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Editor:
Nirwan Idrus
PhD_{Monash}**IQA**_{London}

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EDITORIAL BOARD

EDITORIAL

This edition of JIRSEA contains a refreshing array of articles with three forming one group dealing with students and three forming another group on university/faculty leadership and teaching staff. It is not often that we could conveniently assemble articles in this way.

The first group includes articles on academically at-risk students, risks of internet addiction among undergraduates and student-centered assessment of learning outcomes. These articles haul us out of the *traditional* aspects involving students, to other aspects that had rarely been discussed hitherto while they are rapidly gaining attention elsewhere.

While it has been realized that education is expensive, only relatively recently came an acceptance that students' failures are increasingly no longer an option. At the same time it is the fact that students come from diverse education and cultural backgrounds. Higher Education institutions (HEIs) therefore must satisfy themselves that they have done their utmost to cater for students with various risks – academic, social, cultural, physical and mental. The three articles in the group dealing with students cover most of these challenges and extol the virtues of their individual approaches to solving them.

The articles in the second group discuss various aspects of HEIs staff right up to leadership styles. To a large extent they advocate introspection in order to move ahead. This certainly is uplifting particularly in Southeast Asia where *teacher as a sage* mentality is pervasive and introspection is only a remote prospect.

Both groups of articles seem to carry the message that efforts for and objectives of winning the world ranking competition for ranking's sake are slowly phasing out. There seems to be a refreshing change of focus towards internal improvements for the benefits of students. Such moves help towards better access and better ability of the HEIs to cater for more diverse student body, something that developing countries had been aspiring to with little success to date.

Arizona State University in the USA is recognized as the New American University for taking the path against elitism. Among its missions is to *Demonstrate <u>leadership</u> in academic excellence and accessibility* by maintaining the fundamental principle of accessibility to all students qualified to study at a research university; Maintain university accessibility to match Arizona' socioeconomic diversity; Enhance university graduation rate to 75% - 80%; Enhance linkages with community colleges so as to expand baccalaureate degree production to national leadership levels and Enhance measured student development and individual student learning to national leadership levels. It also encourages involving undergraduates in current staff research projects, something many universities in Southeast Asia currently strongly discourage.

Nirwan Idrus
Editor

THE EFFECTS OF TEAM WRITING AND STUDENT-CENTERED ASSESSMENT ON UNDERGRADUATES' LEARNING OUTCOMES, TEAM DEVELOPMENT, AND ASSESSMENT SATISFACTION

Walaipun Puengpipattrakul
Language Institute, Chulalongkorn University
Bangkok, Thailand

Abstract

This paper embodies some alternative resolutions to the teaching-learning-assessing dilemmas in English-language education in Thailand. This experimental research-designed and mixed-method study aimed at investigating the effectiveness of four pedagogical intervention modes on 97 first-year science undergraduates' learning outcomes, team development, and assessment satisfaction. The quantitative findings showed significant interaction effects of team writing and student-centered assessment on the students' learning outcomes, team development, and assessment satisfaction at the .05 level. The group of students who received the instructional modes of team writing and student-centered assessment outperformed all those who experienced the other three modes. Additionally, no significant difference was found in the students' opinions about learning outcomes and team development, but a significant difference was found in overall assessment satisfaction. The qualitative data from the focus-group interview responses of high proficient and limited proficient students revealed pertinent issues for English-language learning and writing instruction in the Thai EFL context.

Keywords: team writing, student-centered, learning outcome, team development, assessment satisfaction, Thailand

Introduction

Human resources development potential and capability can be enhanced through educational reform, formal and informal learning processes, development of self-directed learning systems and support systems for life-long education (National Research Council of Thailand, 2014: 1). One of the consequences of the 1997 Constitution of Thailand and the 1999 National Educational Act was the 2002 National Education Curriculum, which emphasized the promotion of life-long education to develop students' affective and cognitive skills as well as social-cultural and moral-ethical knowledge (Wongsothorn et al., 2002). With the emphasis on life-long education in the curricula, educational institutions in Thailand were required to provide basic education including English language education to all Thai students.

In the 2012-2016 National Research Policy and Strategy, universities in Thailand were required to adjust, develop, and alter the evaluation (if any) of course curricula, including learning and instruction, so they were learