kikuyu culture on her family. Similarly, Gandhi and the Soka progenitors developed their wisdom to understand the interdependence of all life through their respective religious beliefs and cultures that are based on a *dharmic* view of life, that is, the notion of a universal law that nurtures and sustains all life. These alternative ways of thinking about human and all life can have important consequences in the aims and methods for education for citizenship.

My recently published book suggests that a shift in paradigm and perspectives will have a significant bearing on the practice of education for global citizenship (UNESCO 2015: 14-15). The title of my book is *Value-creating global citizenship education* (Sharma 2018) which emphasizes the value that can be created through bold and collective efforts. To summarize the many arguments made in this work, Value-creating global citizenship education can contribute to the UN's 2030 goals for sustainability and global citizenship in at least two ways.

1. **First, as an educational resource** through the several lessons learned from a study of alternative paradigms and perspectives of

how we think about ourselves, society, Nature, and the universe have a significant bearing on the three domains of learning within the global citizenship education conceptual dimensions of UNESCO (2015) – the cognitive, socio-emotional, and behavioral.

2. **Second, through the lessons learned from a study of these movements** that have inspired people worldwide to act based on their own values. They are central to the discussions on education for citizenship across nation states experiencing the effects of migration, displacement, and transition.

As an member expert with the UN forum Harmony with Nature I advocate an Earth-centered worldview of Mother Nature, also called Earth Jurisprudence (see http://www.harmonywithnatureun.org/welcome/). Moving on with the arguments of this paper, in the realm of education, one of the core challenges of fostering youth as future world citizens needs to be a focus on the values, beliefs, and interests of the individual learner. A broader engagement with the human/personal dimension is necessary for the success of education for global citizenship as mentioned before. These are 6 themes provided for the practice of a Value-creating global citizenship education as mentioned in my previous work (Sharma 2018: 93-94). These themes aim to promote the necessary knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes to enable learners to develop:

- **A sense of interdependence, common humanity, and a global outlook:** that explores existential questions including that from non-Western perspectives; while also challenging colonial perspectives.

- **An awareness of climate change as planetary citizens:** that acknowledges that climate change is real; develops reverence for Nature; a wonder and appreciation for life as creative coexistence; and mandates an urgent action and concern for the welfare of the planet by the citizens of the earth.

- **A commitment to reflective, dialogic, and transformative learning:** that prioritizes not just a quantitative approach to acquiring more knowledge about others but a qualitative one that facilitates the development of the learner's own values and attitudes through dialogic processes.

- **A commitment to sustainable development through intercultural perspectives:** that engages with particularities and specificities of the local while also connecting with global issues; and the integration of

lessons from history on the normative and creative use of values across societies such that a study of these dissidents and their movements can promote.

- **A belief in the value-creating capacity for social-self actualization:** that can approach issues concerned with social justice, gender, and equity through developing the value-creating capacity of the learner to contribute to individual benefit and social good.

- **An understanding of peace and non-violence as being central to the human rights agenda:** that builds character through a critical engagement with studies on the patterns of living of people and communities across Western/non-Western diasporas that are based on peace and non-violence.

Figure 1 illustrates the proposed framework based on a value-creating paradigm for GCE.
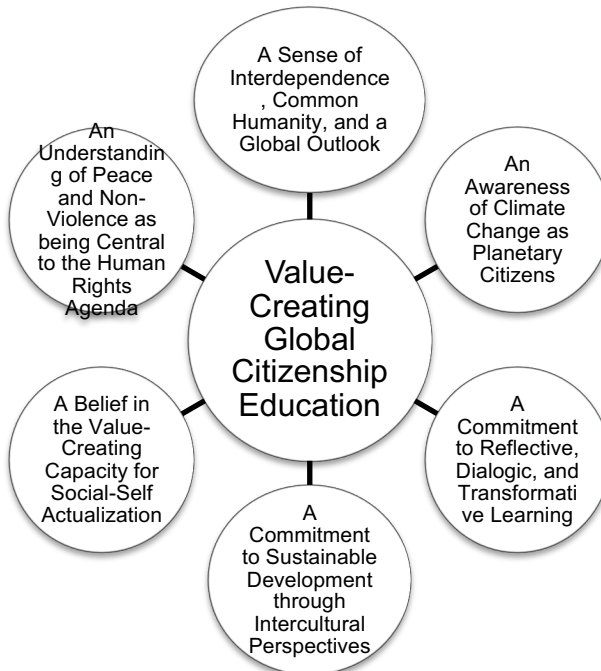
Figure 1. Framework for *Value-creating global citizenship education* (Sharma 2018: 94).

Within each theme a brief description is provided that challenges epistemic assumptions for the practice of GCE that is currently often based on a neoliberal paradigm. One of the distinctions that can be drawn between the neoliberal paradigm and a more holistic approach to ESD and GCE is the shift in focus from individual empowerment to building relationships through the process of education, between the learner and her/his Natural and social environment. As mentioned earlier through the examples of Maathai, Gandhi, and the Soka progenitors, since all life is interdependent, the education of people cannot take place in isolation, and so moving beyond just empowering the individual, education for global citizenship needs to aim at developing the individual's capacity to harness her/his network of independent relations starting from their local community and Natural environment.

I won't go into the detail of my in-depth study of these thinkers over two decades across India, Japan, the UK, and the US (Sharma 1999, 2008, 2018) which provides brief insights into these thinkers and their ideas. For example, Gandhi's understanding of the Natural world in spiritual terms, his values and beliefs, as well as creative strategies to use values, such as, non-violence in real world politics, and enthuse millions of people, including youth in the non-violent *satyagraha* movement or movement based on truth force. Similarly, Makiguchi through his work, *Jinsei chirigaku* or The Geography of Human Life, arrived at the understanding of humanitarian competition, making human happiness at the core of education, that is, in developing the individual's ability to live contributively, for the welfare of oneself, Nature, and humanity (see Makiguchi 1983: 398–401, also Ikeda 2003a: 21). The goal of education within the Soka paradigm, which is individual happiness, is inextricably linked to other people, that is, an individual cannot become truly happy on one's own. Instead, happiness is found in a life of value creation which as Ikeda (2008: 443) describes is "the capacity to find meaning, to enhance one's own existence and contribute to the well-being of others, under any circumstances." This inseparable link between the happiness of the self and the welfare of the other permeates the ethos within the Soka education institutions that are secular schools and universities established by Ikeda.

In this paper I would like to focus on the contributions made from a study on their ideas and modes of thinking to the important task of ESD and GCE. Overall, based on my study of Asian perspectives an acknowledgement of one's common humanity I have argued, would give emphasis to perceiving the divisiveness and alienation that is present within modern societies. That is, it would place a strong emphasis within the curriculum to tackle stereotyping and foster the socio-emotional capacity of compassion towards

all inhabitants of the earth whilst also recognizing the nature and forms of power structures in an increasingly globalized world and the unseen perpetuation of colonial perspectives. The behavioral response to solve global issues would be rooted in a non-dualistic belief system which perceives an inextricable link between the self-other-Nature-universe. Through an intuitive examination of the depth of human life such belief systems subscribe to the view that an attitudinal change within each person can impact upon their environment (see Ikeda 2003b: 106). The emphasis in the educational environment that subscribe to this way of thinking, such as in the Soka Schools in Japan, aim to develop and foster meaningful life-to-life connections among people – between students and teachers, schools and communities, and so on. Based on my proposals for a shift in putting more emphasis on relationship building within the curriculum, I have developed the 6 themes stated earlier that are a response to UN goals, such as, climate change, peace and non-violence. For related discussions see the video via either web link provided below under Sharma 2019.

LESSONS FOR GCE DEVELOPED BASED ON A STUDY OF DIVERSE EXAMPLES

In addition to proposing themes for the practice of GCE I have also emphasized in my earlier work (Sharma 2018) that curricular lessons be developed based on a study of thinkers and movements for ESD and GCE. I have questioned through my long-term work of how can we foster active citizens within the classroom and learn from the examples of those who are creating change within their respective communities? Through related discussions in my earlier work (Sharma 2018: 115-130) I had proposed teaching guidelines that can used to integrate non-Western perspectives within the curriculum to develop a global outlook within teacher education programs; for the professional development of in-service teachers; within undergraduate (bachelor's) and graduate (master's) programs on international and comparative education, development education, and global learning; and within civil society organizations promoting GCE. Core activities were provided that can be used to develop curriculum according to the needs of the cohort. Suggestions were made in that work for lessons that engage with the Asian thinkers, Gandhi, Makiguchi, and Ikeda's beliefs, modes of thinking, behaviors, and strategies as active protagonists within their respective countries.

In this paper suggestions are made to include a study of Maathai and the Green Revolution that can be integrated within the lessons in my earlier work (ibid.) to develop curriculum based on a study of leaders who have inspired people to act within their local communities based on their personal values that are rooted in their experiences with being engaged in both Western and non-Western modes of thinking. For example, Maathai's personal values that were shaped by both the Kikuyu culture and Christianity; Gandhi's in-depth reading of Christianity, Hinduism, and Jainism; Ikeda's numerous dialogues with faith leaders, scholars, and people from across the world. In this section I will briefly introduce the lesson development and overview in my earlier work. A more detailed engagement with the framework can be found in the above-cited work. Overall this proposed course can challenge cohorts to read and reflect on the writings of Gandhi, Makiguchi, Toda, Ikeda, and Maathai (primary sources); compare texts authored by other scholars on their ideas (secondary sources); and to develop questions related to education for global citizenship. Each unit or module within the proposed course can integrate these successive steps:

1. **watch**/**read** the assigned material;
2. **reflect** on the materials studied; and
3. work on a culminating **activity/assignment**.

Lessons on the educational philosophy and practice of these thinkers can be taught through the use of a historical-comparative study and discussion of non-Western perspectives, knowledge systems, and cultural contexts in education. A three-part historical study can explore

(a) their respective **historical backgrounds** that includes the political, religious, and cultural contexts in which they were situated,

(b) their **personal histories** including relevant events and influences on their lives, for example, as Ikeda recounts from his meeting with Maathai in February 2005 in Tokyo, Maathai placed an importance on her experience of encountering good teachers in her life (Ikeda 2006: 165-167),

(c) their **present use and applicability** that draws together lessons from different leaders and movements from non-Western diasporas.

Overall the methods used to study their ideas are based on critical, textual, and biographical analyses of their respective lives and values. This involves a study of their writings (primary sources), as well as a comparison of the texts authored by other scholars on their ideas (secondary sources). Primary sources that have been translated need to be read while being mindful of the translator's position and influence on the translated work. Further, the

results of historical-comparative studies can shed light on broader issues that are relevant to educating citizens in the twenty-first century.

The following questions can be used to guide a more detailed engagement with these thinkers, their ideas, movements, and relevance for GCE (developed and adapted from Sharma 2008):

1. **What are the key challenges faced by these thinkers that can be identified through a contextual and historical analysis?** This question guides an investigation of the context in which these thinkers were placed. It also draws us to engage with their writings/texts, and to understand the time and context in which these were written. (See this video that takes Gandhi as an example to show why contextualization is an essential skill: https://www.teachingchannel.org/videos/reading-like-a-historian-contextualization)

2. **How have the "values" systems or values and beliefs of the thinkers impacted upon education today?** This question guides an investigation into the use and influence of their ideas in education and examines the applicability of their proposals.

3. **Is there any way in which the findings of this analysis may have generalizable use for future studies?** This question engages with the outcomes from a study on these thinkers that can have a broader impact beyond the task of schooling and education. For example, an identification of their strategies, behaviors, and beliefs as citizens that can be useful for professional development and training across sectors.

To summarize, as the sessions progress students should be able to critically engage with various issues within GCE across the international community as well as to understand that education needs to be sensitive to the culture of the students, school, and community. The focus on these alternative paradigms and perspectives can highlight two common aspects in the above examples of non-Western perspectives. The first is a focus on social justice that stems from the needs and values of the people. The second is that the knowledge systems that influenced these thinkers and movements are based on interdependent worldviews. The focus for these thinkers was not just individual empowerment, but of taking bold, collective action for positive change. The relevance of this for global citizenship is that education on its own cannot compensate for society (Bernstein 1970: 345). And so, schooling is not enough in education for citizenship that must take place across the home-school-community continuum. This also requires an engagement with the values, needs, and interests of the individual student within classroom teaching. The importance of this study also suggests the need for a whole-school approach to GCE and ESD with a focus on not just individual

empowerment but also the challenging task of building relationships between the learner and their Natural/social environment. The development of school policies and practices need to engage with the goal of *learning to live together* in the twenty-first century (see Delors 1996, UNESCO 2001).

CONCLUSION: RECOMMENDATIONS FROM A STUDY OF VALUE-CREATING GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

1. **A broader engagement with the human/personal dimension** is necessary for the success of education for global citizenship and the 17 SDGs. This would fill the present gap within UNESCO's proposals for sustainable development by adding the personal dimension to the currently proposed economic, social, and environmental dimensions (see UNESCO 2018: 3).

2. **Value-creating global citizenship education as a pedagogical approach** in addition to the three key approaches in ESD currently offered by UNESCO, which are, "a learner-centered approach," "action-oriented learning," and "transformative learning" (UNESCO 2017: 55).

3. **An emphasis on building relationships** through ESD and GCE between the individual learner and her/his Natural and social environment by engaging with the personal dimension.

4. **Lessons learned from movements** inspired by Maathai, Gandhi, Ikeda and others to help expand the current focus within ESD and GCE from individual empowerment to enable bold collective efforts.

Gandhi, who had an influence on leaders, such as, Nelson Mandela (1918-2013) and Martin Luther King Jr. (1929-1968), spoke of moving beyond "*ahimsa* (non-violence) of the weak." (In an interview to Deputation from Quetta dated 8 July 1947 in the Collected Works, Vol. 96, 7 July 1947 to 26 September 1947. Also see *Harijan* dated 26 March 1938, 4 November 1939.)

There is much to be learned from the bold action taken to combat climate change by Kenya that includes my earlier example of the Green Belt Movement. Further, as argued through the discussions and practice offered in this paper, there is a lot to learn from the historical legacy of thinkers who have demonstrated by their examples of how to create a more peaceful and sustainable world.

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Participation of International African Students at the University of Arkansas in Extracurricular Activities and Their Academic Outcomes

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines whether there is an association between participation of the international African students at the University of Arkansas in extracurricular activities (ECAs) and their grade point average (GPA). With the increase of study abroad programs, numerous Africans at college age travel to the US to pursue their degrees. A considerable number of them get involved in extra-scholastic activities, whereas others are more concentrated on their academic programs. The researcher wanted to find whether there was a difference in GPA between those African students who were more involved in extracurricular activities and their counterparts who were least involved. Although the t-test's results were insignificant, the qualitative results of this study may be insightful for educators and advisors who deal with international students from Africa.

Keywords: Academic achievement, African students, extracurricular activities, GPA

INTRODUCTION

Today, almost every school at different levels has departments or offices that encourage their students to participate in extracurricular activities (ECAs). The apparent advantage of this involvement in ECAs might be the maximization of the socialization process among students and other members of the school community (University of Arkansas, 2018). However, there are other benefits which normally go unnoticed –the association between participation in ECAs and school success.

Numerous studies found that students who are most involved in ECAs academically perform better than their peers who are less involved. Fox, Barr-Anderson, Neumark-Sztainer, and Wall (2010) conducted a study that aimed at examining associations between participation in ECAs and academic achievements among middle and high students. These researchers concluded that independently of the type of ECAs, whether physical exercises or sports, participation in them was positively associated with academic achievement among students. Similarly, Moriana, J. A. et al. (2006) studied the impact of ECAs on scholastic outcomes of students in junior high schools in Spain. They found that students involved in ECAs had better school performance than their counterparts who did not participate.

These and other previous studies (Bradley & Conway, 2016; Covay & Carbonaro, 2010; Fox, Barr-Anderson, Neumark-Sztainer, & Wall, 2010; Moriana, J. A. et al. (2006) on this subject have focused on prior college education, namely kindergarten, elementary, middle, high, and secondary schools. None of these studies were conducted with college and international students. Therefore, this study will attempt to fill this gap — examine whether there is an association between participation of the international African students at the University of Arkansas in ECAs and their GPA. This study will also seek to answer the following questions:

Q1: Is there any difference in GPA between international African students at the University of Arkansas most involved in ECAs and their less involved peers?

Q2: Is there any difference in GPA between international African students at the University of Arkansas involved in sports ECAs and their peers involved in non-sports ECAs?

Q3: How do international African students at the University of Arkansas perceive their participation in ECAs?

Q4: Why do international African students at the University of Arkansas participate in ECAs?

Scope and Limitation

        The results of this study might not reflect the whole international population at the University of Arkansas. Data and subsequent findings are specific to the participants of this study – international African students at the University of Arkansas, enrolled during the spring semester 2018. Results represent only the surveyed University of Arkansas international African students.

        This study examined only the data from the electronic survey submitted from January 30th to February 28th, 2018. After this date, response receptions were terminated. Although the survey was sent to all African students on campus, with the aid of the International Students and Scholars (ISS) office at the University of Arkansas, only 37% of the responses were received on the due date. Therefore, the results might not reflect the total population of African students enrolled in the spring semester 2018.

        The ISS office at the University of Arkansas did not disclose participants' emails to the researcher. Thus, it was impossible to send reminders to the participants of this study, regarding the need for responding to the survey and its subsequent submission within the schedule. Using the African Students Organization's (ASO) LISTSERV, the researcher sent a reminder to student members of the organization two weeks later, but international African students who were non-members were unreachable.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A considerable number of researchers found positive associations between ECAs and academic outcomes (AOs). Darling, Caldwell and Smith (2005, p. 51), Moriana et al. (2006), and Eccles, Barber, Stone and Hunt (2003), for example, studied the relationship between ECAs, academic performance and adolescent adjustment in secondary and high school students. These researchers found that students who were more involved in ECAs, including sports, had better GPAs/grades and had "more positive attitudes toward school, and higher academic aspirations" than their peers who had no or least participation in ECAs. Reviewing the literature on the positive effects of ECAs on students, Massoni (2011) reported that students who were more involved in after-school activities ameliorated their behavior, reduced the probability of dropout, were more likely to become successful adults, and more importantly they had better grades than their peers who were not involved in ECAs.

        Analyzing the data from the National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988, sponsored by the US Department of Education, Lipscomb (2007) found that secondary school students' participation in athletics and clubs was associated with a three percent increase in science and math

scores. Analyzing the same data set, Broh (2002) found that involvement in school sports benefited students' academic achievement, including improvement in their formal math test scores. In Dumais' (2006) study with kindergarteners, first, second and third graders, she found participation in ECAs provided "gains in reading achievement test scores between first and third grade and third grade teachers' evaluations of mathematics skills, but does not affect gains in math achievement test scores or teachers' evaluations of language arts skills" (p. 177).

However, some investigators identified negative associations. Lipscomb (2007) affirmed that participation in ECAs may have undesirable AOs, if it sacrifices the time devoted to school work, such as assignment and homework completion, and test preparation. Lewis' (2004) study, for instance, found that students who participated in vocational activities and extracurricular employment had poorer academic performance than their classmates who were involved in other types of ECAs.

Some investigators remained skeptical, although they found satisfactory results. For example, Fox, Barr-Anderson, Neumark-Sztainer, and Wall (2010) studied the relationship between physical activities, sports team participation and AOs among secondary and high school students. In this study, they found that students who participated in sports teams had higher GPAs than the other students who did not participate. Notwithstanding their findings, these researchers questioned whether the positive AOs that they found were a result of the physical exercises involved in sports practices, or whether it was simply because of the requirement to maintain a certain GPA to be part of the sports teams.

Supporting Fox et al.'s (2010) skepticism, Shulruf (2010) examined more than 80 studies on the effect of ECAs on AOs. This scholar found reports of positive effects of ECAs on school achievements in these studies. However, he found more associations between ECAs and academic achievement rather than causation.

Several researchers affirmed that ECAs have a positive impact on AOs rather than GPA. Lipscomb (2007), for example, found that secondary school students' participation in ECAs was associated with "a 5 percent increase in Bachelor's degree attainment expectations" (p. 463). Feldman and Matjasko (2005) associated structured ECAs participation with "positive academic, behavioral, psychological, and young adult outcomes" (p.202). According to Bradley and Conway (2016), participation in ECAs develops students' non-cognitive skills — motivation, conscientiousness, openness-to-experience and increased self-efficacy — which in turn boosts the required academic achievement. Proposing the social capital model, Broh (2002) recognized that it aggregates immeasurable values to individuals through membership networks. In her assertions, social capital strengthens the bonds between

parents and students, students and their peers, teachers and students, acting as a channel of information dissemination and a communal control system. As a collective control mechanism, social capital enables families and school employees to maintain students in compliance with the school discipline, expectations, norms and values. Consequently, these social networks and the control system generate academic success.

RESEARCH METHOD

A combined quantitative and qualitative research design — embedded mixed methods research — was used for this study. According to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), a mixed research method design is used to include qualitative and quantitative procedures in a single research study. The advantage of using a mixed method is to triangulate data, and seek further clarification of results, which would not be found if only one method was used (Clark & Creswell, 2010; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2006).

The participants for this study were the international African students at the University of Arkansas. A sample of 62 students was selected out of a total population of 165 international African students during the spring semester of 2018. The methodology for this study was a convenient sample of the participants. A convenient sample is "A nonprobabilistic sample selected from available elements" (Abbot, 2011, p. 169). According to Abbot (2011), this sampling method is commonly used "when the researcher has no opportunity to use random sampling methods" (p.169).

The participants were undergraduate or graduate (Master's and Doctoral) students. Of the 62 participants, 31 were undergraduate students; eighteen were master's students, and 13 were doctoral students. Thirty-seven of the participants in this study were male, and 25 were female. Participants came from five regions of Africa – Central, East, North, South, and West — with Western Africa being the region of origin to the most participants, and Southern Africa being the region of origin to the fewest participants. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the participants in this study.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of the participants

Demographic		n	$\%$
Gender	Male	37	59.7
	Female	25	40.3
Region	Central Africa	13	21
	East Africa	14	22.6
	North Africa	10	16.1

	Southern Africa	6	9.7
	West Africa	19	30.6
College Level	Doctorate	13	21
	Master's	18	29
	Undergraduate	31	50

Note. n = number, % = percentage

Data Collection

An e-mail with a link to an online survey questionnaire was sent in January 2018 by the Head of the International Students and Scholars (ISS) Office at the University of Arkansas to each of 165 international African students at the University of Arkansas. This requesting e-mail was sent to the participants after a written authorization was granted by the Chair of Institutional Review Board (IRB) Committee (Appendix A). Recipients were requested to complete the survey questions and submit them, as soon as possible.

Due to a low rate of response reception, using ASO's LISTSERV, a reminder e-mail was sent to student members of the organization two weeks later, but international African students who were non-members were unreachable. Unfortunately, the ISS office at the University of Arkansas did not disclose the participants' emails to the researcher. Therefore, it was impossible to send reminders to every participant in this study.

The online survey was open for responses from the participants from January 30th to February 28th, 2018. After this period, the survey was closed, and there were 62 submissions (37.6% of the target population).

After collecting the data, they were converted from a Google form into an Excel spreadsheet for the descriptive statistics. After this conversion, the data was inspected and three participants were eliminated for not reporting their GPA. Consequently, only 59 participants remained (35.8% of the target population).

After the data inspection, the participants were classified by the most involved (those who reported having more than 20 hours of ECAs participation) and the least involved (those who reported having less than 20 hours of ECAs participation). The researcher established 20 as the milestone to determine the most involved participants in ECAs and the least involved participants because the Center for Community Engagement (CCE) at the University of Arkansas considers students as members of the Volunteer Action Center (VAC) once they reach 10 hours of volunteering service. CCE offers eligible students membership card perks, and additional perks are provided when students reach 25, 50, 75, 100 or 200 + hours of service (University of Arkansas, 2018). Based on this CCE's criteria, the researcher established a number of hours between

the first award (10 hours) and the second award (25 hours) to define the most engaged participants and the least involved participants, for this study.

Following the participants' classification, two independent *t*-tests were conducted to find the difference in GPA between the most involved participants and their least involved peers. According to Abbot (2011), *t*-tests are typically conducted in studies with relatively large samples of 40 or more participants. Therefore, a sample of 59 respondents meets this methodological requirement. Additionally, the qualitative data were coded, and a thematic analysis was conducted for the qualitative data. Refer to Table 2 to see Creswell and Clark's (2007) steps to quantitative and qualitative analysis, and how the researcher applied Creswell and Clark's steps to this study.

Table 2. Steps to analyze data

	Creswell and Clark's Quantitative Steps	Researcher's Steps	Creswell and Clark's Qualitative Steps
Step one	- Coding data by assigning numeric values - Recording or computing new variables for computer analysis - Cleaning the database - Recording new variables for computer analysis - Establishing codebook	- Convert data from a Google form into an Excel spreadsheet - Inspect Excel data analysis tool	- Organizing documents and visual data - Transcribing text - Preparing data for computer analysis
Step two	- Visually inspecting data - Conducting a descriptive analysis - Checking for trends and distributions	- Visualize and compare data correctness between Google form and Excel spreadsheet - Classify participants between the most involved	- Reading through the data - Writing memos - Developing qualitative codebook

		and the least involved - Select different colors to distinguish data - Choose Excel filter tool to sift the data from the dataset	
Step three	- Choosing an appropriate statistical test - Analyzing to answer research questions or test hypotheses - Reporting inferential tests, effect sizes, confidence intervals - Using quantitative statistical software programs	- Select an independent T test for the research question one - Choose Excel software to conduct the T test - Use similar background color for identical answers to a question - Use the Excel filter tool to identify data of a similar category	- Coding the data - Assigning lables to codes - Grouping codes into themes (or categories) - Interrelating themes (or categories) or abstracting to smaller set of themes - Using qualitative software programs

Step four	- Representing results in statements of results - Proving results in tables and figures	- Report statistical results in statements and tables - Present the findings discussing the themes through statements and tables	- Representing findings in discussions of the themes or categories - Presenting visual models, figures, tables
Step five	- Using external standards to establish validity and reliability of current data	- Repeat T test procedures to check results reliability - Submit to advisor checking	- Using researcher, participant, and reviewer standards - Employing validation strategies

	- Time constraint prevented from peer and participants' Review	(e.g. member checking, triangulation, peer review

The respondents were also classified by sports ECAs participants and non-sports ECAs participants. Sports ECAs participants were those who reported being involved in sports ECAs of any type, whereas those respondents who did not mention being involved in sports ECAs were considered as non-sports ECAs participants.

Survey Collection

Research Question 1 used an independent *t*-test to answer: Is there any difference in the GPAs between the international African students at the University of Arkansas who were most involved in ECAs and their less involved peers? Of the 59 African students, 24 reported having more than 20 ECA hours (the most involved African students), whereas 35 African students reported having less than 20 ECA hours (the least involved African students). Of the 24 most involved African students, the mean of their reported GPA was 3.56, with a mode of 4 and a median of 3.65. The range of their reported GPA was 1.7, with the minimum reported GPA of 2.3 and the maximum of 4. Of the 35 less involved African students, the mean of their reported GPA was 3.6, with a mode of 4, and a median of 3.7. The range of their reported GPA was 1.2, with the lowest reported GPA of 2.8 and the highest 4.

The observed independent sample *t*-test's results, with an $\alpha = .05$, was insignificant, $t(57) = 2.00$, $p = .72$, concluding that there was no significant difference in GPA between the international African students (M = 3.56, SD = .42, n = 24) at the University of Arkansas who were most involved in ECAs and their less involved peers (M = 3.6, SD = .33, n = 35). Appendix B shows the most involved and the least involved African students' reported GPA data.

Research Question 2 used an independent *t*-test to answer: Is there any difference in GPA between the international African students at the University of Arkansas who were most involved in sports ECAs and their peers involved in non-sports ECAs? Of the 59 African students, 20 reported participating in sports ECAs, whereas 39 African students reported being involved in non-sports ECAs. Of the 20 involved in sports ECAs, the mean of their reported GPA was 3.49, with a mode of 4 and a median of 3.55. The range of their reported GPA was 1.7, with the minimum reported GPA of 2.3 and the maximum of 4. Of the 39 surveyed African students involved in non-sports ECAs, the mean of their reported GPA was 3.64, with a mode of 4 and a median of 3.7. The range of their

reported GPA was 1.1, with the lowest reported GPA of 2.9 and the highest 4.

The observed independent sample *t*-test's results, with an α = .05 was insignificant, $t(57) = 2.00$, $p = .14$, concluding that there was no significant difference in GPA between the surveyed international African students (M = 3.49, SD = .45, n = 20) at the University of Arkansas who reported participating in sports ECAs and their peers (M = 3.64, SD = .31, n = 39) who reported participating in non-sports ECAs. Appendix C shows the reported GPA data of the surveyed African students at the University that reported participating in sports ECAs and their peers who reported being involved in non-sports ECAs.

Research Question 3 used a thematic data analysis to answer: How do international African students at the University of Arkansas perceive their ECAs participation? Over 70% of the participants asserted that ECAs had a favorable influence on their academic learning, whereas 7% percent stated otherwise. Table 2 displays the descriptive statistics on the participants' positive perceptions of the impact of ECAs on academic outcomes (AOs).

Table 2. Surveyed African students' positive perceptions of the influence of ECAs on AOs

ECAs have a positive impact on my learning outcomes		
	Frequency	%
Neutral	11	18.6
Strongly disagree	2	3.4
Disagree	2	3.4
Agree	35	59.3
Strongly agree	9	15.3
Total	59	100

The surveyed international African students at the University of Arkansas were also asked whether they thought participation in ECAs had a negative influence on their academic outcomes (AOs). Eight respondents (13.5%) reported that involvement in ECAs impacted their AOs negatively. However, 41 participants (60.5%) reported that involvement in ECAs did not impact their AOs negatively. Table 3 shows the statistics of the respondents' negative perceptions of the impact of ECAs on AOs.

Table 3. Surveyed African students' negative perceptions of the influence of ECAs on AOs

ECAs disturb my studying program

	Frequency	%
Neutral	10	17
Strongly disagree	10	17
Disagree	31	52.5
Agree	8	13.5
Strongly agree	0	0
Total	59	100

Research Question 4 also used a thematic data analysis to answer: Why do international African students at the University of Arkansas participate in ECAs? This question was purposefully posed to understand the reasons or the purpose for African students at the University to participate in ECAs. Among the 59 surveyed international African students at the University of Arkansas, a moderate number of participants (13.6%) stated that they were involved in ECAs purely to help and have fun. However, over 37% of the participants reported that they engaged in ECAs to (1) help and have fun, (2) meet new people, and (3) exchange experiences. Table 4 displays the statistics of why the surveyed international African students at the University of Arkansas participated in ECAs.

Table 4. Reasons for the international African students to participate in ECAs

Reasons for participating in ECAs… Select all that apply		
	Frequency	%
helping and having fun	8	13,6
earning credit hours for a course	0	0
meeting new people	3	5,1
exchanging experiences	2	3,4
adding to a resume (CV)	0	0
helping and having fun, meeting new people	9	15,3
helping and having fun, exchanging experiences	6	10,1
helping and having fun, enriching resume (CV)	1	1,7
earning credit hours for a course, exchanging experiences	1	1,7
meeting new people, exchanging experiences	6	10,1
helping and having fun, earning credit hours for a course, exchanging experiences	1	1,7
helping and having fun, meeting new people, exchanging experiences	22	37,3
Total	59	100

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study was conducted to find associations between the participation by the international African students at the University of Arkansas in ECAs and their GPAs. The primary hypothesis was that International African students who were least involved in ECAs would scholastically perform better than their peers who were most participative in ECAs. However, the results of this study did not confirm the hypothesis. Furthermore, the first observed independent sample *t*-test's results conducted to find whether there was any difference in the GPAs between international African students at the University of Arkansas who were most involved in ECAs and their less involved peers were not statistically significant, concluding that there was no significant difference in the GPAs between the surveyed international African students at the University of Arkansas who were most involved in ECAs and their less involved peers. Similarly, the second observed independent sample *t*-test's results conducted to find whether there was any difference in the GPAs between the international African students at the University of Arkansas who were involved in sports ECAs and their peers who were involved in non-sports ECAs were insignificant. Therefore, there was no significant difference in the GPAs between both groups.

The qualitative results of this study show that over 74% of the surveyed international African students at the University of Arkansas stated that ECAs had a positive impact on their school achievement; approximately 70% of the surveyed African students at the University disagreed that participation in ECAs had a negative influence on their studying programs. Additionally, over one-third of the participants (37%) reported being involved in ECAs to (a) help and have fun, (b) meet new people, and (b) exchange experiences.

The results of this study, which can be best characterized as — an embedded mixed methods research, — contradict several findings of previous studies. Darling et al. (2005), Eccles et al. (2003), and Moriana et al. (2006), for example, studied the relationship between ECAs, academic performance and adolescent adjustment in secondary and high school students. These researchers found that students who were more involved in ECAs, including sports, had better GPAs or grades. Additionally, Dumais (2006), in her study with kindergarteners, first, second and third graders, found that participation in ECAs provided "gains in reading achievement test scores between first and third grade and third grade teachers' evaluations of mathematics skills…" (p. 177). In a literature review on effects of ECAs and academic achievements, Massoni (2011) reported that students who participated in after-school activities had, among other gains, better grades than their peers who did not

participate in ECAs. However, in this study, no significant difference was found in the GPAs between the students who were most involved in ECAs and their peers who were least involved.

The discrepancy in results between this study and many previous studies on associations between participation in ECAs and academic outcomes (AOs) may be influenced by three main factors: participants' age, the reliability of the reported GPAs, and the sample size. This research was conducted with adult college students who might possess more discretion and life experience for being involved in ECAs compared to the participants in many prior studies, who were mostly kindergarten, elementary, secondary or high school students. In this study, the GPA was self-reported by the participants and the sample size was much smaller in comparison to several previous studies, namely Lipscomb (2007), which involved a national data set.

The findings of this research also contrast the results of earlier studies by Fox et al. (2010) that found a difference in GPA between students who were involved in sports ECAs and their peers who were involved in non-sports ECAs. Fox et al. studied the relationship between physical activities and sports team participation and AOs among secondary and high school students. In their study, they found that students who participated in sports teams had higher GPAs than students who did not participate in sports teams.

The divergence in results between this study and the previous studies by Fox et al. may be related to the fact that most of the previous studies involved high and/or secondary school students who might be engaged in competitive sports, whereas this study involved college students who might participate in sports ECAs for pleasure.

The trends of the study on the surveyed University of Arkansas African students' perceptions of participation in ECAs are similar to the findings of the majority of previous studies in positively associating ECAs with AOs. Over 74% in this study asserted that involvement in ECAs had a positive impact on their academic learning. These perceptions seconded the vast literature on benefits of ECA participation in AOs. Lipscomb (2007), for example, associated secondary school students' participation in ECAs with "a 5 percent increase in Bachelor's degree attainment expectations" (p. 463). Feldman and Matjasko (2005) related structured ECA participation to "positive academic, behavioral, psychological, and young adult outcomes" (p.202). Thus, confirming the previous research results, the majority of the surveyed students in this study perceived that their involvement in ECAs benefited their AOs.

Notwithstanding the majority of the participants of this study associated their involvement in ECAs with favorable school outcomes, approximately 13% of the participants negatively associated their involvement in ECAs with their academic programs. The stance of

example these 13.5% of participants supports a few previous studies. For Lipscomb (2007), for, participation in ECAs may negatively influence AOs, if it sacrifices the time for school work, such as assignments and homework completion, and test preparation. Therefore, this percentage of participants in this study may preclude their participation in ECAs if they think that such involvement takes their time from studying.

The findings of this study on understanding the purposes for the surveyed international African students to participate in ECAs seem to support certain ECA and AO association theories, particularly the social capital model (Broh, 2002). For instance, over one-third of the participants (37.3%) reported that they were involved in ECAs to (a) help and have fun, (b) meet new people, and (c) exchange experiences. These results corroborate the social capital main tenet, which is boosting membership networks and control among people within a community (Broh, 2002). According to Broh (2002), these social networks and the control system generate academic success.

Future Studies and Implications

The researcher recommends future studies to have a more representative sample. Results from a greater sample size would have more external validity and statistical power (Button et al., 2013) than the results from 35.8% of the final sample of this study. Except for the representativeness of the sample, a much larger sample would allow the researcher to explore in-depth certain predictor and outcome variables. For example, in this study, the researcher was interested in finding whether there was a difference in GPA between highly involved participants (those who reported having more than 31 ECA hours) and their less involved peers (those who reported having less than 10 ECA hours). However, the sample size of both groups failed to meet the size requirements (normally more than 30 participants) to conduct a *t*-test (Abbot, 2011).

The findings of this study can be a valuable aid to a variety of professionals, including (but not limited to) educators and advisors, in understanding current international African students at the University of Arkansas and other institutions alike, regarding their involvement in ECAs. Although this study did not find a significant difference in GPA between African students who were most involved in ECAs and their peers who were less involved in ECAs, educators, advisors and other interested professionals may comprehend that several African students at the University of Arkansas were involved in ECAs to certain degree. Additionally, the trends of the surveyed African students' opinions on (1) the associations of their ECAs participation and their academic achievements and (2) why they participate may be insightful for educators, advisors, the ISS, and ICT personnel at the University of Arkansas in order to better orientate prospective African students at the University.

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Toward Living Together: Developing Intercultural Sensitivity Through Arabic Foreign Language Coursework

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ABSTRACT

This paper investigates intercultural sensitivity as an expected outcome of Arabic as a foreign language class in higher education. The study uses a pretest and posttest design to measure the change in 26 students' intercultural sensitivity after a semester of language study. The participants studied elementary level Arabic as a foreign language at an American university in the northeast United States. The Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) was used to measure intercultural sensitivity. No significant difference was found in the students' levels of intercultural sensitivity as measured by the IDI, on average. The students' Arabic instructor was interviewed, and the elementary level Arabic textbook was critically reviewed to understand how students' intercultural sensitivity might be improved; a primary recommendation is given to provide foreign language instructors with further input on incorporating culture into foreign language curriculum.

INTRODUCTION

The influence foreign language education has on enhancing intercultural learning is highlighted by many scholars (Bennett, 1997; Bianco et al, 1999; Byram, 2008; Nussbaum, 1998). In fact, improving the ability to accept cultural differences and live with others who are different from ourselves is identified as one of the major purposes of higher education (Bok, 2009)-- a purpose foreign language education can, and should, play a significant role in achieving. The Delores Report, written for The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) in 1996, suggests that there are four pillars of education: learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together, and learning to be. In his commentary on UNESCO's report, Byram (2008) indicates that living together is the most important pillar of the four "because it is the means of responding to the tensions of contemporary life, tensions between 'the global and the local,' 'the universal and the individual,' 'tradition and modernity'…" (pp. 109–110). Although all fields of education are required to work toward achieving the purpose of living together, foreign language education, in particular, is the most important field that should target this pillar. Foreign language education can help students reflect on their culture and critically think about the differences in realities, values, beliefs, and behaviors among different cultures. It has the ability to make learners realize that differences do exist and that there is more than one perspective of reality; to learn that their way of life is just one way of life, not *the* only way of the life. Byram (2008) argues that foreign language education can help learners to experience what he calls *tertiary socialization*, which means "the ways in which learning a foreign language can take learners beyond a focus on their own society, into experience of otherness, or other cultural beliefs, values and behaviours. That experience can and should give them a better purchase on their previous culturally determined assumptions" (Byram, 2008, p. 29).

Foreign language education should go beyond focusing on communicative skills and include cultural competence. The purpose of foreign language classes should not be just to train learners to communicate successfully with people from different cultures, but also to promote positive attitudes toward cultural differences (Byram, 2008). Indeed, "language education over time has ranged in its various endeavors from the teaching of grammar to the teaching of peace" (Bianco, et al., 1999, p. 13). However, this theoretical confirmation on the importance of using foreign language education to promote positive attitudes toward foreign cultures needs to be visited in real practice. Therefore, the concept of living together

and accepting cultural differences needs to be shaped in a construct that can be defined and measured. Among so many terms, this paper focuses on intercultural sensitivity as an expected outcome of foreign education. To be more specific, this study explores to what extent two sections of Arabic as a foreign language taught at an American university in the northeast United States helped students to improve their intercultural sensitivity.

The following section provides a brief overview of foreign language education in the United States, particularly at the higher education level, in order to provide a baseline understanding of the connection between foreign language education and intercultural learning.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THE AMERICAN HIGHER EDUCATION

More than three decades ago, Senator Paul Simon (1980) wrote an article entitled *"U.S Crisis in Foreign Language,"* which was published in his book, *The Tongue-Tied American*. The titles alone reveal the basis of Senator Simon's argument. His belief, in 1980, was that the U.S. was facing a crisis in terms of foreign language education. He asserted that the country was suffering from a decline in foreign language exposure in high schools and colleges. He wrote, however, that "cultural isolation is a luxury the United States can no longer afford" (p.33, 1980). Sadly, more than three decades after Simon made this argument, it seems that the crisis persists. According to a recent report by the Modern Language Association (Looney & Lusin, 2018), "the total number of language programs [at U.S. colleges and universities] reporting enrollments fell by 651 programs, or 5.3%, between 2013 and 2016" (p.1). The frustrating cuts to higher education language programs made Ben-Ghiat (2019) warn that the Monolingualism "disease" is "spreading throughout American higher education" (para.1). Ben-Ghiat argues that the decline mentioned in the MLA report is good news for those who support racism and xenophobia. She adds "fewer Americans learning foreign languages means more Americans deprived of the openness of mind and understanding of other cultures" (para.6). Because of program cuts and declining enrollment, those language programs that remain face an increasing responsibility to provide students with the intercultural learning they need. In the following sections, the relationship between intercultural sensitivity and foreign languages is discussed theoretically, followed by an exploration of how this relationship manifests in practice by specifically investigating intercultural sensitivity as an expected outcome of an Arabic foreign language course in higher education. This paper then considers how to improve the practice of building intercultural sensitivity through foreign language education in an effort to better meet the theoretical expectations of the field.

Focusing only on the communicative skills in foreign language classes will not only waste the opportunity to improve peace, but also will lead to creating what Bennett (1997) calls *fluent fools*. Fluent fools "may develop negative opinions of the native speakers whose language they understand but whose basic beliefs and values continue to elude them" (p. 16). The danger of ignoring the cultural dimension lies in the fact that language classes could drive negative perceptions instead of promoting positive attitudes toward other cultures. In Bennett's words, foreign language education can and should move learners from ethnocentrism to ethnorelativism; these terms come from Bennett's Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS). DMIS is a continuum that extends from ethnocentrism, "the experience of one's own culture as central to reality," (Bennett, 2004, p. 62) to ethnorelativism, "the experience of one's own beliefs and behaviors as just one organization of reality among many viable possibilities" (Bennett, 2004, p. 62). Each of these major stages has three different phases. Figure 1 illustrates the developmental phases of Bennett's DMIS model. To avoid producing "fluent fools" in language classes, language educators need to make sure that their courses help learners not only to achieve linguistic progress, but also to achieve intercultural progress, moving from ethnocentrism to ethnorelativism, which helps in achieving the "living together" pillar of education discussed above.
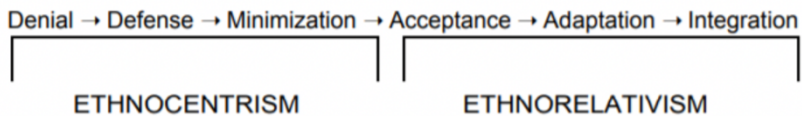
Figure 1. DMIS model. (Bennett, 2004, p. 63).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Language education plays, at least theoretically, a vital role in helping learners improve their intercultural sensitivity. However, to what extent language education actually fulfills this role in real classes is another question. This paper attempts to track the improvement of intercultural sensitivity among students who study Arabic as a foreign language over one semester. This paper tries to then answer the following questions:

1- What is the level of intercultural sensitivity of American students who study Arabic as a foreign language at the beginning of the semester? On average, does intercultural sensitivity improve over the course of one semester of language study?

2- a) How and to what extent do Arabic language teachers' pedagogy integrate aspects of the cultural communities (e.g., textbook, information about traditions, practices, and values) that use the language they teach?

b) Does asking for the teacher's own explanations of changes to their students' IDI scores provide information that explains IDI score differences across foreign language classrooms?

RESEARCH METHOD

To answer the first question, a pretest and posttest design was used. The quantitative study utilized 26 undergraduate students studying elementary level Arabic at an American university for the first time. The student participants came from two course sections, but both sections had the same teacher and curriculum. To collect data, students were asked to complete the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI), once at the beginning and again at the end of their semester of Arabic study (more details about the IDI in the following section). To answer the second question this study poses, the university's Arabic instructor was interviewed, and the Arabic course textbook was analyzed.

Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI)

The Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) is an online 50-item questionnaire based on the Intercultural Development Continuum (IDC), which was adapted from the DMIS discussed above. The validity of the IDI has been proven through extensive psychometric testing (Fantini, 2009; Hammer, 2011; Hammer, Bennett, & Wiseman, 2003; Wiley, 2016, and Wiley, 2017). In his review of all instruments that measure intercultural competence, Fantini (2009) describes the IDI as "a statistically reliable and valid measure of intercultural sensitivity, translated into 12 languages and applicable to people from various cultural backgrounds" (p. 471). Additionally, the IDI is described as "a sound instrument, a satisfactory way of measuring intercultural sensitivity as defined by Bennett" (Paige et al., 2003, p. 485).

IDI Coding

On the IDI, ethnocentric stages include denial, defense, reversal, and minimization. Ethnorelative stages include acceptance and adaptation. According to the IDI, each phase of the intercultural development model begins and ends with a certain score. The following table, Table 1, illustrates where each score belongs on the IDI and the DMIS.

Table 1

IDI Subcategories Scores

	Ethnocentric Stage			Ethnorelative Stage			
DMIS	Denial	Defense	Minimization	Acceptance	Adaptation	Integration
IDI	Denial	Polarization (Defense/ Reversal)	Minimization	Acceptance	Adaptation	Not Measured
Score Range	55 to 69.99	70 to 84.99	85 to 114.99	115 to 129.99	130 to 145	

RESULTS

Quantitative Data

Pretest IDI. Students took the first IDI survey in the second week of fall semester 2017. Students were asked to log in to the IDI website and complete the survey in their Arabic class in order to get the highest possible response rate. As Figure 2 shows, according to the IDI, all of the students were in the ethnocentric stage, with an average score of 85.81 (polarization phase). However, not all students were in the same phase, as three students were in the denial phase. IDI defines denial as "an orientation that likely recognizes more observable cultural differences (e.g., food) but, may not notice deeper cultural differences (e.g., conflict resolution styles), and may avoid or withdraw from cultural differences" (Hammer, 2011, p. 475). 13 students were in the polarization phase, which is "a judgmental orientation that views cultural differences in terms of "us" and "them" (Hammer, 2011, p. 475). Ten students were in the minimization phase, which is "an orientation that highlights cultural commonality and universal values and principles that may also mask deeper recognition and appreciation of cultural differences" (Hammer, 2011, p. 475). To summarize, the IDI was

administrated to 26 students. According to the IDI, all of the students were in the ethnocentric stage divided on the three phases; thee were in the denial phase, 13 in the polarization phase, and 10 in the minimization phase.
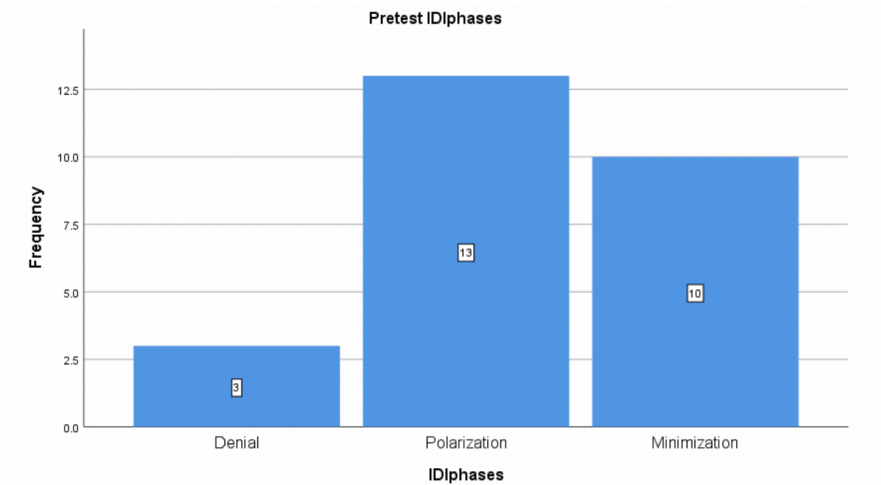
Figure 2. IDI pretest results.

Posttest IDI. The IDI was administrated again at the end of the fall semester 2017. As Figure 3 shows, all of the students were still in the ethnocentric stage, with an average score of 86.12 (polarization phase). However, there was a slight difference in the way students distributed on the three phases of the ethnocentric stage during the posttest. Four students were in the denial phase, eight students were in the polarization phase, and fourteen students were in the minimization phase.
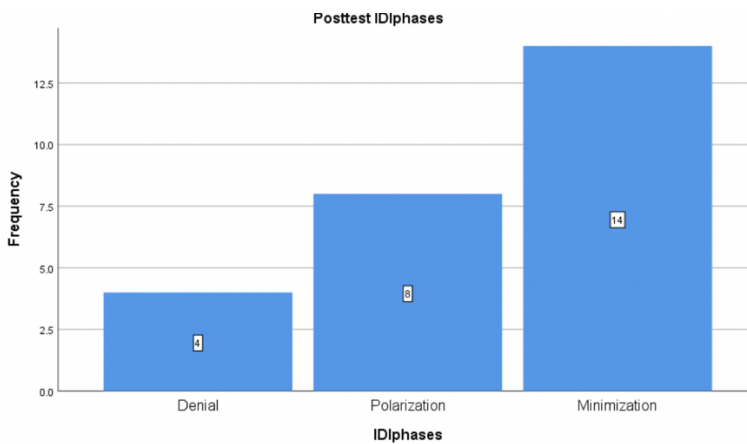
Figure 3. IDI posttest results.

Pretest vs Posttest. The mean pretest score for intercultural sensitivity as measured by the IDI was 85.81, while the mean posttest score was 86.12. These data were subjected to the *t test* for paired samples, with the results showing no statistically significant change (t = 0.18; n = 27; p = .0.85). The effect size was 0.02, which means that the posttest scores were not better than the pretest scores, which indicates that there was no effect size. In other words, there was no significant improvement in students' levels of intercultural sensitivity after one semester of studying Arabic as a foreign language (see Figure 4). To develop a better understanding of factors possibly related to this result, a qualitative method was used to address and answer the second question of this study.
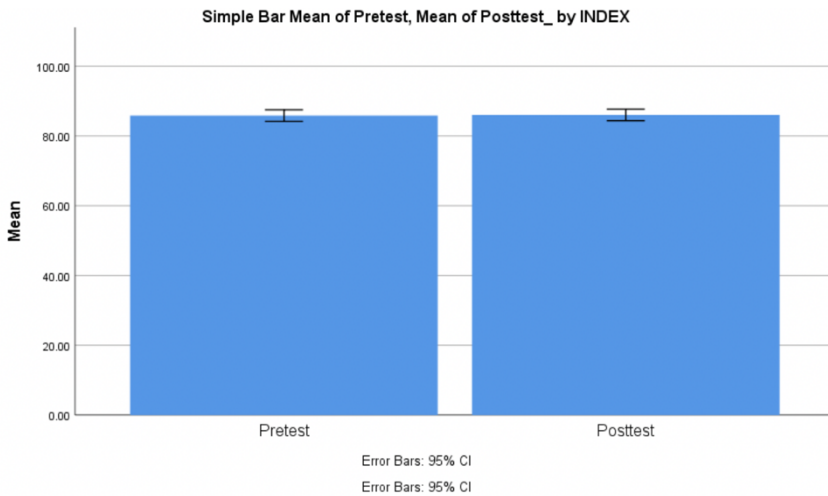
Figure 4. IDI Pretest vs posttest.

Qualitative Data

To answer the second question, the university's Arabic instructor was interviewed. Elementary level Arabic classes met four days a week, 50 minutes every day. The instructor did not provide access to the syllabus or the course objectives for review during this study. However, the instructor did mention that *Alif-Baa: Introduction to Arabic Letters and Sounds* was used as the elementary course textbook. When asked about the skills this instructor focused on in class, the response was "reading, writing, oral comprehension, and speech." When specifically asked about teaching culture, the instructor indicated that they do teach culture, and then moved on to explain how important culture is. However, the instructor indicated

that the cultural portions of the classes are spontaneous and not planned. When asked about how often culture is taught, the instructor responded, "it is really hard to say because there are times [when] the focus is on the culture-- it is probably a third of this one class unit. Sometimes a day goes by when there is a little bit of culture, sometimes a day goes by when there a quite a bit of culture."

When asked about their pedagogy of teaching culture, the instructor indicated that what they do is that they include bits of culture whenever relevant. The instructor said, "sometimes it is in relation to grammar, my own experience depending on whatever we are talking about…. we talk about [religion], we talk about women, we talk about different topics as long as it makes sense to them and is not out of the place." When asked for more clarification, the instructor confirmed that they depend on "explaining" cultural topics to students; "I explain the topic and sometimes I give them my personal experience as an example of that." In addition, the instructor believes that relying on the textbook is not enough for covering cultural topics. The instructor indicated that they go beyond the textbook and uses external material to teach culture. When asked for an example of how far the instructor goes beyond the textbook, they explained, "again, if I am teaching them vocabulary, and if it is applicable, like if I am teaching them the word for 'tea,' I take the advantage of that and start talking about what tea means in this culture." The reported method of teaching culture was verbal explanation of topics that come up spontaneously in the class.

When I shared and explained the IDI reports to the instructor, they seemed perturbed upon review of the students' scores. When presented with the data, the instructor responded by saying "the only explanation I would say is that you don't change people's minds overnight…." The instructor went on to explain that any notable progress would only become evident likely after two or more years of Arabic language study. The instructor also indicated that, despite educators' best efforts, no change or impact in levels of intercultural sensitivity may be achievable for some students even after additional language study.

In conclusion, the verbal explanation of cultural topics that developed spontaneously in class was the dominant mechanism for teaching culture in the elementary level Arabic courses subject to this study. It is worth considering whether or not one semester of foreign language study is enough to achieve progress toward increasing students' intercultural sensitivity-- and if not, how many semesters of study are required for students' IDI scores to reflect an increase.

DISCUSSION

As the results show, significant progress was not made in students' levels of intercultural sensitivity as measured by the IDI over the course of one semester studying Arabic as a foreign language. At the beginning of the semester, students were in the ethnocentric stage, where "the experience of one's own culture as central to reality;" (Bennett, 2004, p. 62) they were found in the same stage at the end of the semester. This means that spending one semester studying Arabic might have failed to meaningfully help students realize that their culture and the way they live their lives is "just one organization of reality among many viable possibilities" (Bennett, 2004, p. 62), i.e. ethnorelativism. This result indicates an urgent need to revisit, re-asses, and re-design the way culture is taught in foreign language classes.

Bennett (1993) stresses the importance of reflection, critical analysis, and comparison. He asserts that putting students in an intercultural experience that does not include reflection, critical analysis, and comparison will not help improve intercultural competence. Students in Arabic courses, or any other foreign language class, must be encouraged to reflect, compare, and critically analyze the cultural differences they interact with. The Arabic instructor interviewed for this study recognized the importance of the cultural component of Arabic coursework; however, the way they taught culture was limited to verbal explanation of certain cultural points whenever they spontaneously came up in class. Verbal presenting of foreign culture is not enough to create positive attitudes toward those who are different from oneself. As a few studies indicated, many language teachers lack the important skill of integrating culture in their courses (Golub, 2014; Meyer, 2007). Hence, limiting teaching culture to verbal presentation may indicate that the language instructors do not have the skills they need to teach culture efficiently.

Besides, the Arabic instructor in this study heavily depended on the course textbook, *Alif-Baa*, which is widely used for elementary level Arabic courses across American universities. The book consists of ten units that introduce students to Arabic letters, sounds, and a few cultural concepts. Each unit has one or more cultural aspect that is presented through explanations in English, photos, videos, etc. The book does not go beyond simply presenting cultural concepts and does not try to encourage students to critically engage with those cultural points. The authors may have preferred to leave this task to the instructors. However, if the instructors do not encourage critical engagement with cultural themes, this will lead to what Byram (2008) calls *weak internationalization*, as it does not go beyond "making the strange familiar" without using culture to cultivate positive attitudes toward the cultural differences. For example, the *Alif-Baa* textbook presents the word for "veil," *hijab*, combined with a picture of a woman

wearing one on page 50. The book asks students to spell the word out and practice writing it in Arabic. American students might have many questions, as well as stereotypes and prejudices, about women wearing hijab, making this an excellent teaching opportunity to encourage students to explore this cultural topic that is so central to Arab life and society, instead of only focusing on how to spell the word out. Without such critical engagement with the topic of women wearing hijab, an instructor may contribute to creating a group of "fluent fools" who "may develop negative opinions of the native speakers whose language they understand but whose basic beliefs and values continue to elude them" (Bennett, 1997, p. 16).

In his discussion of the cultural component of foreign languages textbooks, Byram (1993) sets up a few guidelines to help in textbook design and evaluation. He argues that "learners need to engage actively with alternative interpretations of the world" (p. 33). He goes on to explain that this active engagement can happen through reflections, comparisons, and critical thinking. Introducing an important Arab cultural aspect, like women wearing hijab, should not be limited to just a photo of a veiled woman; rather, it should be accompanied by a strong invitation for students to explore the topic, reflect on it, consider similar traditions in their own cultural history, and compare between the different cultures.

CONCLUSION

The continued outbreak of hate crimes, intolerance, and racism indicates that humans have a serious problem regarding how to live together. Therefore, in UNESCO's report, Delors puts "living together" as one of the pillars of education. Indeed, "if education is not intercultural, it is probably not education, but rather the inculcation of nationalist or religious fundamentalism" (Coulby, 2006, p. 246). Foreign language education can play a significant role in helping learners to accept cultural differences and, hence, learn how to "live together." Foreign language education helps learners to realize that their way of living is not the only way, and it helps students to realize that other cultural groups have different ways of living, different values, different beliefs without judging or looking down at those differences. If foreign language education goes beyond focusing on grammar and communicative functions, students can learn not to judge cultural differences and accept them, which is a remarkable step toward one of the foremost pillars of education-- "living together."

Arabic culture is one of the most underrepresented, mispresented and misunderstood in the West. In theory, Arabic language classes play a vital role in bridging the gap between the West and the Arab world by fixing stereotypes and helping learners to challenge their prejudices. Hence, there is a premise that Arabic classes (and all foreign language classes for that

matter) should be able to help students to improve their intercultural sensitivity and move from ethnocentrism to ethnorelativism. However, this study tested this assumption by studying the levels of intercultural sensitivity of undergraduate students actively studying the Arabic language. Students' levels of intercultural sensitivity were measured by the IDI at the beginning and the end of their semester of elementary level Arabic education in fall 2017. In contrast to the implicit theoretical premise, students' levels of intercultural sensitivity did not, on average, improve over the semester. These unexpected results lead to a deeper study of the pedagogy of the elementary Arabic course. Although the instructor recognized the importance of culture, they did not know how to effectively integrate it in the class. Teaching culture in this course did not go beyond presenting information, either verbally by the instructor, or by the textbook's content, without encouraging students to critically and actively engage with those cultural topics. Obviously, this approach of simply presenting culture without encouraging students to reflect on the topics, comparing those aspects to their own culture, and critically thinking about cultural differences does not help learners progress from ethnocentrism to ethnorelativism, nor does it help learners to accept and not judge cultural differences, which in turn fails to promote intercultural sensitivity. Verbal or written presentation of different cultures does no more than providing students with information; it does not tackle their formally formed stereotypes and prejudices. This study agrees with Meyer (2007) and Golub (2014) and highlights the need for language instructors to have quality in-service training programs that provide them with the knowledge and tools to integrate culture in their curriculum. If language instructors know how to effectively integrate culture in their classes, and if they can go beyond teaching communicative skills, these courses will help learners not only to communicate in the target language, but also to improve positive attitudes toward cultural differences, which will be a powerful step toward achieving the noble educational goal of learning to live together.

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Enhancing International Partnership in the Egyptian Pre-university Education: Perspectives of International Organizations

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this article is to present the perspectives of international officials regarding partnerships between the Egyptian Ministry of Education and international organizations. Data of this article were gathered mainly from semi-structured interviews with twelve officials working for international organizations in Egypt. The article suggests that international organizations working on the pre-university education face serious challenges that undermine their efforts and affects the efficiency of their contributions and initiatives in a very negative way. It concludes with a set of recommendations that may be considered by the Egyptian policy- and decision-makers for enhancing international partnerships in education.

Keywords*:* international aid, international donors, international officials, international organizations, partnership, pre-university education sector.

INTRODUCTION

A partnership in education is an agreement that involves two or more parties who come together for the common good to enhance teaching and learning. True partnerships are characterized by ongoing trust, communication, and respect among the different parties involved (Cox-Peterson, 2011). Partnerships can contribute to innovation, broadening participation in decision-making and complementing public sector resources. However, cultural differences among partners may represent potential barriers to realizing successful partnerships as the wider social, political, and economic setting may influence them (Marriott & Goyder, 2009).

The Egyptian Ministry of Education (MOE) collaborates for decades with international organizations, the United Nations (UN) and international donors, in different areas including pilots, technical assistance, governance and management, decentralization, capacity building and professional development programs, and teachers' training. Those organizations possess and share and implement their successful international experiences, best practices and lessons learnt from different contexts.

The Egyptian pre-university education sector is the largest in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region and among the largest in the world. It is supervised and managed by the central Ministry of Education, while universities and higher education are supervised by the Ministry of Higher Education (World Bank, 2002). In 2018/2019 school year, the sector reported an enrolment of more than 22 million students attending more than 55 thousand schools. It employs more than one million teachers and eight hundred thousand administrators (Ministry of Education, 2019).

The pre-university education sector consists of four hierarchical management levels: The Central Ministry of Education, governorate (Mudiriah), local district (Idara), and school. The Egyptian pre-university education system consists of three levels: Primary, preparatory and secondary. The educational ladder is composed of a six-year primary, a three-year preparatory and a three-year secondary.

This article reviews the perspectives of international organizations' officials regarding partnerships between the MOE and international organizations. Perspectives of those officials represent external voices and inputs on the pre-university education sector. The article addresses the MOE's leaders, policymakers, educational experts and researchers as well as international organizations' officials in Egypt and overseas who are interested in getting a better understanding of the sector in light of the actual expertise and practices of the participants on the ground.

It is composed of the following sections: International Organizations, Method, Findings, Discussion, and Recommendations.

International Organizations

A lot can be understood and learnt about any national education sector by exploring and understanding the perspectives and perceptions of different stakeholders including international organizations and their employees. Those organizations possess power that is based and supported by their funding capacity, political influence, strong capacity and highly qualified staff, information and knowledge, technical expertise, and skills. More details are presented in the following sections.

Revealing the Unrevealed

It is a normal practice that international organizations share their draft reports with senior governmental officials from the host country for two main reasons. The first is to avoid any mistakes that may occur in these reports, especially those related to the names of national organizations, departments, their staff or dates of certain decrees and so on. The second reason is to reach agreeable final versions: national officials may request lightening the criticism, editing, deleting or/and placing more focus on positive aspects than negative ones. That is why these reports tend to present more strengths and fewer weaknesses of national education sectors. Some facts, criticism, interpretation and attitudes cannot be introduced directly; international organizations' reports tend to be very diplomatic and avoid harsh criticism of the host country. Indeed, deeply critical reports may hinder or even prevent current and future cooperation between the host country and international organization.

Powerful Organizations and Robust Influencers

Scholars and studies described international organizations' increasing power and how they significantly, influence and interfere in national policymaking. Increasingly the UN and international donor agencies influence and formulate national policies in different sectors in many ways. For example, Dale and Robertson (2009) argued that "international organizations do not replace national states but create an additional and informal structure of authority and sovereignty besides and beyond the state (through providing) means of communication, socialization, institutionalization and integration" (p. 5).

Since the 1990s, international organizations have widened their scope of action considerably and have undertaken new activities. They may shape,

guide and influence national debates on education and related policy, influence states' aims and goals, and change the structures of education systems. They may introduce performance standards and evaluation mechanisms. They exercise governance as they often employ highly skilled professionals who can provide effective solutions to national problems (Martens, Rusconi and Leuze, 2007).

International organizations influence states in different ways. The transnational exchange of ideas and information can take many forms such as publications, conferences, meetings, and seminars. International organizations influence states to value, adopt and implement certain policies, practices, and structures. They conduct studies for a country's internal use; for international comparison; and for general monitoring. They provide ideas and models for following prescribed practices and influence national policies in many ways (McNeely, 1995).

One important source of influence for international organizations is their use of expertise that resides in their professionals to influence other actors (Finnemore and Sikkink, 1998). Mundy (2007) suggested that "efforts to understand multilateralism usually assume that [international organizations] take on institutional and normative characteristics that in turn play an important steerage role across the systems of national states" (pp.19-20).

National education sectors are complemented by an emerging, expanding and increasingly significant system of transnational influence where international organizations, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), the professions and scientific communities have all formed a system of global influence and engagement (Jones, 2007).

Policymakers and Prescribers

International organizations prescribe national education policies (McNeely, 1995; Resnik, 2006). The World Bank, United Nations Children' Funds (UNICEF), United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and United Nations Development Program (UNDP) particularly played vital roles in designing the world agenda, supported by Development Assistance Committee (DAC) of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development OECD (King, 2007).

Mountsios (2009) suggested that international organizations have become major contributors that determine a country's educational aims, and education policy-making is no longer an exclusive matter to the nation-state. Similarly, Resnik (2006) argued that international organizations are:

The tools of capitalists or vehicles of a consensual world education culture…[who] played a key role, and not merely as transmitters but as actors, in the creation of a world education culture that encouraged educational expansion…[and] whose significance is likely to continue to grow in our global world (pp. 194-195).

International organizations continuously and increasingly guide and influence educational policies in the global North and the South in different ways. Sahlberg (2009) stated that "International organizations have been instrumental in profiling national education policies and financing the implementation of education reforms, not only in the developing world but also in the industrial nations" (p. 8).

Strong Capacity and Presence in Egypt

The United Nations system in Egypt is represented by 24 UN and UN-affiliated agencies (United Nations, 2005):

The UN is expected to work less on direct program implementation and increase its work in the areas of upstream policy advice, advocacy and capacity development, drawing on its strong and varied country presence, healthy mix of international managers and highly-capable national professionals with local knowledge that is backed by regional and international expertise (United Nations, 2013, 15).

As for international donors, the Development Partnership Group (DPG) brings together 20 bilateral and 19 multilateral organizations. When a country participates with more than one member in the DPG, it is only counted as a single country; for example, the Japanese embassy and JICA (United Nations, 2013).

Since the 1970's, Egypt has received international aid totalling tens of billions of dollars from the UN and international donor organizations, bilateral and multilateral, including United Nations Development Program (UNDP), United States Agency for International Development (USAID), European Union (EU) and from countries such as Canada, Japan and Germany as well as the Gulf states (Amin, 2014).

For two decades after signing the Camp David Accords in 1978, Egypt has topped the lists of development assistance recipients and was only second to Israel in receiving aid from USAID. Egypt, however, is described as "the black hole of development assistance" (Sayed, 2006, 1).

The American government promised Egyptians and Israelis significant financial support as a contribution to assist in developing their countries (Rugh, 2012). Egypt attracted large amounts of foreign development

assistance because of its strategic importance, its key role in the peace process in the Middle East, and its cultural influence on neighbouring countries (Sayed, 2005).

The most obvious factor in Egypt's experience with aid is politics, not economics (Handoussa, 1991). The country's strategic location, large population, and military strength have made it the leading power in the Arab World and positioned it at a critical point in the larger superpower competition. Cairo hosts representatives of almost all bilateral and multilateral development organizations. More than forty bilateral and multilateral donor organizations provide assistance to Egypt (World Bank, 2001).

According to Sayed (2006), "The Government of Egypt and foreign development assistance agencies identify education as a crucial agent of internal and political stability. Therefore, both the state and international organizations together with liberal donors have mobilized significant resources and activities" (p. 144).

METHOD

This article builds on qualitative data gathered mainly for my PhD thesis on enhancing governance and management of the pre-university education in Egypt. Data were gathered from semi-structured interviews conducted in 2016 with twelve officials working for international organizations, three from UN organizations and nine from international donor agencies; ten with an Egyptian background, one European and one Asian; seven women and five men whose focus is the pre-university education sector in Egypt. They had received educational credentials of high quality. All of them had at least a master's degree; 50% had completed their doctoral degrees at western universities; and four of them held the rank of a university professor.

Several approaches were used to recruit interviewees to participate in this study. One approach was the exploration of international organizations' websites, where applicable, to obtain candidates' contacts. The invitational emails asked potential interviewees to nominate other candidates to participate. Additionally, I sought the support of my professional and academic networks for nominating potential candidates and asked interviewees at the end of every interview session to nominate other candidates. At the time of data collection, international organizations avoided to get involved in large-scale programs and their preference to work on specific small projects or even totally withdraw. That led to a decline in the

numbers of officials working for those organizations who constitute the population of this study.

Ten interviews were conducted in participants' offices at their convenient times. One participant requested that the interview to be held outside his office and confirmed that his inputs cannot be perceived as the official ones of his organization. Another interview was conducted over the phone based on a participant's request due to an emergent medical condition. All interviews took place in Cairo except for one that was conducted in Upper Egypt.

The sequence of interview questions was not always the same in each interview (Appendix A). In many cases participants jumped to cover certain areas even before they were asked, probably for moving to other themes they felt more comfortable talking about or for avoiding discussing certain issues in more details. This meant I skipped over later questions that were related to areas already covered by interviewees. Each interview took around one hour.

For confidentiality, names of the participants were changed in a systematic way without any reference to their real names, identifying information or their organizations of affiliation (See Appendix B). After transcribing the interviews, transcripts were then sent back to participants to check for validity and verification. A final version of the transcripts was reached in the light of the received feedback.

FINDINGS

Data collected on the theme of partnership were categorized into the following themes: Uncertainty; A Real Partnership? Partnership Launch and Mutual Interests; Organizations' Interests and Ready-made Solutions; The Driver's Seat; and International Partnership Challenges.

Participants tended to be more knowledgeable and focused on certain areas or aspects of the pre-university education sector than others. Those areas are probably their organizations' focus, their own areas of education or professional specialization. This was predicted while sharing their own views and thoughts on very broad topic such as governance which is the product and reflection of complicated factors, aspects and processes within the dynamic political, social, economic, managerial and administrative context of the country.

Uncertainty

It was confirmed repeatedly that international organizations in Egypt were then hesitant and they avoided getting involved in major programs. Adam, for example, said: "International organizations in Egypt, during this

period of time, are hesitant to take initiatives. They prefer to work on very limited, very specific problems and activities rather than expanding and working on long-term plans. That is what happening currently".

Adam referred particularly to the USAID, the major donor to the Egyptian pre-university education sector for many years indicating that the USAID reduced significantly its contributions to the education sector after the 2011 revolution. Adam stated that: "There was the revolution and the role of the USAID in the MOE was very limited; focusing only on one of the projects serving girls' education".

Jack suggested that international organizations are willing, eager and feel responsible for supporting reforms in the pre-university education sector. However, they are interested to see more positive tangible results for their efforts. Jack explained:

> The minute you provide an opportunity for doing something that is successful, you will find that donors will lavish these experiences and want to replicate them. So, donors are willing to invest more if they can see the benefits of their investments. I think donors are willing to invest because they feel there is a responsibility to invest in the education system of the country, but they need to see the results. They need to see there are good examples where they can be invited to invest.

A Real Partnership?

According to most participants, cooperation between the MOE and international organizations cannot even be described as a partnership. They described it as being unsuccessful, ineffective and inefficient. However, as suggested by Adam, the MOE has to continue working with its international partners for realizing a better education sector.

According to Mary, for example: "The picture I am giving is not a bright one, but we still have hope and we are still working with the Ministry of Education because there must be a reform. There is no other way".

Adam suggested that pre-university education represents the preferable sector for a lot of international organizations, and it has a history of partnerships with UN and international donor organizations since the seventies. That long and rich history of partnership enabled the staff at the MOE to develop the required culture and necessary skills to deal with international partners.

Adam explained:

> The Ministry of Education used to have the lion's share of international economic assistance to Egypt. The USAID, the World Bank, UNICEF,

UNESCO, European Commission used to work with the Ministry. I think the staff of the Ministry of Education has the culture of dealing with international donors because this experience started in 1970s in Egypt.

Suzanne indicated that there is a paradigm shift of attitudes within the education sector towards cooperation and partnership with international organizations compared to the past when the MOE and its staff used to deny that the sector suffered from any challenges. For Suzanne:

Recently, they have good relations and projects. Because they changed attitudes that "we do not have any problems". Before 2000s, we used to talk to the Ministry of Education, and they said we do not have any problems. Our curriculums are up-graded; our teachers are Ok.; our students are excellent. After that they said: "We know we have problems and the whole attitude changed".

However, to what extent can cooperation between the MOE and international organizations be considered as a real partnership? Mary, for example, indicated that cooperation cannot be described as a real partnership, but it is rather a donor-recipient relationship. She stated:

They do not partner with international organizations. All the organizations working around the Ministry of Education. This is not a partnership. This is a donor-recipient relationship. On the documents of donors, we will have the word "partnership" and all the documents of the Ministry of Education have a lot of the word "partnership". But what happens is not a real partnership.

Partnership Launch and Mutual Interests

According to all participants, partnership between the MOE and international organizations can be started in two ways. First, it is probably launched as an initiative taken by international organizations when they offer to support the MOE or the pre-university education sector in a certain area(s) that have to be approved initially by the Egyptian Government. Second, sometimes it can be initiated by the MOE through requesting the support of international partners in area(s) such as pilots, capacity building, and/or technical assistance.

Peter confirmed there are two pathways to the launch of partnership between the MOE and its international partners. He suggested that:

There are two ways in which these projects or programs come up. Sometimes international organizations or the Ministry have an idea

they really care about … Our side suggests the idea to the Ministry of International Cooperation, and also shares this idea with the line Ministry; which in this case is the Ministry of Education. They always can say "we want it" or "we do not want it". The other path that can be taken is that the Ministry itself requests something through government consultations and government negotiations through bilateral meetings that take place between the representatives of the embassy and the Ministry of International Cooperation. Maybe also other Ministries are involved.

Peter stated that partnership between the MOE and international organizations can start as an offer from the organizations or as a request of the MOE itself. However, he suggested that it is always up to the MOE to accept or refuse a certain program or project. For Peter:

It is a mixture of both, but it has to be a mutual agreement because we rely on the cooperation with our partner in order to implement. If the partner, the state, is not interested in a particular program, they block it. They really do block it. So, it is not conducive for us to try to implement something that has not been agreed with the partners.

Jack suggested that partnerships are not imposed but coordinated when he explained:

International donors avail opportunities for the Ministry of Education to gain from funding. There is a gear towards certain elements donors see in need of support and this is not happening except when the Ministry agrees to such support. So, if there is a mutual interest between donors and the Ministry of Education to provide support in a certain area, I think it is a mutual benefit for the Ministry to accept this support as long it is something that the Ministry is interested in and as long there is an agreement from donors and the Ministry that this area is something that would help both. I think, at least from my own experience, this has been successful so far. Because donors come in and point out a certain issue or a certain problem that they would like to finance and support in. At the same time, the Ministry agrees and that gets to be an opportunity for both to cooperate on a mutually beneficial opportunity.

Organizations' Interests and Ready-made Solutions

Sarah argued that it is true that international organizations do have their own interests and they probably come with their own initiatives.

However, the MOE can still benefit from those organizations and their experiences in areas where the MOE needs their support. Those areas can be the base of tailoring and starting programs and projects that match the mutual interests of both parties as Sarah explained:

> One donor may say: "I am interested in increasing the access of out of school children; those who are excluded. We would like to get them back into the system". Another may say: "We would like to work on early childhood education, children age 4 and 5. That is my target". I have not seen any of the projects that I came across during my experience that does not match by one way or another one of the educational priorities. When you start doing the planning of it, how you do it and how you can make the best use of the available resources. You would have two things: Sometimes you would have a priority you want to go for and sometimes you would have an opportunity you need to take.

Sarah, however, suggested that it is still the responsibility of the Egyptian Government and the MOE to identify their educational priorities. This is important so that international organizations can work on areas that fit with their interests and at the same time fulfill the country' educational priorities and needs. Sarah stated:

> Putting forward priorities is the responsibility of the Government and the Ministry of Education … and that is the importance of the strategic plan with its proper budget. When you have that in place and you do the proper awareness around that and you market it, then you are putting your priorities forward. So, when any international organization comes, they will match their interests with the priorities that will guide them.

Adam stated that international organizations normally introduce ready-made solutions based on their experiences gained through conducting research, implementing programs, projects and reforms in different contexts. They possess knowledge, technical assistance and well-qualified and highly trained human resources that enable them to develop and share success stories, identify best practices, realize different sorts of challenges, design and tailor solutions to those specific challenges. Adam explained:

> The fact that international organizations have ready-made solutions for main issues, the answer is: "Yes". Why yes? Because international organizations work in different countries. They are implementing different initiatives in different countries. They have many successful

stories. Some actions or procedures succeeded in a number of countries, so they prefer to scale up these initiatives specially if they are proven to be successful.

Adam suggested that with strong leadership and capacity at the MOE, ready-made solutions can be put into a context and be well utilized in the Egyptian settings. However, he agreed that ready-made solutions have their own negative impacts that affect partnership negatively when the recipient country lacks strengths to play the role of a true partner.

For Adam:

If the government or the Ministry of Education is strong, it will be able to contextualize these ready-made solutions and tailor them to work within the Egyptian environment and based on priorities of the government itself. Contextualization should not destroy these initiatives. We talk a lot about Egyptian environment, and Egyptian privacy. We need to be sure that these solutions are sufficient and are adequate to deal with our issues, but at the same time we should not actually distort these interventions under the claim that we have our own culture and we have our own privacy. Because at the end of the day, and currently, we are talking about globally approved or globally agreed upon solutions for specific problems. So, we do not have to reinvent the wheel. Some solutions are already experienced in a number of countries and give good results, so we have to adopt them. Some solutions we need to contextualize. Again, if the counterpart is not strong, the negative impacts of that kind of ready-made solutions, I think, are bad.

Taking the Egyptian political, social and economic context into consideration is not only crucial but an essential requirement for enabling educational reforms in collaboration with international organizations. However, there should be no extra exaggeration or emphasis on the uniqueness of the national context that may undermine international partners' contributions and efforts.

Mary agreed that international organizations normally approach national governments with ready-made solutions in the light of their intensive research, studies and their strong expertise in different contexts. However, the MOE still has the right to accept or decline those solutions as

Mary explained:

Yes, [International Organizations] do come with ideas. They do situation analysis. They come with comprehensive studies and research; the USAID, the World Bank and UNICEF, name it. When they come, they negotiate with the Ministry. The first strategic plan has made it a little easier, but the second strategic plan is really very bad. The Ministry has priorities, then, there is negotiation. So, it is a combination. I come with good ideas because I have done a lot of research, then I negotiate it with you. Usually they come with orientation. For instance, an organization will come and say: "I want to work on early childhood". So, they come to the Ministry with this suggestion because they have the capacity to help; they have money for this, and they have the experience. When they negotiate with the Ministry, the Ministry probably says: "It is a good idea. Let's work together on early childhood".

The Driver's Seat

The driver's seat is used frequently in the literature on international partnership and international aid. For example, Riddell (2008) suggested that "the donors continue to do their own thing, and the government does not care to be in the driver's seat" (p. 15). It is a metaphor used to refer to the party that takes and possesses leadership in a partnership. Leadership is taken, not granted. So, if the MOE wants to sit in the driver's seat, there is a set of prerequisites that should be realized including the availability of effective leadership, a sound and reliable strategic plan that reflects the real priorities and needs of the education sector, and strong highly-qualified and well-trained capacity at all management levels.

Mary argued that leadership of the MOE is very limited to accepting or declining programs and projects proposed by international organizations. However, unfortunately, it does not actually possess real leadership to lead initiatives and activities implemented by international organizations. She continued:

That is what we hoped for. This is exactly what we have been telling them when we started the idea of the strategic plan. Do the strategic plan and be in the Driver's Seat. The Ministry of Education is in the Driver's Seat in the sense that it can approve or disapprove, what donors are doing. It can approve or disapprove a program. But in the Driver's Seat in the sense that it is leading the reform or leading the program, No".

Mary justified the inability of the MOE to sit in the driver's seat because it lacks effective capacity to take leadership. She clarified that international organizations' capacity is significantly stronger than that of the MOE, consequently, those organizations take the lead:

> To be in the Driver's Seat, you have to be in control, right? How can you be in control if you do not have a monitoring and evaluation system? How can you be in control if you do not have the capacity to analyse data? The Ministry does not have these. How can you be in control? Donors have all these capacities, so they are in control of programs from A to Z. They need the help of the Ministry. They need the approval of the Ministry. The Ministry is in the Driver's Seat when the Minister says: "I approve this program" or "I do not approve". But through implementing, it becomes very difficult for the Ministry. The Ministry is like shadowing the implementation. So, the program is implemented, and the Ministry is shadowing and mostly, unfortunately, donors like this shadowing because the Ministry can then facilitate the implementation. But this does not mean sitting in the Driver's Seat. It is facilitation. The capacity of donors is way way higher than the capacity of the Ministry.

International Partnership Challenges

There are many challenges that hinder the effective partnership between the MOE and international organizations in the pre-university education sector. Some of the challenges raised by the participants are presented as follows:

Lack of a Clear Vision and Effective Strategy. Lack of a clear vision and effective strategy is among the most serious challenges facing the education sector in general and its partnership with international organizations in particular. Adam argues that having a clear vision can enable the MOE to cooperate with international organizations in a more effective and efficient way. If the MOE does not possess a well-defined agenda, then it has to implement the agendas offered by its international partners. In other words, if the MOE does not have clear priorities, goals, and objectives, international organizations do.

Adam explained:

> Having a clear vision regarding the future, regarding their plans, I think that is the milestone and the bone. It is a key issue. A cornerstone is to have a kind of vision, clear vision and clear policies, and

implementation plan. Based on that, you will be able to deal with international donors. Rather than that you are working on the agenda of international donors. You accept the projects they provide. There is no doubt that some of them are very useful, but it is very important and efficient to make all the work of these international organizations supporting the Government.

Mary stated that a sound strategic education plan is a crucial but missing pillar of effective partnership with international organizations. She confirmed there are opportunities and possibilities for realizing more effective partnerships between the MOE and international organizations as there are joint work-teams composed by both parties. She suggested that international organizations, on the contrary to the education sector, work and report in a very systematic way:

> Partnership means the Ministry of Education should develop a sound strategic plan and should call the donors to come in and to take their partnership roles. So, all donors work together as a team in a partnership with the Ministry in order to execute a strategic plan. This never happened. It never happened. Donors come with their money and they have their own system for reporting, their own system for disbursing funds. They have a results framework. They work very systematically. So, at the macro level, there is no partnership.

Ramzy in this regard stated:

> You do not have a strategy, you do not have a plan. It is not sustained. What is happening is the EU comes and says we want to be your partner in girls' education in Egypt. You say: "Okay". They have a project and work, then they go… At the Ministry of Education, it is supposed that the minister changes, but the strategy is there, but unfortunately the minister changes and the strategy as well. That is happening within the sector. The other thing is planning. It is a sort of a personal interest that every minister wants to produce his own plan and says: "that is my document, or this is my plan" and so on. The result is that is the worst case of efficiency and that is why we are all the time starting from the very beginning.

Mistrust. There is low trust between international organizations and recipient governments. International organizations often fear that aid will not be managed appropriately by national governments because of the lack of adequate policy or effective management. Recipient governments often distrust international organizations because of unpredictable aid flows

including short-term, variability, changes in conditionalities, unreliable disbursement or even suspensions (Amis & Green, 2002).

Peter confirmed the state of lack of trust between the MOE and international organizations, which can be observed particularly during certain activities such as conducting studies or entering schools indicating that international organizations cannot even do what they should because of certain security measures.

Peter shared:

I feel a lack of trust which is very unpleasant for us because that is the basis for work. We need a lot of security clearances specially to do studies, we try to do evidence-based decision-making. It is very difficult to enter schools these days. You need to go through the whole security apparatus. Sometimes, we need security clearance for us. Sometimes, we do not go to places because we do not get the clearance even if we ask for it quite some time in advance. The other aspect is that sometimes some members of the Ministry are reluctant to share information with us that we need in order to carry out things they ask us to do. Sometimes there is a request from the Ministry with very superficial information, which is not enough for us to carry out the task properly. So, we find ourselves in a locked-up situation. We say: "Okay. But we need this information to carry out the process". They say: "No. That information is not of your business". We say: "Okay. But we cannot do things" and they say: "Why not?"

Peter suggested that the lack of trust between the MOE and its international partners negatively affects the quality of cooperation in different ways. That is not only because of the lack of information and reluctance of MOE leaders and staff to share information and data they need for their work, but also because of the impact of frustration they feel for not being trusted by their partner.

Peter explained:

These situations are a bit frustrating. Another big issue is the lack of moderation between the Ministry and different international organizations. It is extremely important that the line-ministry that is hosting all these international development organizations, takes ownership and leadership for the work that is being carried out.

Lack of Efficiency. According to all participants, partnerships between the MOE and international organizations are inefficient. Funds are not always

spent in a wise way, which leads to a waste of resources in a country that already suffers from a tight education budget. Aid delivered to the education sector through partnerships with international organizations can absolutely be utilized and maximized in a much more efficient way.

Though Adam agreed that the education sector receives a significant share of international assistance to Egypt, he raised a lot of doubts regarding the efficient utilization of resources allocated by international organizations. Adam suggested this is due to the inability of the Government of Egypt and national authorities, to maximize the impact of international aid to realize real significant changes within the education sector.

In Adam's words:

> To which extent that was efficient? And to which extent the Government of Egypt or the Ministry of Education uses that assistance to realize breakthroughs in the pre-university education sector? This is I think quite low. Based on my experience, I think the most efficient initiative that included most of these donors was the preparation of the pre-university strategy in year 2007 because at this time there was good leadership at the Ministry of Education and most of these international organizations contributed in a way or another to the development of this strategy.

Relatedly, Mark stated that:

> Honestly the outputs of the programs, I can say are less than the cost of the programs. I believe that a large percentage of finance is misused in terms of spending, holding all these luxuries, and using SUV cars. I believe it needs to be managed a little bit.

One example of the lack of efficiency of using international aid to Egypt is the concentration of different international organizations on providing trainings. Pratt (2002) suggested that donors in Egypt focus on training, as it is the easiest thing they can do in the absence of a unified clear plan.

Mark critically presented a similar argument stating that:

> [Training] is also the quickest thing to do. It does not need so much effort and honestly you cannot measure accurately the impact of such trainings. We did that and that and that. Our impact is that and that and that. But you cannot know what is going into the education sector after all these training programs.

Frequently, bilateral donor agencies organize a wide range of trainings in five-star hotels for teachers and administrators from different levels. The teachers and administrators are then invited from all over the country to one of the tourist or resort cities to attend their trainings – an extremely costly process. The same quality training can be organized with much less cost if organized in one of the MOE's training facilities such as the Education City or through the Video-Conference Network. However, it is important to ask if those training programs really contribute to enhancing the education sector and improving its performance.

Lack of Capacity. Suzanne clarified that lack of strong capacity is a serious challenge that affects negatively partnership between the MOE and its international partners. It is a phenomenon that is observed within the education sector as well as other public sectors in Egypt:

> For example, how many projects does the Ministry of International Cooperation have on education? Do they have somebody in the Ministry of International Cooperation that can assess a project on education? They do not have. But they approve the projects. The problem is that people responsible for the projects are with no specific expertise except for monitoring the funding money. The issue is not money. The issue is the goals, implementation mechanisms, indicators. They do not have indicators. Who is approving these projects and who is monitoring? Who is locally or nationally monitoring these projects?

Jack stated that building capacity of the education sector will impact its performance in a very quick and positive way when he said:

> Again, I will repeat this. Building the capacity at different levels. I think the minute you do this, there will be better service delivery. There will be better management. It is not the same capacity at all levels. You build different capacities at different levels and for different individuals.

Mary suggested that international organizations should continue their efforts in building the education sector' capacity stating that without building the national capacity, no reform can be sustained. She explained: "What donors should do and have been doing is building the capacity of the Ministry of Education. This is what donors can do. Building capacity to scale up successful pilots".

Lack of Sustainability. Sustainability has seldom been realized after project implementation. International assistance was often based on scattered projects

entirely led by donors with the lack of strong support at the national level. That is why projects often failed to be sustained once donor support was withdrawn (West, 2004). Initiatives supported by international organizations worldwide cannot be sustained once those organizations decide to terminate their projects or programs because of the lack of leadership, required resources and capacity at the national level.

Mark suggested that the MOE and the whole sector should take more responsibilities and make more contributions to projects supported by international organizations to ensure sustainability. Those responsibilities and contributions should not be limited to negotiations or discussions, but they should be expanded to include projects' implementation.

Mark said:

> I believe all donors' projects should not only be discussed but also implemented by the education people themselves … If you have a project and comes down with specific targets, and the money is gone, the project is gone. It is going to collapse after that: No sustainability or continuity.

Mary presented a very similar argument that projects conducted with international organizations are limited to where they are implemented and cannot be expanded or mainstreamed. Normally, that is because of the lack of ownership from national authorities towards those projects. For Mary:

> At the micro level, when I talk about projects at the district or school levels, partnerships are possible. Because you have teams working together. You have Egyptian and foreign experts working together in a close relationship with the Ministry people, with school leaders, with teachers. It works. But if it is a partnership, there must be a mutual trust, respect, contribution, sharing, and empowerment. However, when you work at that level and you can achieve wonderful results, it stays at that level. And if it stays in that level, it is not institutionalized. Your achievement does not become part of the system.

The Lack of sustainability and the inability of mainstreaming international projects represent common pitfalls of international projects. That is why Ratcliffe and Macrae (1999) referred to international projects as *islands of excellence.*

Duplication and Conflicts. Peter suggested that the MOE is partially responsible for the duplication of international efforts as it opens the door fully for those organizations when they are interested in funding a certain

project or program regardless of what the sector's actual priorities and needs are. International organizations also take partial responsibilities for duplication due to the lack of coordination among them that sometimes reaches the level of a conflict or even a collision. Peter described the situation as follow:

> We see the Ministry here says: "Okay. whatever. You know everyone comes, everyone brings money. So, do whatever you want". And that will lead to duplication of work and collisions with other agencies. Unfortunately, this is also related to the setup of international organizations. Sometimes, they have the interest to carry out a particular program and do not coordinate with other agencies. Even if there is another organization that is doing almost the same, they say: "Hey, I have my orders, so I will implement". The only entity that can really stop that type of very inefficient work is the host government that says: "Nobody is going to do that because we already have people here and we like their approach. There is no need for another agency with a different approach. Sorry, this topic is covered. However, we still have these areas, join in if you like".

Nancy confirmed the lack of coordination among international organizations working within the sector. She stated:

> There is a lack of partnership … Development partner should share best practices with the Ministry of Education and join efforts to better coordinate their initiatives in an effort to avoid duplications.

Peter suggested that effective leadership at the MOE level is essentially required to reduce duplication of international organizations' efforts that probably will continue to exist because of the complicated environment where they work, which is not limited only to Egypt.

Peter said:

> A strong assertive leadership is needed. Even currently the situation improved a lot but still there are some situations in which one agency is working in a school and then has to leave the school because a new agency comes and sets up something completely different that relates to the same topic. I guess there is always going to be some sort of friction in this environment which is very complex.

Mariam stressed the fact that in Egypt there is an obvious competition rather than coordination, cooperation and partnership among international organizations working in the pre-university education sector which negatively

affects those organizations' contributions. Enhancing coordination among international partners can maximize their efforts and impacts on the education sector. Sandy suggested that the lack of leadership at the MOE is a crucial factor that negatively affects the coordination and partnership among different international organizations as well as their efforts and contributions to the sector.

Bureaucracy. UNESCO (2008) called for a change in the organizational and management culture in the MOE, stressing the importance of moving away from traditional management practices towards new ways of doing things. Mary suggested that the bureaucratic environment within the education sector represents a real challenge to international organizations. Within the education sector, there is heavy bureaucracy and there is a tendency of educational leaders not to take any decision before getting the approval of their seniors in the hierarchy. Mary said:

> The Ministry of Education is a very difficult place to work with. If you get caught in bureaucracy or in the system, you cannot do anything. So, donors' strategy is to stay out as much as they can, help the Ministry, and focus on one aspect or another.

Mary described the environment within the MOE as being highly bureaucratic and very contradictory to that of its international counterparts. Indeed, international organizations adopt more advanced management systems and apply systematic monitoring and evaluation approaches so that they can report to their headquarters. Mary explained:

> It is very complex and complicated in the Ministry of Education; very complicated. It is very difficult to work in a close partnership. Plus, donors work in a very systematic fashion, results framework, monitoring and evaluation which the Ministry does not have. They disburse money, a lot of money that has to be reported and be accounted for.

Most policymaking and/or decision-making committees are characterized by a bureaucratic style and their members are usually appointed, not elected (El-Baradei and El-Baradei, 2004). Members of those committees are appointed by the Minister himself or his advisors, and consequently their loyalties are normally to those who have appointed them, and their continuity can be guaranteed by working towards the agendas and objectives settled and supported by those in authority. Sometimes, they find themselves in a situation where they either cope or leave (United Nations, 2001).

Project Implementation Contracts. Peter stated that there is normally a Project Implementation Contract signed by Egyptian authorities and international organizations after reaching a concrete agreement regarding the implementation of a certain program or project. That contract identifies responsibilities of the different parties and serves as the legal framework for their partnership. Peter suggested that the contract acts as the base of international organizations' work and presents regulations of partnership. He said:

> In Egypt, it requires a so-called Project Implementation Contract, which is a binding contract signed by both parties. It mentions the activities, the people, the indicators and the contributions of both sides. This contract is the legal base that allows us to work here, to operate here. Usually, it also includes things and regulations like where we will be working. Usually, it is the hosting Ministry that provides the premises of the project.

Peter, however, indicated there are some occasions when Egyptian authorities agree to certain projects, but do so without signing the contract. He explained it is a difficult situation that organizations always try to avoid:

> There are some projects that do not get these Project Implementation Contracts signed. Maybe there is a broad consensus of the two parties that maybe a program in this area should be implemented, but when it comes to the actual signature of the Project Implementation Contract, sometimes the Egyptian side decides not to sign which puts us in a very difficult position. Because then, at any point, there is no legal basis for us to work. Sometimes, we arrive to the country before these things are signed because we have to plan in advance. People have to be hired. They have to have a place to live, but if you have no legal base to work, the partner, the Ministry, the government could say at any point: "What are you doing here? You are not allowed to be here under this program design, please leave". So, this is of course to us very dangerous. This is a situation that we really try to avoid.

DISCUSSION

Cooperation between the MOE and international organizations should imply a win-win situation for all parties. International organizations are not charities that donate their funds without considering their own interests and returns. Thus, partnership is sparked when mutual interests meet.

This argument can be supported by the fact that there are many examples when more developed countries get more assistance than other countries who suffer from worse economic conditions and demonstrate more need for international aid. The situation in Egypt provides evidence for this point. Egypt is categorized by the World Bank as a medium income country, yet as it has remained among top recipient countries of international aid since the seventies for strategic reasons.

Egypt's January 2011 and June 2013 uprisings contributed to creating a new political and socio-economic context that provided an environment of uncertainty for international organizations and institutions that have supported Egypt over the past four decades (Amin, 2014). Most of the study participants are not satisfied with the current level of cooperation between the MOE and its international partners. Though the image of this partnership seems to be gloomy, it still represents an open window for enhancing the education sector and improving its performance.

Following the revolution of 2011 this is still a time of instability and uncertainty. The state of political, economic and social instability has affected international organizations' contributions to the education sector. International organizations normally contribute to programs and projects that probably lead to positive, concrete and significant impacts. However, in times of uncertainty those impacts cannot always be realized.

Developing a clear vision and a sound strategic plan can help the MOE realize a more effective and efficient partnership with international partners and maximize the impact of international aid. I argue that because the MOE does not have a realistic and effective strategy to determine clear priorities, it does not have the capacity to invite different stakeholders, including international organizations, to contribute to the implementation of certain programs and projects of that strategy and fill in its gaps. Thus, partnership is often initiated by international organizations who offer to support the education sector in areas of their own interest. Unfortunately, in such situations with international partners, the MOE continues to adopt its passive attitude.

The lack of an effective strategic plan for the pre-university education sector simply means that it cannot accurately identify its top priorities, estimate the required resources to realize certain goals, or determine challenging areas that need urgent interventions. At the same time, it opens the door for international organizations to be in the driver's seat, bring their own agendas and introduce ready-made solutions based on their own

priorities and interests instead of responding and supporting the actual priorities, goals, objectives and needs of the sector.

Because of its low salaries, the education sector witnesses a continuous leakage of its strong capacity; especially those who hold graduate degrees or/and advanced professional development programs as they are typically absorbed by international organizations, NGOs or other recruiters that can better reward their experiences. Well-qualified and highly trained staff may leave the education sector for better opportunities within Egypt or oversees. It is a vicious cycle of brain-drain, continuous wastage and significant inefficiency.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations may be considered by the Egyptian Government and the MOE to enhance partnerships with international organizations and maximize their impacts on the pre-university education sector. Realizing better partnerships with international organizations within the pre-university education sector is not and cannot be the responsibility of the MOE alone. It is the responsibility and duty of all national stakeholders and authorities. Cooperating effectively and efficiently with international organizations need a lot of coordination and efforts from ministries and organizations such as the Ministry of Investment and International Cooperation, the Ministry of Finance and the Ministry of Interior.

1. **Supporting international partners to contribute to the education sector in a more** effective way through developing a framework of partnership, enhancing mutual trust and understanding, and reducing their challenges to enhance the impact of their contributions.

2. **Reducing and accelerating security procedures imposed on employees of** international organizations whenever possible**.** Such procedures constitute a serious challenge facing national and international organizations, their projects and efficiency as they consume a lot of their time and efforts and cause their frustration.

3. **Improving availability, flow, access and sharing of statistics, data, and information for enhancing partnership.** This should be undertaken with different stakeholders, to build trust, enhance their contributions to the sector, and improve the quality of their decisions.

4. **Inviting and encouraging international partners to contribute to the education sector** in areas where their assistance is really required

according to a sound strategic plan that can determine accurately and effectively the gaps where assistance is needed.

5. **Realizing real partnership rather than a donor-recipient relationship.** If the MOE wants to move forward in this direction, it should develop its clear vision, applicable strategic plan and strong capacity.

6. **Enhancing coordination with and among international organizations.** Better communications would create pathways towards realizing more coordination and collaboration among international partners, avoid duplication of their efforts and reduce their potential conflict.

7. **Enhancing trust and collaboration with international partners** through creating and enabling a supportive environment and appointing a highly effective and responsive team at the MOE.

8. **Adopting a more participatory approach** by conducting consultations with different stakeholders, including international organizations to reach an effective strategic plan, and taking their perspectives into consideration as partners and supporters to different education initiatives.

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Appendix A: Interview Guide

I – Demographic Questions
Name:
Organization:
Position:
Highest level of education completed:
Years of professional experiences
Years working in international organizations:
Years in your current organization
Work years in education sector:
Work-years in Egypt:

II- Organization and Governance
1- How do you describe your own role in your organization?
2- How does your organization cooperate with the Egyptian MOE and in what areas?
3- How do you define education governance in your own words?
4- What are the contributions of your organization to governance and management of the pre-university education sector; if there are any?

III– Perspectives on Egyptian Education Governance and Management
5- How do you assess the pre-university education sector regarding:

    a- Leadership: Political leadership and educational leadership?

    b- Partnership: International organizations and private sector?

    c- And Participation: Community participation, BOTs, and NGOs?

6- What are the strengths of governance and management of the Egyptian pre-university education sector?

7- From your point of view, what are the weaknesses of governance and management of the pre-university education sector?

8- What should be the top priorities of the MOE to enhance governance and management of the pre-university education sector?

9- Are there any particular strategies to be adopted by the Egyptian Government to enhance education governance and management?

10- Are there any other recommendations to improve education governance and management?

IV– Final Questions

11- Would you like to share any final thoughts or comments?

12- Would you like to recommend any candidates to be interviewed?

Appendix B: Interview Schedule

	Participant's Given Name	Post	Date
1	**Ramzy**	Consultant	August 7th 2016
2	**Nadia**	Senior Officer	August 11th 2016
3	**Jack**	Project Manager	August 14th 2016
4	**Mark**	Project Manager	August 15th 2016
5	**Peter**	Advisor	August 21st 2016
6	**Nancy**	Project Officer	September 4th 2016
7	**Sandy**	Program Manager	September 5th 2016
8	**Adam**	Senior Advisor	September 7th 2016
9	**Suzanne**	Advisor	September 8th 2016
10	**Mariam**	Advisor	September 11th 2016
11	**Sarah**	Education Officer	September 13th 2016
12	**Mary**	Education Officer	September 17th 2016

Physical Self-Schema Acceptance and Perceived Severity of Online Aggressiveness in Cyberbullying Incidents

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ABSTRACT

In the present study, physical self-schema referred to the perceived body image youths have over their physical appearance. Using a two-item online questionnaire, the study analyzed the effect of physical self-schema acceptance on perceived severity of online aggressiveness in cyberbullying. Five hundred and seven students from Belgium, Spain, Romania, and Turkey participated in the survey. The results suggest that when mapping effects of physical self-schema acceptance on perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness, the curvilinear interaction model (2%) is more robust than

the linear interaction model (0.8%), when both models are statistically significant.

In this paper, we look into the curvilinear relationship between physical self-schema acceptance and the perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness.

SELF-SCHEMA AS SELF-CONCEPT

The word schema relates to the cognitive concepts by which we define different sets of world knowledge. Thus, we have knowledge or schemas about ourselves, called self-schemas. Individuals develop a self-schema related to different aspects of themselves as persons, including physical traits, personality characteristics and interests, to the extent that they consider that dimension as a self-definition of their own. These particular beliefs include our general perceptions of ourselves along with our knowledge of past experiences in identical situations. These knowledge categories represent how we expect to think, feel, and act in specific contexts or scenarios. This becomes an adaptive mechanism by which we estimate our own status within any social group. Individuals also develop their own self-schemas about physical characteristics, interests, personality characteristics and behaviors. Individual self-schemes are distinct and strongly affected by previous relationships, experiences, society, education, and culture. The majority of individual schemes have bipolar characteristics. They are healthy versus unhealthy, active versus passive, and dependent versus independent. Yet, they actually have specific positions on a continuum inside all individualities. To shape the concept about our self, all our different self-schemes mix and interact. Our concepts of self tend to be extremely complex. We constantly evaluate and regulate ourselves and gain new understanding and experiences. By so doing, we are constantly enhancing and reconfiguring the self-schemas and self-concepts.

Besides current self-schemas, people also design self-schemas about their future selves. These future selves refer to the way we think we are going to be over the following period of time. This involves positive but also negative ideation about our future selves. Self-schemas are also known to be shaped by the different roles we assume throughout life, influencing the think-feel-act system about selves in particular situations. Multiple schemas allow

people to access rapid decisions, activate efficient and appropriate behaviors in different contexts, and also guide the interpretation and use of input information. Multiple self-schemas activate particular verbal, cognitive, and behavioral sequences, also known as action plans and scripts, allowing people to efficiently reach objectives. Self-schemas vary by circumstances, interlocutors, as well as mood. There are mood-congruent self-schemas that fluctuate along with the emotional status (Brown et al., 1986).

Self-concept is a general representation containing self-information and knowledge, beliefs about our personality characteristics, physical aspects, values, abilities, objectives, and statuses. Youth and children have self-schemas about their academic progress, appearance, sports and other activities skills, and a multitude of other different aspects. The self-schemas act like a vector, providing input data in the processing of self-relevant knowledge (Harter, 1999) that affect their social cognition. Thus, self-concept, as the core of all our schemas, possesses a crucial influence over our feelings, thoughts, and behaviors (Barrios et al., 2008).

Even though each individual has a unique self-concept, there are common traits that are depicted across individuals. For instance, many individuals underline physical characteristics when describing themselves. Results from earlier studies show that physical characteristics are an important aspect to our self-concept because people readily acknowledge that others use visible physical traits in order to judge them. Usually individuals mention those particular physical traits that differentiate them from other persons in both positive and negative ways, merely because they understand the salient aspect of these characteristics when used by others to judge (McGuire, McGuire, Child, & Fujioka, 1978).

From the foregoing, it is evident that self-concept is a rich and complex social representation of ownership that surpasses not only inner characteristics, but also the social roles. In addition to thoughts about the present self, the self-concept also contains information about the past self. This includes references to accomplishments, failures and experiences, as well as information and about future self, including expectations, plans, and goals. (Oyserman et al., 2004). Due to this multidimensionality of self-concept, it is necessary for researchers to operationalize not just the concepts' isolated elements, but also all the interactions that exist between each element and their overall system.

Complexity and clarity are important structural characteristics of self-concept. Although each individual has a rich self-concept, the literature reveals several specific differences in self-complexity. According to Roccas and Brewer (2002) and Linville (1987), individuals own distinct and

somehow independent strategies of comprehending their own selves. Some people envisage richer selves than other people, and these particular differences are crucial in influencing psychological outputs. As for people with a high complexity of self-concept, the different dimensions of the self are distinct, mainly because the positive and negative sides of a distinct self-dimension are not being transferred to other self-dimensions. Researchers have found that when compared with people who have a low self-complexity, people with a high self-complexity tend to live brighter outcomes. For example, they display enhanced self-esteem (Rafaeli-Mor & Steinberg, 2002), a larger frustration tolerance (Gramzow, et al., 2000), and lower levels of stress and illness (Kalthoff & Neimeyer, 1993). The benefit of self-complexity is that it helps in buffering against negative events and enjoying the positive experienced events. In the case of people with low self-complexity, negative outcomes related to a sole self-dimension tend to have a greater effect over self-esteem.

THE CLARITY OF SELF-CONCEPT

Similar to how individuals differ in terms of their self-complexities, people are also different in terms of clarity. The self-concept clarity represents the measure in which the self-concept is comprehended in a clear and consistent manner (Campbell, 1990). Despite the fact that the concepts of complexity and clarity are independent (a greater or less complex self-idea that is both well-defined and constant, or unwell-defined and inconsistent), results show that both characteristics have the same interactions with the well-being index. An enhanced clarity of the self-concept is more often positively and significantly associated with the concept of self-esteem (Campbell et al., 1996). Researchers suggest that individuals who score higher on the self-esteem trait are inclined to own a more stable view and well-defined perspective about their own positive characteristics, as opposed to individuals who score lower on the same trait (Ritchie et al., 2011). Individuals with a higher self-esteem tend to show greater inconsistent and unstable self-concept that in return make them much more susceptible to the negative effect of defiant situations. Consistent with this hypothesis, it can be argued that the clarity of the self-concept seems to be a mediator in the relationship between well-being and stress (Ritchie et al., 2011).

PERCEIVED SEVERITY OF ONLINE AGGRESSIVENESS

Previous research suggest that bystanders are more prone to intervene when they perceive the incident as more severe, as opposed to when they

perceive the incident as less severe (Patterson, Allan, & Cross, 2017; Kazerooni, Taylor, Bazarova, & Whitlock, 2018; Bastiaensens et al., 2014, 2015; Obermaier et al., 2016). Researchers comprehend the severity of an incident in different ways: either as an objective trait of several aggressive situations (Obermaier et al., 2016; Kazerooni et al., 2018) or as different perceptions of the severity of the same situation (Patterson et al., 2017).

Thus, moral disengagement can be considered a multidimensional construct. In the context of cyberbullying, researchers conclude that "victim blaming," meaning the tendency to associate incident's responsibility to the victim, represents a core facet of moral disengagement (Price et al., 2014; DeSmet et al., 2014). The victim blaming tendency has also been associated with acting intentionality (Weber, Schnauber, & Ziegele, 2013; Schacter, Greenberg, & Juvonen, 2016; Weber, Koehler, & Schnauber-Stockmann, 2018). Bystanders are not just background actors. Their behaviour/act critically influences the process of perpetration and victimization. In a confrontation with the perpetrator, bystanders have increased chances in interfering and preventing more aggressions (Salmivalli, 2010). Also, by showing helping behavior and by psychologically comforting the victim, bystanders increase the victim's perspectives of constructive coping with the situation (Dredge et al., 2014). The research suggests that both victims and perpetrators perceive bystanders' passivity as a consent/support for the perpetrator (Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010; Salmivalli, 2010; Rad, et al., 2019). More often than not, a passive bystander's attitude enhances the risk of deep and long-term psychological victimization.

Cyberbullying ranges in severity from simply making fun of, or insulting peers, all the way up to threats of physical harassment (Rivers & Noret, 2010). When viewed from a bystander's perspective, a situation of threats of physical assault perceived as more severe tends to be frequently considered to be an emergency situation and included in the severe alert zone (Allison & Bussey, 2016). As Obermaier et al. (2016) concluded, the perceived severity of a bullying situation, meaning the level of harassment used, is a significant predictor of bystanders noticing the victim's severe situation, as well as the extent to which bystanders felt responsible for intervening. Similarly, Bastiaensens et al. (2014, 2015) and Patterson et al. (2017) concluded that a cyberbullying incident perceived as more severe affected the enrichment of intervening intentions in bystanders. As Bastiaensens et al (2014) explained, the intervening acting intentionality was explained to a greater extent by bystanders' perceived severity, as opposed to the incident's objective severity

RESEARCH METHOD

The data for this study were drawn from the micro research project, entitled "Keeping youth safe from Cyberbullying." The project was developed and financed by Erasmus+, in collaboration with experts in the field. Its broad aim was to further understand the complex phenomenon of cyberbullying amongst youth and adolescents.

Participants

A total of 507 youths from Spain, Romania, Turkey and Belgium participated in the investigation. This sample was chosen voluntarily, as follows: 98 from Romania, 130 from Belgium, 224 from Turkey and 50 from Spain. Demographically, the students were distributed as follows: they were aged between 17 and 19, and residents of both urban and rural settings. Fifty-one -point -four percent (51.4%) were females and the rest (48.6%) were males.
 The participants responded to a two-item online questionnaire that sought descriptive data, general perception about cyberbullying, the perceived safety of online environments, and some self-reports focused on self-efficacy perceptions. To measure self-schema acceptance, the participants responded to the following single item, "I am pleased with my physical aspect", on a 5 point Likert scale, with 1 representing "Fully Agree" and 5 representing "Fully Disagree". The perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness was determined by responses to the question, "Do you believe that cyberbullying is a severe problem?"

RESULTS

The results presented here were limited to the psychological implications drawn from the curvilinear relationship between self-schema acceptance and perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness in youth, when facing cyberbullying incidents. Two single item measures were applied to this association. In order to elevate any statistical procedure used to highlight the mediation or moderation effects between the involved concept, first we tested whether the relationships were linear or not. Then we determined the extent to which the nonlinearity yielded more statistical inputs to better comprehend what was going on in this particular critical incident, like participating in cyberbullying.

One of our preliminary assumptions was that there was a statistical difference between youth perceiving cyberbullying a severe threat or not, depending on their actual perceived physical self-schema. In order to test our hypothesis, we conducted an ANOVA analysis. To test for the differences, we calculated an ANOVA coefficient of $F=4.767$, which was statistically significant at a $p<0.01$. The youths who rated 1, meaning they fully agreed with physical self-schema acceptance had a mean of $m=1.74$ on agreeing with perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness. Those who rated 2, meaning they disagreed with physical self-schema acceptance had a mean of $m=1.95$ on agreeing with perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness.

The youth who rated 3, meaning they had neutral feelings about physical self-schema acceptance had a mean of $m=1.95$ on agreeing with perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness. Those who rated 4, meaning agreeing with physical self-schema acceptance had a mean of $m=1.97$ on agreeing with perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness. Lastly, the youth who rated 5, meaning they fully agreed with physical self-schema acceptance had a mean of $m=1.95$ on agreeing with perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness.

Finally, to test the curvilinear relationship hypothesis, we used SPSS' multiple regression analysis for curvilinear effects, with physical self-schema acceptance as the dependent variable.

The distribution of the responses to the statement, "I am pleased with my physical aspect", was as follows: Fully Agreed (3.7%), Agreed (11.4%), Neutral (19.7%), Disagreed (30.4%) and Fully Disagreed (33.7%). To the questions, "Do you believe cyberbullying is a serious problem?", 5.3% responded "Yes" and 94.7% responded "No".

In predicting the curvilinear relationship between the two variables in the study, we assumed that the relationship between two variables will grow together until they reach a plateau (positive relationship). Thereafter, one of the variables increases while the other decreases (negative relationship) or vice-versa. Represented graphically, this relationship would appear in a shape of a U or an inverted U. The Inverted U Hypothesis suggests that optimal physical self-schema acceptance occurs at an intermediate level of perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness while both low and high levels of perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness will result in impaired physical self-schema acceptance. The association between our research variables was computed in a Scatterplot, using Linear and Quadratic representations of the regression line to indicate significant curvilinear effects. Figure 1 presents the inverted U shaped scatter plot diagram, showing the curvilinear relationship between physical self-schema acceptance on the

horizontal axis and perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness, on the vertical axis.

Figure 1: The curvilinear relationship between physical self-schema acceptance and perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness.

There was a very high correlation coefficient between physical self-schema acceptance (m =3.80, SD =1.14) and perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness (m=1.95, SD=0.22) of r =.100, significant at a p <.05. This allowed us to compute the multiple regression analysis for depicting curvilinear effects. In our regression model, the dependent variable was the perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness. The independent variable in step 1 was physical self-schema acceptance, and in step 2 it was physical self-schema acceptance and squared physical self-schema acceptance.

Table 1 presents the fitting of both models, linear (Model 1) and quadratic (Model 2). In Model 1 which tested the linear relationship, physical self-schema acceptance accounted for 0.8% of the variance in perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness with a F=5.072 significant at a p<.005. In the 2nd Model that supposed a curvilinear relationship, physical

self-schema acceptance accounts for 2% of the variance in perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness with a F=7.119 significant at a p<.001.

Table 1: Regression models for physical self-schema acceptance and perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness

One-Way Analysis of Variance

Model		df	SS	MS	F	Sig.
	Regression	1	.248	.248	5.072	.025[b]
1	Residual	500	24.406	.049		
	Total	501	24.653			
	Regression	2	.684	.342	7.119	.001[c]
2	Residual	499	23.969	.048		
	Total	501	24.653			

a. Dependent Variable: Do you think that cyberbullying is a severe problem?

a. Predictors: (Constant), I am pleased with my physical aspect (ItemB)

b. Predictors: (Constant), I am pleased with my physical aspect, *Sqrt Item B*

Model		B	SE B	β	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.874	.034		54.694	.000
	I am pleased with my physical aspect	.019	.009	.100	2.252	.025
2	(Constant)	1.653	.081		20.461	.000
	I am pleased with my physical aspect	.167	.050	.862	3.360	.001
	Sqrt Item B	-.022	.007	-.773	-3.014	.003

a. Dependent Variable: Do you think that cyberbullying is a severe problem?

As data in the Table show, all Beta standardized coefficients (β= .108; β=.862; β=-.773) were significant at p<.05, providing high statistical

consistency to both linear and quadratic models. Negative Beta coefficients indicated that the effect increased in the opposite direction, meaning tha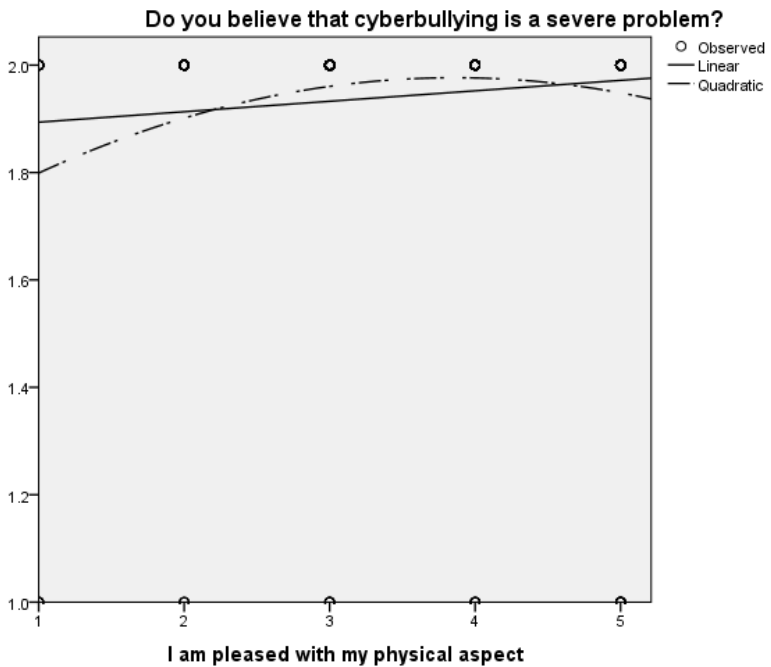t the relationship between physical self-schema acceptance and perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness was curvilinear. Altogether, the additional predictive capacity of 1 %, resulting from adding the squared physical self-schema acceptance that accounts for the curve of the regression line, indicated the curvilinear relationship between physical self-schema acceptance and perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness. This curvilinear relationship, assumed based on the inverted U hypothesis, suggests that the optimal perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness occurred at an intermediate level of physical self-schema acceptance while both low and high levels of physical self-schema acceptance will result in impaired perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Our finding of a significant curvilinear relationship between physical self-schema acceptance and perceived severity of online aggressiveness in cyberbullying incidents is consistent with previous research findings, which indicate that indirect aggressive competitive behavior is associated in a significantly and positively manner with body image in female population (Hargreaves and Tiggemann, 2002; Cashdan, 1998; Martin, 1997; Werner & Crick, 1999; Hines & Fry, 1994).

The findings contribute to the existing literature by noting that youth may compete with peers, using for example online aggressive strategies in the physical self-schema field, as a result of their negative appearance self-perception. In terms of physical self-schema insecurities, youth self-perceptions of physical unattractiveness, when comparing themselves to peers, may make them more prone to engage in online aggressiveness, as a strategy to ruin peers' reputation and to enhance their own self-esteem and feelings of superiority. Previously, Hargreaves and Tiggemann (2002) hypothesized that young individuals with dysfunctional self-physical schemas, who are exposed to commercials where appearance criteria is dominant, would lead to a higher physical image dissatisfaction. They found that participants presented with images of ideal physical models reported increased feelings of physical self-schema dissatisfaction, when compared to the participants in the non-appearance condition. Harter (1999) and Cash (2002; 2003) demonstrated a significant negative association between body image and self-esteem.

IMPLICATIONS

As the adaptive function theory suggests, the appeal of online aggression might be a catalyst to the aggregation of inner and outer social groups. Online aggression can be considered an adaptive strategy because it actually facilitates connections for individuals in that particular social group, even if it may lead to disconnections for outer group youth. Taking into account the prerogatives of normative social behavior, negative relational perpetrators might actually develop a self-image and feel more connected to young peers than if their aggressive behavior is discouraged. Some young people may choose to incorporate internet aggression into their skills repertoire as a way to compensate for the power imbalance, and eventually be more competitive and prosperous in a culture that values male-dominated features. Thus, the effects of such behavior may be rewarding, such as enhanced self-esteem or social status, if it is supported by youth settings. Consistent with the findings of Perez and colleagues (2005), we also found a significant curvilinear association between physical self-schema and perceived severity of online aggressiveness. It should be noted, however, that we did not encounter measures of extremely low and extremely high degrees of physical self-schema acceptance in relation to perceived online aggression. This might have affected the reduced, but statistically significant, size effect of the coefficients found.

This research had several limitations, including the use of a purposive sample, the simplicity of the information collection process, and the limited scope of this micro-exploratory inquiry, including the insufficient operationalization of the main constructs in this study. The participants in this study were youths exclusively enrolled in an educational system in both rural and urban areas. Therefore, the findings presented here should not be generalized to a larger and more diverse target group, like "Not in Education, Employment, or Training" (NEETs).

The operationalization of terms in the study may be insufficient. Even though the existing literature describes several variables associated with indirect aggression, we restricted our focus to exploring the connection between physical self-schema acceptance and perceived negative effect of online aggressiveness among youth. In addition, a moderate range of scores on both measures were recorded by youth respondents in this study. Restricting range issues may have affected the outcomes of this research in particular. Therefore, the relationship between these two constructs might have been more significant and the effect size greater if there was a vaster range in scores.

Still another limitation was that the possible sequential and contextual

relationships between the two concepts might not have been taken into account. Because of lack of studies on the construct of perceived online aggression is not yet understood. It is unclear whether perceived severity of online aggressiveness leads to physical self-schema acceptance, or whether it precedes it, and under what circumstances these assumptions appear. Future studies should provide more comprehensive data on the causal relationships between physical self-schema acceptance and perceived severity of online aggressiveness.

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Conscientiousness and Motivator Factors: Can They Contribute to Each Other Among Teachers from Technical and Vocational Education and Training of Nepal?

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ABSTRACT

The conscientiousness and motivator factors are the fundamental concerns of the organizational behavior among Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) school settings. Taking into account, this study intends to assess the level and examine the influences between conscientiousness and motivator factors among TVET teachers. For these purposes, this study employed the cross-sectional survey design and collected information via a questionnaire from 302 TVET teachers under different clusters. Then, the information was analyzed via descriptive and inferential (e.g. correlation and regression analysis) statistics and further discussed the obtained results by incorporating the social capital theory. This study explored the high conscientiousness and moderate level of motivator factors, and the positive correlation between them among teachers. Furthermore, this study confirms the relationship between conscientiousness and motivator factors as elucidated as in the theory of big five factors as its implication part in the context of TVET teachers in Nepal.

Keywords: Conscientiousness, Motivator Factors, Promotion, Recognition, Social Capital, Work Itself

INTRODUCTION

$\mathbf{T}$he Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET) programs are crucial concerns of this century. TVET refers to skill-based educational programs and training which delivers knowledge and enhances skills for employment (Asian Development Bank [ADB], 2015; United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO] & International Project on Technical and Vocational Education [UNEVOC], 2017) by preparing skilled human resources for the job market. This effort enhances employment, generates the economic capital, and contributes to the national economy (Bhurtel, 2015). These benefits take place when TVET programs run effectively. For this purpose, the contributions of TVET teachers are crucial because their performance in school determines the effectiveness of TVET programs (Bukit, 2012). Furthermore, the performance of employees is associated with a high level of conscientiousness (Witt et al., 2002) and motivation (Ali et al., 2016) in their jobs and it is equally applicable in the terms of TVET teachers.

Conscientiousness is the discretionary activity that goes beyond the job description (Muhammad, 2012) and it is associated with loyalty with the indispensable intention for involvement in the job. In addition, conscientiousness is related to the behavior that performs the assigned jobs within the deadlines (Mushtaq & Umar, 2015) with full dedication toward the organizations. Moreover, conscientiousness is one of the major dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior (Smith et al., 1983; Organ, 2018) and "big five personality traits" (Komarraju et al. 2009). Both concepts elucidate that conscientiousness is associated with the motivator factor (Hart et al., 2007) and they enhance each other. Considering this, the motivating (intrinsic) factors as part of job satisfaction influences conscientiousness. Therefore, conscientiousness is identified as a strong predictor of motivator factors (Clark & Schroth, 2010; Tomsik, 2018).

Motivator factors refer to the intrinsic components of job satisfaction (Robbins et al., 2013). It is based on Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory (Tan & Waheed, 2011) where the causes of employee motivation are referred to as internal vigor (Steers et al., 2004). This force is known as the intrinsic factors, and it includes promotional opportunities, recognition, work itself, advancement possibilities, appreciation, and triumph in bearing responsibility (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Khadka, 2010; Ranasinghe, 2016). This study encompassed work itself, promotion and advancement, and recognition and appreciation as the dimensions of intrinsic factors among TVET teachers.

Likewise, motivator factors and conscientiousness reflect the attitude and behavior (Jackson et al., 2010) of employees that they perform in their

jobs. Both the motivator factors and conscientiousness are influenced by the social capital of TVET teachers. Social capital is the predisposition of social status, values, and power which is seen as the social outlooks (Bourdieu, 1986) of the individual. This social outlook is visible as the social positioning, interaction, and relationship which guided the individual's attitudes and behaviors. For instance, enriched social capital develops well-satisfied attitudes toward the job (Agneessens & Wittek, 2008). This job satisfied attitude creates motivation (Tietjen & Myers, 1998; Varma, 2019) among employees regarding work itself, promotion, and recognition. The attitude as the motivation influences the employees to be loyal, dedicated, obedient, and conscious toward the jobs (Dehaloo, 2011) and further performs tasks before the deadline in an organization. In addition, teachers with well-loaded social capital perform their jobs beyond duties without expecting any benefits from the school. So, social capital is crucial to determine the attitude (motivation) and conscientiousness among TVET teachers.

The high level of conscientiousness and motivation among TVET teachers is associated with the preparation of skillful human resources for the job market. In the context of Nepal, there is a lack of skillful personnel in the job markets and a similar situation can be seen even in foreign employment. The lack of skillful human resources is one of the major factors of the low employment, productivity, economic growth (Kafle, 2007; Ministry of Labour and Employment [MOLE], 2016), GDP, and per capita income in Nepal (MOLE, 2016). Similarly, Nepal faces serious loss in foreign trade (e.g. Department of Customs [DOC], 2018), minimal wages of employers in foreign employment (e.g. International Labour Organization [ILO], 2017), and slow infrastructural development (Ministry of Finance [MOF], 2014) of the nation. These discrepancies are an example of the low economic development of the country. The low economic development is caused by a lack of skillful, qualitative, and adequate number of human resources in the job market. This lacking of workforces has happened due to a variety of factors. A burning one among them, the presence of low loaded conscientiousness and poorly motivated teachers in the TVET schools.

Consequently, enhancing both the motivator factors and conscientiousness among employees, are crucial activities for the TVET School. Without conscientious and motivated teachers, the TVET School will not achieve organizational effectiveness and success. Correspondingly, these lacking among teachers does not give a guarantee of satisfactory educational achievement among students. As a result, the deficiency of these two factors also turns the schools toward a failure state. So, teachers need to equip with high conscientiousness and motivation to provide quality education. In this

context, there are hardly a few studies of motivation (e.g. Joshi, 2016; Sah, 2016) and conscientiousness as dimension of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (e.g. Shrestha & Subedi, 2020; Subedi et al., 2011) of Nepalese employees. However, these studies did not represent the relationship between motivator factors and conscientiousness of TVET teachers in Nepal. Moreover, in the Nepalese context, the influences of motivator factors on conscientiousness are still a puzzle. So, this study aims to measure the level of motivator factors and conscientiousness and assess the contribution of the motivator factors in conscientiousness among TVET teachers.

THEORETICAL REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS

Several previous studies investigated the association between conscientiousness and motivator factors in academia (e.g. Bowling, 2009; Hart et al., 2007). Moreover, the "big five personality traits" assumed that conscientiousness is a good predictor of intrinsic motivators (Tomsik, 2018) in a job. In contrast to it, some scholars (e.g. Organ & Lingl, 1995; DeNeve & Cooper, 1998; Judge et al., 2002) claim that the high level of motivator factors also vary the conscientiousness. In this situation, this study intends to assess the degree of mutual enhancement between conscientiousness and motivator factors among TVET teachers in the Nepalese context. Therefore, this study hypothesized that:

Hypothesis: *Conscientiousness and motivator factors enhance each other among TVET teachers.*

RESEARCH METHOD

Research Design
This study poses the post-positivist philosophical stance which explains the relationship between conscientiousness and motivator factors among TVET teachers as a single truth of this study. Then, employing post-positivism, this study espoused the cross-sectional survey as the research design and it is confirmatory in nature. This study declared the entire TVET schools of Nepal as the study area and each TVET teacher as the unit of analysis. Thus, this research identified the sample size (n = 302) by using Yamane (1967) approaches at a 95% confidence limit from the study population (N = 1228) as entire TVET teachers (MOEST, 2018) of Nepal. In addition, I randomly selected 302 TVET teachers by performing stratified random sampling. While administering the stratified random sampling, I divided Nepal into seven provinces according to its political division (Nepal Law Commission [2015],

2015). Then, the numbers of the sample from each province are derived by considering their existing percent, which they hold among the total population of respondents as in Table 1.

Table 1: Number of Samples from Seven Provinces of Nepal

Province	N	Percent	n
1	219	17.83	54
2	210	17.10	52
3	223	18.16	55
4	188	15.31	46
5	192	15.63	47
6	66	5.37	16
7	130	10.59	32
Total	*1228*	*100*	*302*

A line of Table 1, this study determined the number of samples from province 1 to 7 as 54, 52, 55, 46, 47, 16, and 32 respectively.

Instrumentation

I employed a Delphi technique which incorporates the conduction of Focus Group Discussion (FGD) in this study. The participants of FGD were school teachers and experts of conscientiousness and job motivator factors. From the conduction of FGD, I developed the questionnaire which incorporated 19 questions associated with two constructs: motivator factors (11 items) and conscientiousness (4 items) respectively. More specifically, the motivator factors are composed of three sub-indicators: work itself (6 items), promotion (3 items), and recognition (2 items) respectively. These constructs of motivator factors and conscientiousness are similar to the Organizational Citizenship Behavior scale of Spector (1994), and Job Satisfaction scale of Fox and Spector (2010) respectively. Meanwhile, I ensured the internal consistency of this scale through deriving the Cronbach's alpha from pilot testing. I took a sample size of 30 according to Hertzog (2008) in pilot testing and obtained Cronbach's alpha value of motivator factors and conscientiousness as .834 and .718 respectively. Likewise, the Cronbach's alpha values belong to sub-indicators of motivator factors such as work itself (.731), promotion (.805), and recognition (.770) respectively. The

derived Cronbach's alpha values of each indicator and sub-indicators are above 0.7, which indicates that the scale is highly reliable (Santos, 1999).

Data Analysis Process
After ensuring the internal consistency of the scale, I collected the data from the respondents via a self-administer questionnaire. The collected data were analyzed through both descriptive and inferential statistics, namely: frequency, percent, mean and standard deviation, etc. Similarly, descriptive statistics are used for assessing the level of motivator factors and conscientiousness. For this purpose, I adopted the Best (1977) procedure for categorizing the obtained responses as follows:

$$\frac{Higher\ score - Lower\ score}{Number\ of\ Levels} = \frac{5-1}{3} = \frac{4}{3} = 1.33$$

I categorized the responses based on the mean scores of all indicators in three levels as low (1.00-2.33), moderate (2.34-3.66), and high (3.67-5.00) respectively. Likewise, I employed Karl Pearson's correlation and linear regression analysis for examining the relationship (e.g. Zaid, 2015) between conscientiousness and motivator factors. Before employing these tests, I performed statistical assumptions (e.g. normal distribution, absence of multicollinearity, and autocorrelation and linearity test) to ensure its appropriateness in this study.

RESULTS

Level of Conscientiousness and Motivator Factors
I derived the conscientiousness of respondents by sorting the mean score in three levels: high, moderate, and low. Meanwhile, I also obtained the mean score of conscientiousness and motivator factors (work, promotion, and recognition) in Table 2 and 3.

Table 2: Intensity of Conscientiousness and Motivator Factors

Indicators	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
Conscientiousness	4.23	.79	High
Motivator factors	3.55	.60	Moderate
Work itself	4.05	.61	High
Promotion	2.63	.95	Moderate
Recognition	2.63	.95	Moderate

Table 2 divulges the high level of conscientiousness (Mean = 4.23, SD = .79) as part of organizational citizenship behavior in TVET schools. In

contrast, they experienced a high level of work itself (Mean =4.05) as one of the motivator factors in the job among TVET teachers. However, the other two factors (promotion and recognition) consist of only a moderate level concerning motivation in the job. As a result, the TVET teachers possess an only moderate level of motivation in their job.

Description of Conscientiousness and Motivator Factors by Their Levels
This study also included the frequency and percentage of the respondents regarding their attitudes toward the conscientiousness and motivator factors on three levels (Table 3).

Table 3: Frequency of Conscientiousness and Motivator Factors via Their Levels

Indicators	Low		Moderate		High	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Conscientiousness	15	5.0	42	13.9	245	81.1
Motivator factors	7	2.3	162	53.6	133	44.0
Work itself	3	1.0	82	27.2	217	71.8
Promotion	99	32.8	138	45.7	65	21.7
Recognition	21	7.0	135	44.7	146	48.3

Among the dimensions of motivator factors, two thirds (N = 217, % = 71.8) of respondents experienced a high level of motivation regarding work itself, and remaining less than one-third portion possessed moderate and low level. Considering this, only one percent (N = 3) of TVET teachers claimed that they had a low level of motivation due to their nature of work. Likewise, slightly more teachers are highly motivated (N= 146, % = 48.3) and it is followed by a moderate level (44.7 %) of responses due to recognition. In recognition, the differences between the moderate and high levels are only a few in numbers (N = 11) but the differences are large in considering the moderate-low level (N = 114) and high-low level (N =125) respectively. In contrary to the work itself and recognition, the more TVET teachers expressed moderate satisfaction than a high level regarding their promotion, they were 138 (% = 45.7) in numbers. It is followed by a low level (N= 99, % = 32.8) which is more by 34 numbers than high level responded teachers in terms of promotion.

Overall, the majority of respondents (N = 162, %= 53.6) claimed that they were moderately motivated in the job and 44% possessed a high level of motivation in TVET academia. In relation, the remaining respondents (N = 7, % = 2.3) expressed low motivation in their work. Despite that, more than

four-fifths respondents (N = 245, % = 81.1) reflected the high degree of conscientiousness and remaining respondents (N = 57, % = 18.9) belonged to moderate and low levels respectively.

Assumptions of Parametric Test

I confirmed the four assumptions of the parametric test to employ the Karl Pearson correlation and linear regression analysis (e.g. Garson, 2012) in this research. Among them, the first assumption advocates the normality test which is ensured via performing Skewness and Kurtosis. The derived values of all Skewness (-1.217 to .188) and Kurtosis (-.608 to 1.089) are in between the values +2 to -2, which is defined as the normal distribution according to Garson (2012). The second and third assumption is associated with multicollinearity and autocorrelation. Their derived values are in Table 4.
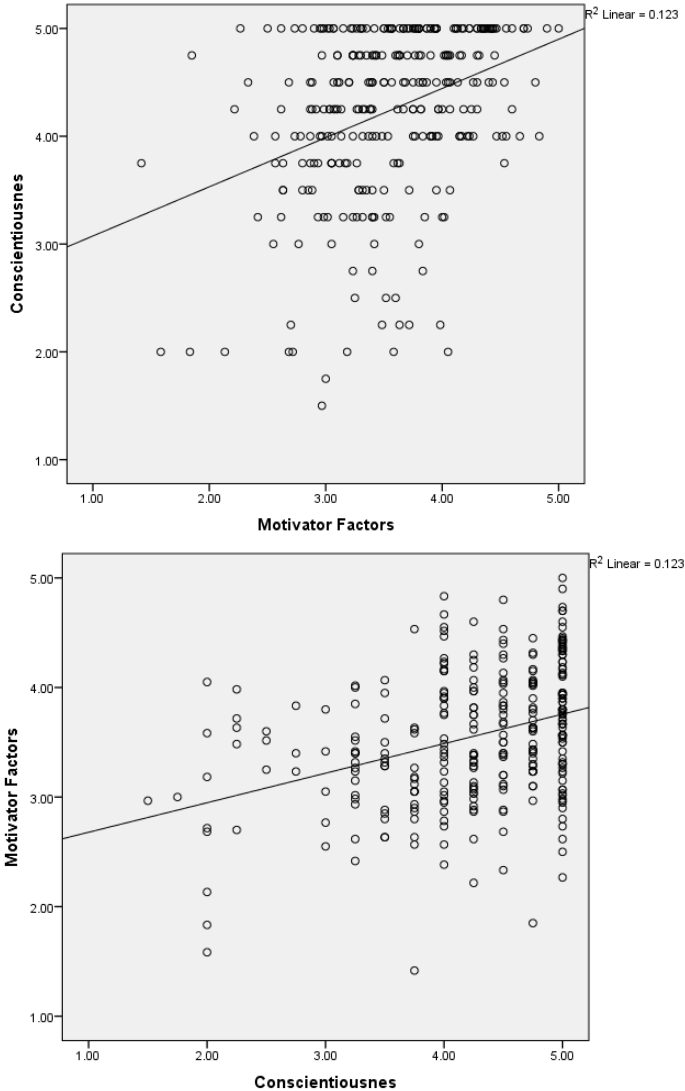
Table 4: Assumptions of Multicollinearity and Autocorrelation for the Parametric Test

Model	Predictors	Dependent Variable	Collinearity Statistics		Durbin-Watson
			Tolerance	VIF	
1	Conscientiousness	Motivator factors	.860	1.163	1.699
	Work Itself		.798	1.253	1.711[a]
2	Promotion	Conscientiousness	.788	1.270	1.718 [a]
	Recognition		.685	1.459	1.639[a]
3	Motivator Factors	Conscientiousness	.420	2.383	1.688[a]

The multicollinearity is tested by Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). I derived all Tolerance (.420 to .860) values are greater than (T<.20) and VIF (1.163 to 2.383) values are lesser than VIF>4.0 respectively. So, these values of Tolerance and VIF signify that there is an absence of multicollinearity between conscientiousness and motivator factors (e.g. Garson, 2012). The third assumption explains the autocorrelation and it is derived from the Durbin-Watson test (Field, 2009). The derived value of the Durbin-Watson test ranges from 1.639 to 1.718 respectively. According to Garson (2012), the normal values of the Durbin-Watson test ranges from 1.5 to 2.5 for independent observation. So, the derived values disclose that there is no autocorrelation between conscientiousness and motivator factors in this

study. Finally, the fourth assumptions explain the linearity and it is derived from the graphical method particularly plotted the scatters of conscientiousness against overall motivator factors in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Assumption of Linearity Regarding Parametric Test

The obtained scatter plots are clustered around the projected straight line. The formulation of a straight line ensured the assumptions of linearity in this study. Thus, the ensured of the normal distribution, linearity, and absence of multicollinearity and autocorrelation allows the parametric test (Sreejech et al., 2014) to examine the relationship between conscientiousness and motivator factors in this study.

Association between Conscientiousness and Motivator Factors
I employed the Karl Pearson correlation test to examine the relationship between conscientiousness and motivator factors. The obtained statistical inferences between motivator factors (work itself, promotion, and recognition) and conscientiousness are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Correlation between Conscientiousness and Motivator Factors

Indicators	Conscientiou sness	Work Itself	Promot ion	Recognit ion	Motivator Factors
Conscientiou sness	1				
Work Itself	$.342^{**}$	1			
Promotion	$.180^{**}$	$.274^{**}$	1		
Recognition	$.284^{**}$	$.442^{**}$	$.454^{**}$	1	
Motivator Factors	$.351^{**}$	$.780^{**}$	$.758^{**}$	$.762^{**}$	1

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

Table 5 portrays the correlation values (r) and it is sorted in the five continua according to Singh (2007) as follows: negligible (0-0.2), low (0.2-0.4), moderate (0.4-0.6), high (0.6-0.8) and very high (0.8-1.0) respectively for analysis. The derived r values of the all components of motivators factors: work itself (r =.780**, p<.01), promotion (r =.758**, p<.01), and recognition (r =.762**, p<.01) demonstrates a high relationship with overall values of motivator factors among TVET teachers. Similarly, the correlation between the motivator factors shows a moderate relationship with each other except work itself and recognition (r =.274**, p<.01) which relationship is low in degree. In addition, all motivator factors were low correlated with conscientiousness except promotion (r =.180**, p<.01) which is negligible in relation. Furthermore, the overall correlation value (r =.351**, p<.01) between motivator factors and conscientiousness portrayed the low level of associations with each other.

Contribution between Conscientiousness and Motivator Factors

I employed the linear regression analysis to assess the influences of conscientiousness on motivator factors and vice versa. In the first model, the motivator factors are considered as the dependent variable and conscientiousness as an independent variable in this regression model as Y = a + bx (e.g. Kerlinger, 2011). In this equation, "Y" refers to dependent and "x" refers to the independent variable. Similarly, in the second model, the dependent and independent variables are referred to as conscientiousness and motivator factors respectively. In this model, the linear regression model is defined as X = a + by and refers "X" and "y" as dependent and independent variables respectively. Likewise, the constant value and regression coefficients were termed as "a" and "b" respectively in these both regression equations. I derived the three outputs of each model but projected them all in a single table while computing the regression analysis in this study (Table 6).

Table 6: Regression Analysis of Relationship between Conscientiousness and Motivator Factors

Model	UC		SC	T	Sig.	R	RS	ARS	ANOVA[a]	
	B	SE	Beta						F	Sig.
1 (Constant)	2.41	.18		13.45	.00					
Conscientiousness	.27	.04	.35	6.49	.00	.35[a1]	.12	.12	42.06	.00[b1]
2 (Constant)	2.61	.25		10.32	.00					
Motivator Factors	.45	.07	.35	6.48	.00	.35[a2]	.12	.12	42.00	.00[b2]

Dependent Variable: a[1]: Motivator Factors, a[2]: Conscientiousness
Predictors: (Constant), b[1]: Conscientiousness, b[2]: Motivator Factors
* UC= Unstandardized Coefficients, SC= Standardized Coefficients, SE= Std.
   Error, RS= R Square, ARS = Adjusted R Square

Likewise, Table 6 discloses the conscientiousness and motivator factors as the predictors of motivator factors and conscientiousness in the first and second regression model correspondingly. Then, in the second output, both models portray the low level of correlation (R = .34) between conscientiousness and motivator factors and vice versa. Similarly, the obtained values of adjusted R square (r^2 = .12 × 100 = 12%) explain that both regression models fairly fit with the data. Moreover, it reveals that the

predictor in both models decides a 12% variance of the dependent variable. Likewise, the derived values of ANOVA state the overall first (F = 42.06, *p* = .00), and the second model (F = 42.00, *p* = .00) of regression analysis is significant to influence motivator factors by conscientiousness and vice versa.

Furthermore, the first model elucidates the regression model as Y = 2.41 + .27x. This regression equation reveals that one unit change in conscientiousness induces .27 units to amend in motivator factors. It signifies that conscientiousness independently makes a 27% change in motivator factors (e.g. Carver & Nash, 2012). Similarly, the derived values regarding the coefficients (b^2) in regression analysis (X = 2.61 + .45y) shows the one unit alternations of motivator factors induce a .45 unit change in conscientiousness. More specifically, it explains that motivator factors contribute to a 45% change in conscientiousness (e.g. Carver & Nash, 2012) among TVET teachers. These derived results show that the motivator factors influence more in conscientiousness rather than a motivator factor that is enhanced by conscientiousness in this study.

DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS

Conscientiousness: High Degree among TVET Teachers
The TVET teachers disclosed the high degree of conscientiousness in this study and the majority of respondents also expressed high conscientiousness. This result is similar to Yilmaz (2017) where the school teachers perform high conscientiousness. The display of the high conscientiousness denotes that the TVET teachers are obedient to the rules and regulation of school (e.g. Kilince, 2014), dedicated to the work, and perform works and duties on time. This conscientiousness is associated with the existing social capital (Tulin et al., 2018) and it is also applicable in the context of TVET teachers. The social capital guides TVET teachers to carry the affirmative cognition, feelings, and behaviors regarding their jobs. This positive attitude helps them to perform compliance behavior (Rezaei et al., 2014) as their part of duties and responsibilities in the school. Likewise, if the social capital is rich in employees, they maintain high ethics (Ayios et al., 2014) in the organization. They also follow the disciplinary code and perform sufficient efforts to fulfill the duties of the organizations. Thus, the presence of high conscientiousness among teachers contributes to elevated job performance (Hassan et al., 2016), work effectiveness (Youshan & Hassan, 2015), and finally attain organizational success.

Motivator Factors: Moderate Levels among TVET Teachers

The findings ascertain that TVET teachers demonstrate a moderate level of motivators. Moreover, they possess a moderate degree in terms of their promotion and recognition. However, I found, they were highly motivated in their work itself. This result is more analogous to the study done by Shrestha (2019). This similarity happens due to the uniformity of the study area and existing social capital. In addition, the similarity is also seen in the frequency of respondents, where these studies alike Shrestha (2019) reveals that the majority of respondents demonstrated the moderate level of motivator factors. It means that the majority of teachers possess a high level of promotion and it contributes to their motivation towards the job. However, the study done by Shrestha (2019) did not include promotion in the motivator factors. The author only states that the majority poses a high level of motivation due to a moderate level of recognition. This little discrepancy is due to the differences in the population group between these two studies. The research accomplished by Shrestha (2019) is associated with the general school teachers but this study is of TVET schools. So, the results between these studies seem similar except for a few contradictions like in the case of promotions.

The TVET teachers expressed the high level of work itself due to the provisions of the well-defined job description, proper communication, absence of role ambiguity and workload, and comfortable work schedules. The presence of these factors contributes to TVET teachers' moderate level of motivation among overall motivator factors. In addition, the motivation levels of teachers are also determined by social capital (Ozan et al., 2017). In relation, Szreter (2012) inscribes the social capital as the networks and power-sharing of people in society. It builds the social identity and positions of people (Szreter, 2012) but their power status might be varied. These differences in power exercise depend on their occupation (Schooler & Schoenbach, 1994). For instance, the teachers were engaged in many social works beyond teaching in school. They continuously performed social interaction while doing social work in society. As a result, the teachers got more opportunities to exercise power influencing people in society. This happens due to the presence of high social capital among teachers and their job is considered as a noble occupation. This gracious nature of the job and societal positioning highly motivate the TVET teachers.

However, promotion and recognition moderately contribute to the motivation level among TVET teachers. In the Nepalese context, the teachers were promoted in the upper class (e.g. third, second, and first) but remains in the same post (e.g. Primary, Secondary, and Higher Secondary level) in the

school (Ministry of Education and Sports [MOES], 2000). This provision of promotion makes teachers feel that they were in the same post. This consideration in jobs makes the TVET teachers express only the moderate level in the promotion. Likewise, the TVET teachers got a moderate level of social respect, which drives them to pose a moderate level of satisfaction regarding recognition. For instance, professionals like doctors and engineers have a higher level of recognition and appreciation in society (Dolton et al., 2018) than teachers. This contrast in respect and appreciation is associated with social capital. These trends of societal preferences and respect contribute to determining the moderate level of motivation regarding recognition among TVET teachers. Thus, social capital enhances the overall motivation level regarding promotion and recognition. Overall, the presence of the motivation enhances the performances (Inayatullah & Jehangir, 2012) and work effectiveness (Awerosno, 2017) among TVET teachers which further contributes to achieving organizational success.

Relationship between Conscientiousness and Motivator Factors

The results derived from the statistical inferences establish a positive relationship between motivator factors and conscientiousness. This finding is analogous to the previous studies (e.g. Jugovic et al., 2012; Komarraju et al., 2009), which confirm that there is a significant relationship between conscientiousness and intrinsic motivation. In addition, Shrestha (2018) asserts the moderate relationship between intrinsic motivator factors and conscientiousness among teachers. Moreover, the motivator factors are the attitudes (Robbins et al., 2013) and conscientiousness as the organizational-level behavior (Newland, 2012) of the TVET teachers. The most remarkable features are that both attitudes and behavior are associated (Robbins et al., 2013) and accompanied by societal values, beliefs, power, status, and cognition. All of these features collectively represent social capital. They play a crucial role in determining both the attitudes and behavior of school teachers. Thus, the social capital persuades the affirmative relationship between motivator factors and conscientiousness, and positively enhanced each other.

On one hand, this study derives that the increases in conscientiousness improve the motivator factors. This result is similar to the Komarraju et al. (2009), where authors explore conscientiousness that significantly predicts (= .320) the motivator factors. Conscientiousness is a major component of "big five personality traits" and it intrinsically motivates the teachers in choosing the profession, doing tasks the job requires and performing high academic achievements. In this context, Tomsik (2018)

argues that conscientiousness shapes personality and influences the motivation level among teachers. The most notable feature is that this argument is highly relevant among TVET teachers. That is why the soaring level of conscientiousness gives higher a number of motivations in their job. So, the conscientiousness strongly predicts the motivator factors (Clark & Schroth, 2010; Tomsik, 2018) in this research. On the other hand, this study reveals that motivator factors heavily influence conscientiousness. This happens due to the presence of pleasant attitudes toward jobs and it yields satisfactory compliance behavior among teachers.

Furthermore, I found the differences in the amount of enhancement between conscientiousness and motivator factors and vice versa. More specifically, the motivator factors influence more in conscientiousness rather than conscientiousness enhances motivator factors. However, this result contradicts the previously established literature. Many authors (e.g. Clark & Schroth, 2010; Tomsik, 2018) claim that conscientiousness is strong a predictor of motivator factors. This variation influences the relationship between conscientiousness and motivator factors due to the existing social capital. It makes teaching more comfortable by increasing high conscientiousness among TVET teachers. However, due to the low opportunity for promotion and modest recognition, conscientiousness influences the least amount of motivation among employees.

Overall, the social capital influentially contributes both the motivator factors and the conscientiousness, and even establishes their affirmative relationships. Furthermore, the relationship between them creates the synergy in the organization and it enormously benefits the school by attaining high academic performances (Conrad & Patry, 2012), work effectiveness, work productivity (Cubel et al., 2016), and ultimately contribute to achieving organizational success.

CONCLUSIONS

The findings ascertain that the presence of a positive attitude and dignified nature of work contributes to TVET teachers demonstrating high conscientiousness and a moderate level of motivator factors. Likewise, the association between attitude and behavior reflects the positive relationship between conscientiousness and motivator factors, and they influence each other. However, the degree of contribution between conscientiousness and motivator factors seems different among TVET teachers. This variation is due to the existing social capital. It facilitates teaching as a noble profession, which motivates teachers to exhibit high conscientiousness whereas the existence of low promotion and recognition causes conscientiousness to

furnish diminutive intensity on motivator factors. Moreover, the affirmative bonding between conscientiousness and motivator factors construct positive vibes in school. Furthermore, it increases academic performances, productivity, effectiveness, and success among schools. These are extremely necessary for the arena of vocational and technical education in relation to the Nepalese context.

IMPLICATIONS

The relationship between conscientiousness and motivator factors is explained in the theory of big five factors (Hart et al., 2016). This research confirms the association between conscientiousness and motivator factors among TVET teachers in the context of Nepal. However, there are still many dimensions of conscientiousness and motivator factors that need to be uncovered concerning TVET school teachers. Thus, this research can provide literature as well as bringing up new issues such as "Conscientiousness and motivator factors: What makes the relationship between them?" to upcoming researchers in the analogous area of the study.

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Mississippi's 2011 Concealed Carry Law: Analyzing Reported Criminality among Mississippi's Public Community Colleges

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ABSTRACT

This study examined differences in reported campus criminality on selected community college campuses in the years between 2005 and 2016 representing the years preceding and succeeding the implementation of Mississippi's 2011 concealed carry legislation. Each campus included in this study is a public-funded community college in Mississippi. Using a significance level of 0.05 and an analysis of variance approach, the hypothesis testing showed five statistically significant findings reflecting the

cases of Copiah-Lincoln, East Central, Jones County, Mississippi Delta, and Northeast Mississippi Community Colleges.

INTRODUCTION

Across the nation, colleges and universities proclaim themselves as safe areas for working, living, studying, and visiting. In fact, institutions incorporate among their marketing strategies a message of institutional safety intended to resonate with potential students and parents alike (Tannehill, 2000). Campus safety is used during marketing and advertising to lure potential students and influence attendance decisions. What is realized is that members of academic communities have experienced violence within the campus setting. Campuses exhibit various dangers, including active shooters, sexual violence, assault, and property crimes.

For instance, in Nevada, Amanda Collins, a student and rape survivor, testified before the Senate State Affairs Committee that weapons prohibition contributed to her "inability to defend herself against her attacker" (Swearer & Becker, 2018, p. 1). Collins, held a Nevada handgun license legally permitting her to carry a concealed firearm (Swearer & Becker, 2018). However, the University of Nevada (Reno) policies disallowed firearms possession within the campus regardless of any weapons licensure (Swearer & Becker, 2018). The sexual assault occurred "just a few feet away from an emergency call box, in the parking garage of the campus police station, which had closed for the day" (Swearer & Becker, 2018, p. 1). Before his arrest, the rapist committed additional sexual assaults and murder before being stopped (Swearer & Becker, 2018).

Campuses seek to achieve a balance between accessibility and security. The nature of most institutions permits easy access to the campus, institutional buildings, offices, classrooms, and often residential facilities. With this openness, combined with the youth and inexperience of many of the students, the campus environment is potentially dangerous. As an example, crimes occurring within or near the academic setting include sexual assault (Waldron, Quarles, McElreath, Waldron, & Milstein, 2009); arson (Chekwa, Thomas, & Jones, 2013); assault (Coker, 2016); burglary (Chekwa, Thomas, & Jones, 2013); homicide (Doss, 2018a; Doss et al., 2017; Rao, et al., 2016); property crime (McGrath et al., 2014); robbery (Doss, 2018b); terrorism support (McElreath et al., 2018); and both theft and motor vehicle theft (McGrath, Perumean-Chaney, & Sloan, 2014). Typically, these categories are expressed within the annual Clery reports required to be provided by institutions of higher education.

For most institutions, the campus security function is an unwanted necessity. Institutions market the positive aspects of college life, especially safety. Parents do not send their offspring to colleges and universities to be arrested or harmed. High crime rates serve to deter enrollment and impact faculty recruitment and retention. For the academic administrator, a desire exists to emphasize a safe campus setting while deemphasizing potential dangers (McElreath, et al., 2013). While campus crime presents a multi-dimensional challenge, steps to ensure campus security and safety require flexible strategies crafted to meet challenges that are specific to individual campuses.

Steps to reduce campus endangerments range from compliance to legislation. Legislation may be applied toward enhancing campus safety and security via crafting and implementing laws that are intended to forbid dangerous items within the campus setting and to curtail dangerous behaviors thereby preventing or abating criminal incidents. Within academia, the issue of weapons within the academic setting is a very emotional topic. Among campuses, modern debates involving these concepts spur staunch opinions regarding weapons issues. Some argued that the presence of weapons within the college or university setting contributed toward enhanced safety (Birnbaum, 2012). Others believed that the presence of weapons represented unacceptable threats within the collegiate setting (Birnbaum, 2012). Given these notions, little consensus has existed regarding whether the presence of weapons enhances or detracts from campus safety.

Several states permitted some form of concealed weapons within the campus setting (Somers, Fry, & Fong, 2017). These states included Arkansas, Colorado, Georgia, Idaho, Kansas, Mississippi, Oregon, Tennessee (faculty possession only), Texas, Utah, and Wisconsin (Somers, Fry, & Fong, 2017). In 2011, Mississippi enacted legislation allowing concealed carry licensing. This legislation intentionally affected its higher education system.

Mississippi has an extensive system of public and private colleges, universities, community colleges, and vocational training institutions. This array included the institutions examined within this study: Coahoma Community College (CCC), Copiah-Lincoln Community College (CLCC), East Central Community College (ECCC), East Mississippi Community College (EMCC), Hinds Community College (Hinds CC), Holmes Community College (Holmes CC), Itawamba Community College, Jones County Junior College, Meridian Community College, Mississippi Gulf Coast Community College, Mississippi Delta Community College, Northeast Mississippi Community College, Northwest Mississippi Community College, Pearl River Community College, and Southwest Mississippi Community College. Each institution offers academic transfer, technical, and vocational programs (Mississippi Community College Board, 2016).

Each campus is a unique entity, with not only a unique physical plant, but also with its own identity, culture, and personality. Although the Second

Amendment facilitates firearm ownership, it is well within the authority of colleges and universities, unless restricted by existing legislation or regulation, to craft policies that defines the possession of weaponry within their respective environments (Somers, Fry, & Fong, 2017). Given these notions, this study examined whether Mississippi's 2011 concealed carry law measurably impacted reported criminality within its community college domain.

Higher Education and Safety Legislation

In the year 1748, in London, England, Henry Fielding conceptualized the foundational premises of crime prevention and meaningful enforcement (Berg, 1999). Fielding emphasized and advocated two concepts: eliminating existing criminality and preventing additional crime (Collins, Ricks, & Van Meter, 2015). Fielding's approach incorporated cooperating between enforcement and the citizenry (Berg, 1999). Fielding's notions emerged and matured historically to influence modern policing and enforcement. The common mission of contemporary policing involved the deterring of crime and the maintaining of societal order (McElreath et al., 2013). The mission also permeated modern higher education settings (McElreath et al., 2013).

British concepts of policing influenced American policing styles and paradigms. Within the U.S. higher education system, Yale University was credited with crafting the first security organization in order to mitigate difficulties between students and residents of the surrounding town (Powell, Pander, & Nielsen, 1994). Such issues were not uncommon within the higher education landscape.

Through time, the endeavors and activities of campus policing and legislators culminated in the concept of campus safety. Usually, modern campus safety paradigms involved student participation toward preventing crime (Hess, 2009). Campus safety also incorporated cooperativeness among factions of faculty, administrators, students for promoting awareness and crime prevention to avoid victimization (Hess, 2009). Examples of such policies and programs included neighborhood watch, awareness programs, office security, escorts, orientation programs, and so forth (Hess, 2009). Policies, programs, regulations, and ordnances affecting higher education settings must comply with law – whether local, state, or federal (Kaplin & Lee, 2014).

At the time of this authorship, within U.S. society, approximately 12.8 million individuals possessed permits, most all of who were law-abiding citizens (Fennell, 2009; Lott, 2016). Although someone may advocate concealed carry, no guarantee existed that an individual would actually carry a concealed weapon (Ghent & Grant, 2015). Constituents voting favorably toward concealed carry could express their advocacy for philosophical or moral reasons (Ghent & Grant, 2015). Others advocated concealed carry for

personal reasons, such as personal safety and protection, fear of crime, or fear of victimization (Hauser & Kleck, 2013). Surveying of the American populace showed that respondents believed that weapons contributed toward overall safety (Wolfson, Teret, Zarael, & Miller, 2017).

Infrequent campus shootings are a reality of higher education settings (McElreath, et al., 2014). Since 2008, following the Supreme Court's affirmation that the Second Amendment assured the self-defense rights of the citizenry and that firearms could not be prohibited among residences, copious debates occurred federally and among the states regarding whether campuses should permit or restrict the presence of firearms (Somers, Fry, & Fong, 2017). Derived from Arrigo and Acheson (2016), contention between concealed carry advocates and protestors involved a straightforward question: should compromise occur between the interests of learning environments and Second Amendment freedoms within the public safety and personal safety contexts? Thus, a consideration of security versus liberty has existed within the higher education domain.

Such a question may be addressed historically via consideration of campus shootings among U.S. higher education institutions. Nedzel (2014) examined various historical accounts from campus shootings between the years 1760 and 2014. Typically, within the examined period, incidents involved the random selecting of victims and some form of "mental imbalance" exhibited by the perpetrator (Nedzel, 2014, p. 431). The implementation of "gun-free school zones" in 1995 contributed toward increases of mass campus shooting incidents (Nedzel, 2014, p. 431). For instance, the initial decade of the twenty-first century produced a total of 21 incidents (Nedzel, 2014). Thus, Nedzel (2014) argued that modern initiatives toward disallowing campus firearms were both "ineffective" and "counterproductive" (Nedzel, 2014, p. 431).

Considerations of firearms laws and policies historically provided insight and perspective concerning modern issues and debates. The 1900s exhibited fluctuations in societal opinion and regulation of firearms marked by some types of legislative action followed by reversals (Vizzard, 2015). The 1930s exhibited the National Firearms Act and the Federal Firearms Act which resulted in the banning of "machine guns, sawed-off rifles and shotguns, silencers, and a few other odd firearms" (Vizzard, 2015, p. 882). During the 1960s, the murders of President John F. Kennedy, Robert Kennedy, and Martin Luther King, Jr., coupled with increasing criminality nationally, heralded national debate concerning firearms (Vizzard, 2015). During 1968, the U.S. Congress produced the Gun Control Act (GCA) which became the dominant federal legislation governing commerce related to marketing, sales and possession of firearms (Vizzard, 2015).

During 1971, the notions of prevention culminated in the originating of the National Crime Prevention Institute (NCPI). The NCPI lauded itself as a provider of domestic violence and sexual assault training (National Crime

Prevention Institute, 2019). Over the years, it provided services to Florida State University, University of South Florida, University of Delaware, University of Albany, and Louisiana State University Health Center, Shreveport (National Crime Prevention Institute, 2019).

The 1980s and the 1990s witnessed legislative changes affecting firearms. In 1986, the Firearms Owners Protection Act (FOPA) was enacted which revisited and revised portions of the earlier 1968 GCA legislation. The FOPA forbade forfeiting personal weapons if defendants were acquitted of charges, redefined firearms business and transactions, and disallowed any national gun registration database (Carter, 2012). In 1993, spurred by the 1981 attack on President Reagan in which White House Secretary James Brady was critically wounded, the Brady Act was passed into law. The Act mandated a specific period of waiting and criminal background check before delivery of a handgun between dealers and buyers (Vizzard, 2015). Further legislative change resulted in the crafting of an "instant check system" influencing the sales of all firearms (Vizzard, 2015, p. 883).

Federal law provided the basis for firearms ownership, transfer, and possession. Legislation and policy among the states can and does vary, but conforms to the structure of federal legislation and regulations. This notion holds true for concealed carry considerations. As an example, during March, 2017, Arkansas Governor Asa Hutchinson signed into law a bill that allowed concealed firearms at higher education institutions if the person holding the appropriate permits completed a required training course (DeMillo, 2017). Conversely, in New York, legislation and the State University Board of Trustees disallowed any firearms possession among higher education campuses (other than law enforcement officers) regardless of the existence of any concealed carry permits (State University of New York, 2017).

Arkansas

Within the state of Arkansas, Act 562 and Act 859 expanded the state's "concealed carry laws to include public colleges and universities" (University of Arkansas, 2019, p. 1). Requirements for carrying a concealed weapon included a minimum age of 21 (generally)," possession of an "Arkansas concealed handgun permit," and completion of "additional training of up to eight hours, as specified by the Arkansas State Police, to receive an enhanced concealed carry permit" (University of Arkansas, 2019, p. 1).

Colorado

Swearer and Becker (2018) indicated that the 2003 Concealed Carry Act established the state's processes for concealed carry permits and restrictions. Later, in 2012, the Supreme Court of Colorado decreed that the Colorado education system could not prohibit the carrying of concealed weapons among the state's higher education campuses (Swearer & Becker, 2018). Although the law failed to define the meaning of concealment, it did

indicate that holders of permits were to make reasonable attempts to keep the weapon from view (University of Colorado, 2019). After implementation of the legislation, after 2004, reported criminality at the University of Colorado increased 35% whereas reported crime at Colorado State University decreased by 60% (Cramer & Burnett, 2012). The former prohibited weapons whereas the latter permitted weapons within the higher education setting (Cramer & Burnett, 2012).

Georgia

Georgia also passed legislation permitting concealed carry among its higher education institutions. Bluestein (2017) indicated that concealed carry legislation became active in 2017. The law affected institutions in both the Technical College System of Georgia and the University System of Georgia (Stirgus & Prabhu, 2018). The law permitted concealed carry of weapons for individuals over the age of 21 years who possessed a firearms license (Touchberry, 2017). It facilitated higher education students and other individuals to carry concealed weapons among campus settings, tailgating, recreation centers, and various classes (Touchberry, 2017).

Idaho

Idaho, in 2016, also permitted concealed carry of weapons among its higher education settings. Russell (2016) indicated that Idaho became the eighth state to allow residents over the age of 21 to possess concealed carry weapons without a permit. However, excluded were individuals with criminal records, drug users, fugitives, or individuals with mental incapacitation (Hughbanks, 2018). Weapons could be carried provided that individuals possess an enhanced concealed carry permit (Hughbanks, 2018).

Kansas

During 2017, the state of Kansas enacted concealed carry among its higher education institutions (Cagle, 2017). Individuals were permitted to have weapons in dormitories, classes, and laboratories (Cagle, 2017). After implementation of the legislation, reductions of criminality occurred at the University of Kansas (Bisaha, 2018). Patrick (2018) indicated that reported crime decreased by approximately 13% in 2017. Assaults decreased by approximately 50% and car theft by about 66% (Patrick, 2018).

Mississippi

Mississippi established concealed carry among higher education settings in 2011. Beck (2018) indicated that that the legislation facilitated concealed carry among both schools and higher education settings, within courthouses (unless judicial proceedings were occurring), and various other locations. Swearer and Becker (2018, p. 1) indicated that the legislation prohibited public higher education institutions from banning carrying weapons by individuals who possessed "training-endorsed" firearms permits.

Oregon

During 2011, the Oregon Court of Appeals decreed that higher education institutions were unable to deny concealed carry permit holders their firearms among campuses (Johnson, 2015). Specifically, the Court decreed that banning guns among public higher education campuses surpassed institutional authority (Keyes, 2015). Oregon statues prohibited firearms among public places unless a concealed carry permit existed (Johnson, 2015). Although concealed carry was permitted, a campus shooting occurred at Umpqua Community College in 2015 wherein eight individuals died (Johnson, 2015).

Tennessee

During 2016, the Tennessee legislature enacted legislation that facilitated conceal carry among its higher education campuses provided that qualifying individuals "notified local law enforcement" (National Conference of State Legislatures, 2018, p. 1). Tennessee permitted limited concealed carry among its higher education settings (Swearer & Becker, 2018). Only full-time personnel among state institutions of higher education who possessed concealed carry permits were allowed to be armed within campus boundaries (Swearer & Becker, 2018). Students and others were disallowed and prohibited from carrying firearms (Swearer & Becker, 2018).

Texas

In 2016, legislation was enacted that facilitated campus carry by licensed individuals (University of Texas, 2019). The law stipulated that any campus regulations would neither prohibit, in general, nor have the effect of prohibiting licensees from possessing concealed weapons within the campus settings (University of Texas, 2019). Typically, licensees were over the age of 21 (Flores, 2017). Locational exceptions included sporting areas and certain laboratories (Lee, 2016). Notably, the law became effective on the fiftieth anniversary of the University of Texas clock tower shooting in which Charles Whitman massacred institutional personnel and students (Lee, 2016). Since its implementation, the law did not increase the risk of "firearm-related violence" (Warta, 2018, p. 1).

Utah

Swearer and Becker (2018) indicated that, during 2007, Utah became the initial state to permit concealed carry among public higher education campuses. However, the legislation was contentious and caused debate within the academic setting. For instance, after implementation of the law, a University of Utah graduate student, within her course syllabus, indicated that possessing weapons because of concealed carry was "absurd, antisocial, and frightening behavior" (Tanner, 2018, p. 1). Any students attending her class that possessed, via permit, concealed carry weapons were forced to stand within a "3 x 3 taped square" located in the back of the classroom (Tanner, 2018, p. 1). One day after classes commenced, the syllabuses was changed,

and the graduate student was reassigned to other duties (Tanner, 2018). Her actions violated both the U.S. Constitution and Utah's state law (Tanner, 2018).

Wisconsin

During 2011, Wisconsin allowed concealed carry within its higher education settings (Wisconsin State Legislature, 2011). Higher education campuses were to permit concealed carry weapons among campus settings, but individual campuses could prohibit weapons from infrastructure if signs were posted near entrances expressing prohibition (Wisconsin State Legislature, 2011). Within the higher education system, additional restrictions included dormitories and venues of special events (University of Wisconsin, 2019).

Mississippi Community Colleges

Maloney (2003) defined the notion of a community college as a two-year higher education institution that had access to some form of public funding. They may not necessarily be dependent on student tuition revenues (Maloney, 2003). Typically, community colleges offer undergraduate and specialty vocational programs. Degrees offered include the Associate of Arts (A.A.), Associate of Applied Science (A.A.S.), Associate of Science (A.S.), or some form of specialty certificate, such as career education. Such programs typically culminated in the completing of the first two years of a four-year university academic parallel transfer curriculum or a two-year terminal job-intensive technical or vocational curriculum (Sumrall, 2006).

During this study, the Mississippi Community College system consisted of 15 institutions that were geographically dispersed throughout the state. Respectively, the vision and mission for Mississippi's community colleges involved fostering an "environment of excellence to promote world-class education and job training for a more prosperous Mississippi" and systemic advancement "through coordination, support, leadership, and advocacy" (Mississippi Community College Board, 2019, p.1).

Mississippi community colleges received some notoriety for campus safety. Out of 490 colleges reviewed by the National Council for Home Safety and Security in 2019 (2019), Coahoma Community College and Northeast Mississippi Community College ranked as #192 and #377, respectively. The rankings were based on Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) and crime reports reflecting criminality in areas surrounding campuses (National Council for Home Safety and Security, 2019). In order to eliminate any effects of public relations efforts, institutional reports were excluded from the safety analysis (National Council for Home Safety and Security, 2019).

Research Question

The research question for this study was: Is there a statistically significant difference regarding reported criminality among Mississippi community colleges between the periods before and after implementation of the 2011 Mississippi Concealed Carry law across the years 2005 and 2016?

Crime Considerations

Glover and Doss (2017) indicated that crime was defined as anything society said it was via the legislative process; expressed and codified; and such legislation was made enforceable by proper government authority. Using crime categories included within the Campus Safety Database, this study examined several types of crime that impacted higher education settings. The array of crimes included aggravated assault; arson; burglary; murder and non-negligent manslaughter; motor vehicle theft; robbery; and sex offenses. Within this study, definitions of these crimes were as follows:

Aggravated assault – This category represented the "unlawful attack by one person upon another for the purpose of inflicting severe or aggravated bodily injury" (Federal Bureau of investigation, 2019a).

Arson – This category represented the "willful or malicious burning or attempting to burn, with or without intent to defraud, a dwelling house, public building, motor vehicle or aircraft, personal property of another, etc." (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2019b).

Burglary – This category represented the "unlawful entry of a structure to commit a felony or theft" (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2019c).

Motor vehicle theft – This category represented the "theft or attempted theft of a motor vehicle" (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2019d).

Murder and non-negligent manslaughter – These category represents the "willful (nonnegligent) killing of one human being by another" (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2019e).

Robbery – This category represented the "taking or attempting to take anything of value from the care, custody, or control of a person or persons by force or threat of force

or violence and/or by putting the victim in fear" (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2019f).

Sex crime – This category represented offenses that exhibited some "element involving a sexual act or sexual contact with another" (Vandiver, Braithwaite, & Stafford, 2017, p. 3).

RESEARCH METHOD

This study used a cross-sectional design toward examining whether a statistically significant difference existed before versus after the implementing of the 2011 Concealed Carry Law in Mississippi. The examined period ranged between the years 2005 and 2016. The examined higher education institutions consisted of the following public community colleges: Coahoma, Copiah-Lincoln, East Central, East Mississippi, Hinds, Holmes, Itawamba, Jones County, Meridian, Mississippi Gulf Coast, Mississippi Delta, Northeast Mississippi, Northwest Mississippi, Pearl River, and Southwest Mississippi. Sumrall, et al., (2008) indicated that these institutions were relatively homogenous given their common subordinacy to state oversight.

Data sets for each community college were obtained from the Campus Safety and Security database sponsored and maintained by the U.S. Department of Education. These data sets were limited to campus crimes that were reported within the campus setting during the examined period. Crime external to the campus and specialty crime categories were unexamined within this study. The aggregated annual values comprised reported crime quantities in the categories of murder, non-negligent manslaughter, negligent manslaughter, sex offenses, robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, motor vehicle theft, and arson. Data were used in aggregate values for each individual year comprising the examined period.

The independent variable within this study represented perspectives of aggregated values of reported annual criminality before versus after the enacting of the legislation. Thompson, Peteraf, Gamble, and Strickland (2012) indicated that strategic periods encompassed five years with respect to organizational long-term planning. Therefore, the independent variable spanned two separate periods representing the years 2005 through 2010 and the years 2011 through 2016. The dependent variable within this study represented criminality throughout the examined period.

For each examined case, data processing occurred through the analysis of variance (ANOVA) method using the *p*-value approach. Within the ANOVA calculations, segregation of data represented two groupings: data between 2005 and 2010 and data between 2011 and 2016. The significance level for hypothesis testing was 0.05. Using the Omega-square method, an examination of effect size was used to determine the magnitude of difference

regarding statistically significant outcomes. Based on the categories specified by Privitera (2017), effect size ranges were deemed as low (effect size value < 0.2), medium (0.2 ≤ effect size value < 0.8), and strong (effect size value ≥ 0.8).

Strategic periods typically encompassed an average of five years wherein sufficient understanding of environmental factors existed that facilitated necessary change and adaptation through time (Thompson, Peteraf, Gamble, & Strickland, 2012). Concealed carry legislation, in the State of Mississippi, has existed for well over five years. Thus, a substantial period exists whereby various examinations of its strategic influences among Mississippi's higher education campuses are feasible. Given this notion, this study examined whether any difference existed regarding annual reporting of criminality among Mississippi's community colleges concerning the strategic periods preceding and succeeding implementation of the 2011 concealed carry legislation.

Findings

Demographics

This study incorporated yearly crime aggregates for the period spanning the years 2005 and 2016. Table 1 shows the aggregated values for annual crimes for the two examined periods.

Table 1
Annual Crime Aggregates

Year	Reported Crime Aggregates 2005-2010	Year	Reported Crimes Aggregates 2011-2016
2005	155	2011	235
2006	172	2012	185
2007	179	2013	96
2008	238	2014	135
2009	258	2015	115
2010	179	2016	84

Regarding the amounts of reported crime, Table 2 shows measures of central tendency and measures of dispersion cumulatively for the considered periods.

Table 2
Cumulative Period Descriptors

Descriptor	Aggregated Crime Quantities for Entire Period, 2005-2016	Aggregated Crime Values, 2005-2010	Aggregated Crime Values, 2011-2016
M	169.25	196.83	141.67
Median	175.50	179.00	125.50
SD	55.86	41.08	57.89
VAR	3,120.39	1,687.77	3,351.07

Table 3 shows measures of central tendency and dispersion for the periods preceding and succeeding implementation of the legislation.

Table 3
Views Preceding and Succeeding Legislation

Institution	M_{Before}	M_{After}	Median Before	$Median_{After}$	SD_{Before}	SD_A fter	Var_{Before}	Var_{After}
Coahoma	10.67	5.17	10.00	4.50	5.79	5.71	33.47	32.57
Co-Lin	18.83	4.83	17.50	5.00	9.17	2.23	84.17	4.97
East Cent.	3.67	15.33	0.50	14.50	7.12	7.69	50.67	59.07
East MS	5.00	4.83	5.00	4.00	1.67	3.66	2.80	13.37
Hinds CC	35.67	34.83	33.00	31.50	17.61	24.39	310.27	594.97
Holmes	11.33	7.33	12.00	8.00	4.89	3.72	23.87	13.87
Itawamba	3.33	2.17	3.50	2.50	1.21	0.98	1.47	0.97
Jones	15.33	6.17	12.00	5.50	11.27	5.31	127.07	28.17
Meridian	8.67	5.33	7.50	4.50	7.84	3.39	61.47	11.47
MS Delta	5.33	9.17	5.50	8.00	2.25	3.54	5.07	12.57
Gulf Coast	16.00	15.33	13.50	9.50	7.67	14.39	58.80	207.07
Northeast	13.67	3.33	12.00	2.50	6.62	2.16	43.87	4.67
Northwest	37.17	15.67	12.50	7.50	16.12	21.03	259.77	442.27

Pearl River	6.00	7.83	6.00	8.50	1.90	1.94	3.60	3.77
South west	6.17	4.33	6.50	3.50	2.48	3.39	6.17	11.47

Coahoma Community College

The ANOVA method was applied against the data corresponding to Coahoma Community College crime reports representing the notion that no statistically significant difference existed between Coahoma Community College reported criminality before and after implementation of the 2011 Mississippi Concealed Carry law throughout the years 2005 and 2016. Hypothesis testing showed no statistically significant outcome regarding the null hypothesis ($F = 2.7486$, F-Critical = 4.9646, $p = 0.1283$; $\alpha = .05$). Thus, the null hypothesis was retained thereby suggesting no statistically significant difference existed concerning reported criminality before and after implementing the 2011 Concealed Carry law.

Copian-Lincoln Community College

The ANOVA method was applied against the data corresponding to Copiah Lincoln Community College crime reports representing the notion that no statistically significant difference existed between Copiah-Lincoln Community College reported criminality before and after implementation of the 2011 Mississippi Concealed Carry law throughout the years 2005 and 2016. Hypothesis testing showed a statistically significant outcome regarding the null hypothesis ($F = 13.1937$, F-Critical = 4.9646, p = 0.0045; $\alpha = .05$). Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected thereby suggesting a statistically significant difference existed concerning reported criminality before and after implementing the 2011 Concealed Carry law. The effect size corresponding to the statistically significant outcome was 0.5688.

East Central Community College

The ANOVA method was applied against the data corresponding to East Central Community College crime reports representing the notion that no statistically significant difference existed between East Central Community College reported criminality before and after implementation of the 2011 Mississippi Concealed Carry law throughout the years 2005 and 2016. Hypothesis testing showed a statistically significant outcome regarding the null hypothesis ($F = 7.44$, F-Critical = 4.9646, $p = 0.0212$; $\alpha = .05$). Thus, the null hypothesis was retained thereby suggesting no statistically significant difference existed concerning reported criminality before and after implementing the 2011 Concealed Carry law. The effect size corresponding to the statistically significant outcome was 0.4266.

East Mississippi Community College

The ANOVA method was applied against the data corresponding to East Mississippi Community College crime reports representing the notion that no statistically significant difference existed between East Mississippi Community College reported criminality before and after implementation of the 2011 Mississippi Concealed Carry law throughout the years 2005 and 2016. Hypothesis testing showed no statistically significant outcome regarding the null hypothesis ($F = 0.0103$, F-Critical $= 4.9646$, $p = 0.9211$; $\alpha = .05$). Thus, the null hypothesis was retained thereby suggesting no statistically significant difference existed concerning reported criminality before and after implementing the 2011 Concealed Carry law.

Hinds Community College

The ANOVA method was applied against the data corresponding to Hinds Community College crime reports representing the notion that no statistically significant difference existed between Hinds Community College reported criminality before and after implementation of the 2011 Mississippi Concealed Carry law throughout the years 2005 and 2016. Hypothesis testing showed no statistically significant outcome regarding the null hypothesis ($F = 0.0046$, F-Critical $= 4.9646$, $p = 0.9472$; $\alpha = .05$). Thus, the null hypothesis was retained thereby suggesting no statistically significant difference existed concerning reported criminality before and after implementing the 2011 Concealed Carry law.

Holmes Community College

The ANOVA method was applied against the data corresponding to Holmes Community College crime reports representing the notion that no statistically significant difference existed between Holmes Community College reported criminality before and after implementation of the 2011 Mississippi Concealed Carry law throughout the years 2005 and 2016. Hypothesis testing showed no statistically significant outcome regarding the null hypothesis ($F = 2.544$, F-Critical $= 4.9646$, $p = 0.1417$; $\alpha = .05$). Thus, the null hypothesis was retained thereby suggesting no statistically significant difference existed concerning reported criminality before and after implementing the 2011 Concealed Carry law.

Itawamba Community College

The ANOVA method was applied against the data corresponding to Itawamba Community College crime reports representing the notion that no statistically significant difference existed between Itawamba Community College reported criminality before and after implementation of the 2011 Mississippi Concealed Carry law throughout the years 2005 and 2016. Hypothesis testing showed no statistically significant outcome regarding the

null hypothesis ($F = 3.356$, F-Critical $= 4.9646$, $p = 0.0968$; $\alpha = .05$). Thus, the null hypothesis was retained thereby suggesting no statistically significant difference existed concerning reported criminality before and after implementing the 2011 Concealed Carry law.

Jones County Junior College

The ANOVA method was applied against the data corresponding to Jones County Junior College crime reports representing the notion that no statistically significant difference existed between Jones County Junior College reported criminality before and after implementation of the 2011 Mississippi Concealed Carry law throughout the years 2005 and 2016. Hypothesis testing showed a statistically significant outcome regarding the null hypothesis ($F = 13.1937$, F-Critical $= 4.9646$, $p = 0.0045$; $\alpha = .05$). Thus, the null hypothesis was retained thereby suggesting a statistically significant difference existed concerning reported criminality before and after implementing the 2011 Concealed Carry law. The effect size corresponding to the statistically significant outcome was 0.5688.

Meridian Community College

The ANOVA method was applied against the data corresponding to Meridian Community College crime reports representing the notion that no statistically significant difference existed between Meridian Community College reported criminality before and after implementation of the 2011 Mississippi Concealed Carry law throughout the years 2005 and 2016. Hypothesis testing showed no statistically significant outcome regarding the null hypothesis ($F = 0.9140$, F-Critical $= 4.9646$, $p = 0.3615$; $\alpha = .05$). Thus, the null hypothesis was retained thereby suggesting no statistically significant difference existed concerning reported criminality before and after implementing the 2011 Concealed Carry law.

Mississippi Delta Community College

The ANOVA method was applied against the data corresponding to Mississippi Delta Community College crime reports representing the notion that no statistically significant difference existed between Mississippi Delta Community College reported criminality before and after implementation of the 2011 Mississippi Concealed Carry law throughout the years 2005 and 2016. Hypothesis testing showed a statistically significant outcome regarding the null hypothesis ($F = 5.0000$, F-Critical $= 4.9646$, $p = 0.0493$; $\alpha = .05$). Thus, the null hypothesis was retained thereby suggesting a statistically significant difference existed concerning reported criminality before and after implementing the 2011 Concealed Carry law. The effect size corresponding to the statistically significant outcome was 0.3333.

Mississippi Gulf Coast Community College

The ANOVA method was applied against the data corresponding to Mississippi Gulf Coast Community College crime reports representing the notion that no statistically significant difference existed between Mississippi Gulf Coast Community College reported criminality before and after implementation of the 2011 Mississippi Concealed Carry law throughout the years 2005 and 2016. Hypothesis testing showed no statistically significant outcome regarding the null hypothesis ($F = 0.0100$, F-Critical = 4.9646, $p = 0.9222$; $\alpha = .05$). Thus, the null hypothesis was retained thereby suggesting no statistically significant difference existed concerning reported criminality before and after implementing the 2011 Concealed Carry law.

Northeast Mississippi Community College

The ANOVA method was applied against the data corresponding to Northeast Mississippi Community College crime reports representing the notion that no statistically significant difference existed between Northeast Mississippi Community College reported criminality before and after implementation of the 2011 Mississippi Concealed Carry law throughout the years 2005 and 2016. Hypothesis testing showed a statistically significant outcome regarding the null hypothesis ($F = 13.2005$, F-Critical = 4.9646, $p = 0.0045$; $\alpha = .05$). Thus, the null hypothesis was retained thereby suggesting a statistically significant difference existed concerning reported criminality before and after implementing the 2011 Concealed Carry law. The effect size corresponding to the statistically significant outcome was 0.5689.

Northwest Mississippi Community College

The ANOVA method was applied against the data corresponding to Northwest Mississippi Community College crime reports representing the notion that no statistically significant difference existed between Northwest Mississippi Community College reported criminality before and after implementation of the 2011 Mississippi Concealed Carry law throughout the years 2005 and 2016. Hypothesis testing showed no statistically significant outcome regarding the null hypothesis ($F = 3.9506$, F-Critical = 4.9646, $p = 0.0749$; $\alpha = .05$). Thus, the null hypothesis was retained thereby suggesting no statistically significant difference existed concerning reported criminality before and after implementing the 2011 Concealed Carry law.

Pearl River Community College

The ANOVA method was applied against the data corresponding to Pearl River Community College crime reports representing the notion that no statistically significant difference existed between Pearl River Community College reported criminality before and after implementation of the 2011 Mississippi Concealed Carry law throughout the years 2005 and 2016.

Hypothesis testing showed no statistically significant outcome regarding the null hypothesis ($F = 2.7375$, F-Critical $= 4.9646$, $p = 0.1290$; $\alpha = .05$). Thus, the null hypothesis was retained thereby suggesting no statistically significant difference existed concerning reported criminality before and after implementing the 2011 Concealed Carry law.

Southwest Mississippi Community College
        The ANOVA method was applied against the data corresponding to Southwest Mississippi Community College crime reports representing the notion that no statistically significant difference existed between Southwest Mississippi Community College reported criminality before and after implementation of the 2011 Mississippi Concealed Carry law throughout the years 2005 and 2016. Hypothesis testing showed no statistically significant outcome regarding the null hypothesis ($F = 1.1436$, F-Critical $= 4.9646$, $p = 0.3100$; $\alpha = .05$). Thus, the null hypothesis was retained thereby suggesting no statistically significant difference existed concerning reported criminality before and after implementing the 2011 Concealed Carry law.

Statistically Significant Outcomes
        Hypothesis testing for each of the individual community colleges showed several statistically significant outcomes. Hypothesis testing outcomes reflecting statistical significance corresponded to the institutions of Copiah-Lincoln, East Central, Jones County, Mississippi Delta, and Northeast Mississippi community colleges. Table 4 shows characteristics of the statistically significant hypothesis tests.

Table 4
Individual Hypothesis Testing Outcomes

Institution	F	F-Critical	p-Value	Effect Size
Co-Lin	13.19	4.96	0.0045*	0.5688
East Central	7.44	4.96	0.0212*	0.4266
Jones County	13.19	4.96	0.0044*	0.5687
MS Delta	5.00	4.96	0.0493*	0.3334
Northeast	13.20	4.96	0.0046*	0.5689

Note. *Significance level = .05

        Reviewing the means of the institutions exhibiting statistical significance showed fluctuations of reported criminality annually following the enacting of the legislation. Specifically, Copiah Lincoln showed a reduced mean from $M = 18.83$ to $M = 4.83$. East Central showed a mean increase from $M = 3.67$ to $M = 15.33$. Jones County exhibited a decrease from $M = 15.3$ to $M = 6.17$. Mississippi Delta saw an increase from $M = 5.33$ to $M = 9.17$. Northeast exhibited a decrease from $M = 13.67$ to $M = 3.33$.

Cumulative Analysis

The ANOVA method was applied against the data corresponding to aggregated crime reports representing the entire array of examined institutions. Hypothesis testing showed a statistically significant outcome regarding the null hypothesis ($F = 3.8983$, F-Critical $= 3.8984$, $p = 0.049$; $\alpha = .05$). Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected thereby suggesting a statistically significant difference existed concerning reported criminality before and after implementing the 2011 Concealed Carry law. The statistically significant outcome necessitated an examination of effect size. Thus, the effect size value was determined to be 0.02 thereby suggesting weak effect. The mean value for the 2005-2010 period was 196.83 whereas the mean value for the 2011-2016 period was 141.67. Thus, a reduction in the reported amounts of criminality appeared to have occurred with respect to the examined periods preceding and succeeding the implementation of the legislation.

Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations

A total of five statistically significant outcomes resulted from hypothesis testing. Examining the means of crime before and after the implementation of legislation revealed that three institutions showed crime decreases whereas two institutions showed crime increases. Given these outcomes, overall, it appears that decreases of crime were witnessed after the enacting of Mississippi's 2011 Concealed Carry Law. Thus, implications for policy among the state's community college may involve continued supportiveness for the law and the ability of citizens to exercise their Constitutional rights.

This study examined initially only a limited array of reported crimes versus implementation of the 2011 Concealed Carry law. Thus, it represents a starting point from which future research may be spawned using a variety of approaches. Future studies may examine different forms of criminality with respect to the 2011 legislation. For instance, among the examined campuses, additional research may investigate potential differences in the reported quantities of crimes against women or quantities of reported hate crimes preceding and succeeding the 2011 legislation.

Individual humans are the most important resource of any organization, and are the building blocks of any organization. Higher education institutions are no exception. Given these notions, future research endeavors may consider the effects of the 2011 legislation with respect to enrollment among Mississippi's higher education institutions. Essentially, future enquiries may question whether a statistically significant difference exists between institutional enrollment preceding and succeeding the implementation of the legislation.

Campus safety affects all higher education institutions throughout the nation. Thus, some consideration of a national scope is pertinent regarding

concealed firearms among colleges and universities. Using a different array of institutions, future research endeavors may examine similar scenarios among states wherein some form of concealed carry legislation was established. Similarly, future studies may examine the interaction between existence of concealed carry legislation versus enrollment among higher education institutions.

Campus safety data are often used as components of marketing and advertising among university settings. Uses may include recruitment for both potential employees and students. Given these notion, future studies may examine whether a relationship exists between crime reports and institutional enrollment, funding, or personnel quantities. Future studies may also investigate crime rates versus graduation rates.

This study was limited to community colleges in Mississippi. Excluded were four-year institutions of higher education. Future studies may repeat this study using four-year higher education institutions or vocational institutions as the examined population. Besides Mississippi, other states possess similar legislation. Additional studies may examine the legislation of other states.

Crimes associated with firearms are not the only types of criminality that may impact collegiate settings. All forms of crime have the potential to affect higher education settings. Perusal of categories reflected among institutional Clery reports shows an array of crimes that affect colleges and universities, ranging from motor vehicle theft to homicide. Given this notion, future research endeavors may expand the examination of campus criminality beyond the scope of firearms incidents. For instance, future studies may examine the potential interaction and strength of relationship between reported types of crimes versus institutional enrollment through time.

This study examined crime in physical reality. During modern times, given the advent and proliferation of electronic technologies that spawned the virtual worlds of cyberspace, new opportunities for crime exist that may impact academic settings. However, given the newness of cyberspace, policies and laws are emerging to govern and regulate the virtual domain. Regardless, cybercrime may be defined similarly and viewed similarly with its potential to impact higher education settings. Thus, another consideration of crime involves the virtual domain. Among virtual environments, motivations for cyber-crime parallel those catalysts that exist in physical reality (McElreath, et al., 2018). For instance, fake identities may be used to perpetrate enrollment fraud online among virtual settings similar to enrollment fraud that occurs in physical reality. Given such notions, future studies may examine whether the 2011 legislation had any impact regarding reported incidents of cyber-crime.

Law and policy are dissimilar entities. This study examined the 2011 Mississippi law that affected firearms among higher education settings. However, it was beyond the scope of this study to examine any facets of

policies that resulted from the legislation. Frei and Ruloff (1989) indicated that an average of 20 years of data should be collected and analyzed before effective policy assessment or evaluation may occur. Thus, since about two decades of data are required before policy analysis may be performed, future studies may examine various polices that resulted from the 2011 legislation.

Several of the authors of this study possessed law enforcement backgrounds. No consensus existed among the authors regarding the presence of firearms within campus settings. Some believed that they may contribute toward confusion during an attack. In other words, if an incident occurred, how would the responding police personnel distinguish the actual attacker from an innocent citizen wielding a firearm for self-defense purposes? Given these notions, future studies may examine the views of institutional personnel, students, or members of the general public within institutional service areas regarding firearms legislation and institutional policies.

Topics involving weapons among campus settings are pertinent for academic institutions both domestically and internationally. Although this study is applicable primarily for Mississippi institutions, its outcomes may provide insight for similar higher education institutions whose corresponding legislatures are debating and examining concealed carry legislation. Thus, although national generalizability is inapplicable for this study, it represents a starting point from which similar instances of concealed carry legislation may be examined among institutions of higher education.

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COVID-19 in Utah Valley: Perspectives from a Professor and Parent

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The second week of March 2020 presented an array of unique challenges for me both professionally and personally as I adjusted my work and home life to cope with the COVID-19 virus. I had already been ailing with what (I hoped) were seasonal allergies that left me coughing, bleary-eyed, and wondering if I might be sick with COVID-19 prior to the announcements from our university and school district that we should start self-isolating and preparing for at-home instruction. As both of my children at home are competitive gymnasts, we faced another decision about whether to keep them home from training.

As my work and personal email boxes began filling with announcements from my university, my department, my children's school, my children's gym, and even my church and extended out-of-state family, I had to fight back a growing sense of anxiety about the outside world as I looked after my physical recovery. Staying home from work, just as a symbolic gesture, made a lot of sense to me. I'd already afflicted my colleagues with my occasional coughing from my isolated office way down the corridor, but I didn't want to leave anything to chance. Although I presumed my odds of having COVID-19 were small after three trips to the doctor in the last month for secondary infections resulting from my allergies, who really knew? So, from my home office, I put into practice the skills I learned from doing remote instruction over the last several years.

Up until the present challenge, I had tried to access my email only in the morning and afternoon. As news and instructions came in from my university and department, email communication became a near-constant distraction/source of information. Following our university's lead, our college moved to all-remote instruction and social isolating. This meant moving to

the Zoom video conferencing app. Fortunately, I was quite familiar with the app, so I didn't have too hard a transition. However, at least a few of my colleagues had to make substantial changes to what and how they taught. Moreover, our students varied widely in how familiar and comfortable they were with the online interface. They valued our programs for their face-to-face emphasis, and now they were being asked to adjust everything about their experience within days. Moreover, most of my students are educational professionals themselves, so they were scrambling to provide direction and services to their own students. In the days following the university's move to all-remote instruction, I participated in several instructional and organizational meetings with administrators and colleagues to ensure we were all in accord about the adjustments we would make to classes, and I spent hours on email coordinating with students and responding to their personal and professional concerns. I greatly reduced planned whole-group instruction in favor of individual consultation. I felt frustration at my students as they requested that I take my class instruction down to the basics. As I was teaching a course on qualitative research methods, I already felt I was barely touching on the tip of the iceberg as it was. How more stripped down could I get? At the same time, I was still recovering physically from (what I hoped were) my allergies, so I recognized that some of my frustration was my body demanding time to recover.

To add to the challenges/opportunities of the first week into this at-home learning experiment, I had my two elementary-aged children at home with their own learning needs to consider. Even as I type, my third grader (who has an IEP) is in my office with me on i-Ready doing her daily math lesson on my university-issued iPad while my wife works with our sixth grader on her laptop. I find myself dividing my time between my third grader and my professional work, and I feel like neither is getting the attention they deserve. And yet, in the midst of the chaos, things *are* happening. Our children are getting more one-on-one time than they have in quite a while. They're happy and adjusting. I wonder about their peers. My children attend a Title I school, and many of their parents and caregivers don't have access to the same remote learning resources as they do. Many don't have parents at home to supervise the well-organized instruction their teachers have provided (almost miraculously) via Google Classroom. It's a strange new world in these early quarantine days, and I'm sure there are many opportunities and challenges ahead.

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The Remoteness of Remote Learning: A Policy Lesson from COVID19

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The measures enforced by governments to contain the highly contagious COVID19 pathogen laid bare the deep inequalities that beset education systems around the world. The lockdowns and subsequent closures of educational institutions have amplified the gap between the rich and the poor, not just between the Global North and the Global South, but within countries as well. As of April 6th, UNESCO reported that 188 countries have temporarily closed its educational institutions, while several countries implemented localized closures, affecting 1,576,021,818 learners. Accordingly, education authorities have urged for classes at all levels to be moved online, a sudden but necessary emergency response to COVID19. However, for disadvantaged groups, the problem is how to meet the basic conditions that remote learning requires.

Despite the ubiquity of concepts such as Internet of Things (IoT), or Digital Transformations, the digital gap between the rich and the poor remains a hard fact. According to the International Telecommunication Union (2019), although 93 per cent of the world's population lives within reach of Internet service, only around 53 per cent actually uses the Internet. This is a paradox that could be explained in part by issues of affordability, especially in the Global South where internet access remains a luxury. A case in point is the protest by the General Tunisian Union of Students (UGET) against the proposal of the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research to move to

online formats. UGET maintains that it violates principles of equality and equal opportunities, because not all students have access to Internet, personal computer or electronic gadgets such as tablets and smartphones (Sawahel, 2020, para. 2). Parallel to this, institutions and educators have to equip themselves with the necessary tools and skills at a staggering speed to shift to remote learning. But, the majority of institutions and educators worldwide lack sophisticated technology and experience in designing online learning environments (Altbach & de Wit, 2020). Apart from online platforms, other forms of media, such as television or radio, could be used to reach those learners who don't have access to the internet. This is of course not news, but the use of mass media requires sufficient time for planning and production if they are to respond to the requirements of school curricula in basic education or to program content in higher education. But during a pandemic, time is of essence. Remote education also necessitates an environment and atmosphere that is conducive to effective teaching and learning. But when living spaces do not allow for some peace and quiet time and family situations (such as forced furlough, unemployment or caring responsibilities) is an additional stress factor, the quality of education experience could suffer and potentially cause frustration to both learners and educators. Educators and learners alike who are marginalized and disadvantaged are thus at risk to be pushed further back and be at the losing end of the COVID19 measures. Thus, digital divide is real and it has real consequences to learning outcomes and to job security of educators and administrative staff.

The United Nations has provided a list of best practices and possible responses to prevent further disruptions in education. An interesting approach that applies to educational policy is to practice the spirit of "doing no harm" in and through education. Borrowed from the health sector, this principle suggests that policymakers should ensure that plans and programs do not harm anyone, and that all learners stand to benefit from intervention measures. In the case of remote instruction, if only some group of learners will benefit while the rest does not, then it should not be rolled out. This is the stance taken by, for example the Philadelphia School District in the United States and the Department of Education in the Philippines. The principle of "doing no harm" should thus become an imperative, not only in times of crisis. It requires a change in the mindset of policymakers and politicians as to how they

perceive and value education beyond metrics and economic approaches. On the other hand, it should not be used as an excuse to ignore the root causes of deep-seated education inequalities, such as unequal income opportunity, discrimination, or inadequate social policies to mitigate poverty. COVID19 pitchforked us into hitting that big red education reset button in terms of provision. Hopefully, policymakers and administrators will also take this opportunity to take a long, hard look at existing educational programs and policies and their serious implications to real and lived experiences of educators and learners during and beyond COVID19.

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At the Heart of a Teacher: Schooling in a Pandemic

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ABSTRACT

In a time of great crisis, teaching and learning has become personal. This essay examines what every and any teacher's heart has to be.

Keywords: teaching, schooling, COVID-19, global pandemic

> *The two most important days in your life are the day you are born and the day you find out why.*
>
> —Mark Twain

These are troubling times. A pandemic has swept the world with accompanying death and fear. As a lifelong educator, I think of its impact on our children and on their education. In the United States, schools are closed, and children are being "schooled" in their homes. Parents are deeply and intentionally involved in their children's learning in often new and rediscovered ways. Leading to more thought about what is at the core of the education of children in a democracy, this is an excellent time to consider and remember what is at the "heart" of a teacher.

Regardless of whether the teacher is in a K-12 or university classroom, at home, in the community or perhaps in church, there must be an important connectedness, a relationship, between teacher and learner. Also, between

the teacher, learner and subjects. That connectedness is the centerpiece of successful teaching, according to Parker Palmer (2007). Heart means "the place where intellect and emotion and spirit…converge in the human self" (11). The methods and pedagogy are not as important as bringing an authentic self to the task and to building rapport.

Being optimistic is an important and heartfelt attitude which is indispensable to being authentic. Kahneman (2011, 291) examines optimism in terms of the way it shapes how we engage with risk and, subsequently, take action. He argues that "when action is needed, optimism, even of the mildly delusional variety, may be a good thing" (ibid). An optimistic perspective is inspirational to those we teach. Indispensable to being present to students (no matter what age and circumstance) as real, positive, and optimistic, it motivates them to engage with their learning, participate in solutions and bring their full intellect and spirit to the cause (for case studies on optimism's effects, see; Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Leroy, Anseel, Gardner, & Sels, 2015; and Seligman, 2002 (Koerner, 2020).

These extraordinary times also bring opportunities. Amidst despair, we can reconnect both inside and outside formal educational contexts to the lives of children. It is a reminder of John Dewey's declaration that education is a process of actual living and not preparation for future living (Dewey, 1916). This re-newed connection between formal and informal education reminds us that student interests should drive instruction (Dewey, 1938). This means that children are viewed as unique individuals; students can be found busy at work constructing their own knowledge through personal meaning, rather than teacher-imposed knowledge and teacher-directed activities (Schiro, 2013). Connected learning is the perfect environment for this.

Twain's adage compels all of us to think about what is at the heart of our hearts. What is our purpose. Palmer (2007) eloquently says, "Small wonder, then, that teaching tugs at the heart, opens the heart, even breaks the heart" (11). For educators, regardless of role, our purpose is to connect with other human beings through our teaching. We become embedded in our community as we build our legacy.

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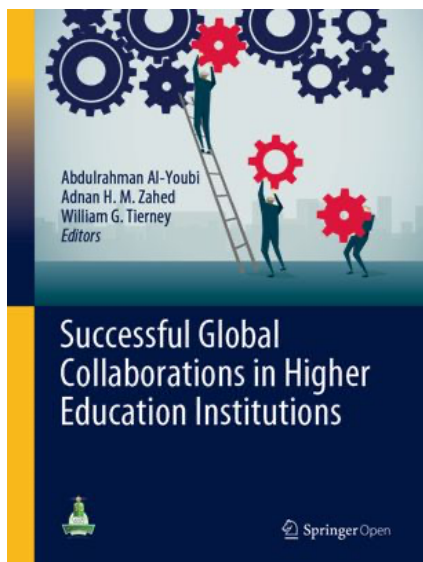
OJED
OPEN JOURNALS IN EDUCATION

Successful Global Collaborations in Higher Education Institutions

Reviewed by Taya Gaskins-Scott *Morgan State University, USA*

Successful Global Collaborations in Higher Education Institutions is an insightful read. This guide is geared towards university administrators, faculty, and staff who want to join forces with other institutions and make their universities preeminent institutions of the 21st century and beyond. The guide is broken into three sections with the first section being my favorite. The first section highlights King Abdulaziz University (KAU) who is the pioneer institution that created the blueprint for global collaborations. Personally, I have never heard of this university before opening the book. However, King Abdulaziz University collaborated with other academic and research institutions which catapulted them into their success in global ranks. The first section also highlights how institutions could create a climate that will assist in creating global partnerships.

Section two focuses on the transference of ideas and students. In my opinion, the students are the most important piece of transferring ideas. As a

student who studied abroad at Beijing Foreign Studies University and Shanghai University of Political Science and Law, I can attest to the transference of ideas that I experienced and witnessed. I and approximately 25 other students were afforded the opportunity to learn about the language, culture, and religion of Beijing and Shanghai over a two week period. We attended classes every day from 8am-2pm to learn the language of their people, cultural ways of life, and religious practices. I never dreamed of visiting the Great Wall and Confucius Temple, but I was able to touch, feel, and experience every bit of it. I personally believe that if students are granted the opportunity to study abroad, they should jump at the first chance to do so.

Section three emphasizes the importance of sustaining relationships. With any relationship you need a plan to assist with long term functionality. If there are no funds, no plans for forward mobility, and no cross over from administration to administration the relationships will not be sustained. This will then cause the students, faculty, administrators, and staff to suffer in the long run. As a university, there should be a foundation built upon relationships that can be sustained throughout the years. If there is a culture of sustainability built in the beginning of the process all stakeholders will win and the students will be satisfied with the outcomes.

Overall, this is a great read for current and future faculty, staff, and administrators of universities worldwide. I suggest that all presidents of higher education institutions incorporate this book into the faculty guide for the advancement and growth of institutions worldwide. This will be a life altering read and it will take any university to the next level.

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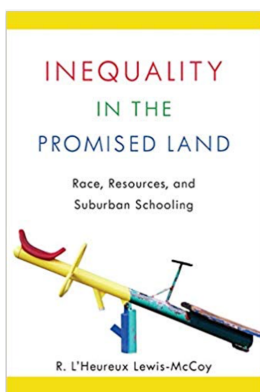
Inequality in the Promised Land: Race, Resources and Suburban Schooling

Lewis-McCoy, R. L. (2014). Stanford University Press. ISBN 9780804790703

Reviewed by Muhammad Sharif Uddin, *Morgan State University, USA*

Inequality the promised land: Race resources and suburban schooling is a well-written book by L' Heureux Lewis-McCoy, who conducted an ethnographic study in a suburban area in the mid-western United States for his doctoral dissertation. The dissertation evolved as an academic textbook due to its excellent description of the explored culture. He studied the relationship between families and those families' relationships with schools. Through this study, the author explored how invisible inequality and racism in an affluent suburban area became the barrier for minority students to grow up academically. Lewis-McCoy also discovered the hope of the minority community for raising their children for a better future.

Inequality in the promised land contains eight chapters. The first chapter, "Welcome to Rolling Acres," was the introduction of the whole study. Lewis-McCoy described in brief about the data collection procedures he used, including the description of the community where the study took place. The author conducted about 100 interviews with parents, children, teachers, administrators, and community members and observed two fourth grade classrooms in two elementary schools in the Rolling Acres in the midwestern United States. In this chapter, he also gave some snapshots of his findings. He mentioned how black families experienced significantly different treatment from the schools than those of their white counterparts.

The author said, "This book is not simply about what it means to be black or white in suburban schools; rather it is about how being white provides unearned and pervasive advantages that, in implicit and explicit ways, constrain the black families to harvest the fruits of the suburban frontier" (p. 18).

The second chapter, "From Concern Cultivation to Opportunity Hoarding," was about the influence of the affluent and white families to the schools. The families who raised their children through the concerted cultivation had a good connection with the schools and the schools always kept in touch with them for any school-related matter. Lewis-McCoy identified these practices as "The squeaky wheel gets the oil" (p. 43). These families influenced not only the schools but also the local school district. The author discovered that the affluent families created ownership over the school and the school district, due to their longstanding relationship, and strong social ties to local media. As a result, not only the poor black but also the poor white people became inferior to the school and the school district.

"Segmented Suburbia," the third chapter was about the families' desired educational outcomes in the Rolling Acres. The author identified the difference between the impoverished and affluent families in setting academic goals for their children. Lewis-McCoy has discovered that the majority of the black families "Pushing their children's pursuit of education was to get a job that was better than their own" (p. 57). The author named it a "utility-focused approach." On the other hand, the middle class and affluent families thought that education was for "Intellectual exploration and more abstract concepts of social good" (p. 57), which the author named as an "abstract approach." The author also discovered that the social network of the families has a significant influence on setting their children's career goals.

The fourth chapter, "Making Your Public School Private," was about the dominance of the affluent families over the school and how the school was providing undue privileges to these people by the name of parental engagement. Lewis-McCoy found that social networks were critical factors for parental involvement and advocacy. Though the families of color and other low-income families had social networks, these networks did not allow a similar level of information and advocacy as the networks of the white middle-class and affluent families did. When the school provided any program such as a special session with administrators, wealthy white families worked diligently to give access to their similar kinds of families. According to the author, through the black and white families lived in the same location, did not have similar home-school relation.

"A Few Bad Apples Are Racist" was the fifth chapter that described the author's findings of how people defined racism in the Rolling Acres. The author discovered that the experience and notion about racism were

different among the generations. The school-going black children saw racism differently and commented that those who were "bad apples" thought that race was a matter. Their parents believed that their children would eventually know the truth of racism in their real-life, which existed for generations in a different shape.

The sixth chapter, "Culture as a Hidden Classroom Resources," was about how the teachers used the white middle-class culture in conducting teaching-learning in the studied schools. According to the author, "Teachers, both intentionally and unintentionally, used toolkits from their culture to develop strategies of interaction" (p. 119). The teachers used to employ white-culturally relevant pedagogy favoring the white and affluent. The students of color were unfamiliar with those pedagogies and could not cope with them; thus, the achievement gap was always visible. Lewis-McCoy also discovered from his observation that the teachers treated the students from the racial and economic minority in a different manner than their affluent counterparts.

"Black Exodus," the seventh chapter, talked about the class division among the people of color. Many middle-class and affluent black people had their choice of choosing their children's school. These families had social, economic, and cultural capital; thus, they influenced the school as the white middle-class and affluent had. The author quoted a wealthy black mother who said that "Educational customization was available to black families in public schools if they were able to push their social and cultural capital to work" (p. 152). Lewis-McCoy did not find the unified black community. The poor people of color had no voice and choice, and the affluent people of color did not raise their voice for the economically weak families even for the same race.

The last chapter, "Hope in the Promised Land," is the conclusion of the study conducted by the author Lewis-McCoy. He showed three significant findings that hindered the people of the impoverished community from getting equal access in the school resources. The first one was "resource provision." The school authority provided supplementary resources and services, "such as tutoring, enrichment club, and off-campus resources" (p. 162), and the families who had a close connection with the schools got the information first and took advantage. The second one was "resource value." The people of the minority community failed to understand the value of the programs that the school offered due to the stratification of information among the parents. "Resource utilization," the third one was about the uses of school services. The author found that the school provided services such as transportation, meal, childcare for siblings, and the minority families always expressed concern about the school's deliberation of information and giving access to all as they could not enjoy the resources. Though all of the disparities, the author saw hopes in the eyes

of those parents in that community to have a better education and a better future for their children. In the concluding thought, Lewis-McCoy said, "I observed black parents and children with a strong desire to perform well academically" (p. 172).

Conducting an ethnographic study in a suburban area in the midwestern United States, where the best schools located, Lewis-McCoy discovered the real scenario of how economic and social capital of the families became the trajectory to their children's education. The low-income families, even from the majority white community, found that high-quality education was desirable but not attainable. According to the author, "The disconnect between aspiration and realities was shaped by racial and economic fault lines that too few teachers, families, and scholars have been willing to address" (p. 172). At last, I can say that quality education for all is just a myth and a mere promise of the politicians that never exists in the real field. The findings are a wake-up call for the teachers, administrators, and policymakers to work diligently to ensure the promise of equality in education for all.

Reference

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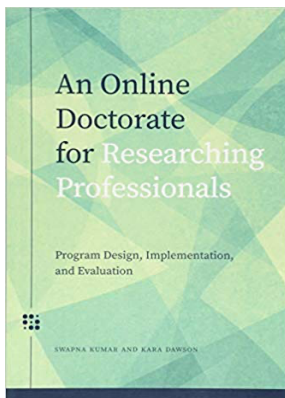
An Online Doctorate for Researching Professionals: Program Design, Implementation, and Evaluation

Kumar, S., & Dawson, K. (2018). AU Press ISBN: 9781771992084

Reviewed by Tolulope Ajayi, *Morgan State University, USA*

An Online Doctorate for Researching Professional was written with the view of developing new perspectives that would expand the horizon of Ph.D. students in higher education. The authors proposed a framework that can be used to develop online programs that would meet the needs of the working professionals. Online doctoral programs have become necessary because the traditional Ph.D. programs in education were not enough to meet the desires of the working professionals who are interested in furthering their education and carrying out applied research while continuing full-time employment. Kumar and Dawson (2018) saw this as an opportunity after they noticed that the last two decades have witnessed a tremendous development in internet and communication technologies. They believed that these developments could lead to the possibilities for virtual environments that would facilitate doctoral level experiences at a distance. As a result, the authors presented a model that focused on an online professional doctorate program that combined theory, research, and practice. The explanation for the development of an online environment was done using the example of the online professional doctorate in educational technology at the University of Florida (UF EdD EdTech).

The book is divided into three parts; the first part describes the theoretical foundation, design, and model for researching an online

professional doctorate. The second chapter of this part highlighted the different theories about adult learning and described how the knowledge of these theories cab be used in designing an online professional doctoral curriculum for connecting theory, research, and practice.

Part 2 of the book dwells on the implementation of the online program. Also, it considers the most challenging aspect of online professional doctorate programs, which is the creation of a community of online researching professionals who are scholars. The authors explained the essential design of the community of inquiry (CoI) model that they had adopted for supporting student's sense of belonging to their doctoral program. This part included chapters on fostering scholarly thinking among professionals, and also provided an online curriculum that helps in the promotion of scholarly reading, writing, information literacy, and enculturation. Scholarly thinking was further encouraged in the detailed descriptions of the assignments and activities to show their alignment and support for student scholarly development. The authors described how the integration of designed interactive learning activities, within the course, supported students through candidacy and the dissertation stages. Finally, this section described the structuring of the dissertation that connects theory, research, and practice. The second part contains useful information for online programs. This is however, faulted through the repetition of similar information in different instructional goals.

The third part of the book is the evaluation of an online professional doctorate. This part addresses the maintenance of the quality of an online doctorate, and the assessment of the impact of an online program. The authors (Kumar & Dawson, 2018) noted that the last two decades have witnessed an increased expansion of online education, which resulted in the development of standards, technical infrastructure, acceptable, and intellectual policies, support for online course development and faculty programs in online teaching.

The book has enhanced the knowledge base and the ability to offer online programs through learning management systems, student information system, synchronous and asynchronous technologies, and mobile applications. Other books that provided a comprehensive overview of various aspects of online education were also acknowledged.

I recommend this book for institutions and individuals that are considering offering an online Ed.D. programs. The book contains supportive examples of the experiences of the authors. The model proposed by the authors, Kumar and Dawson (2018), is not limited to the United States nor education. The guidelines for the program design, implementation, and evaluation described the best practices required for any online graduate program development initiative.

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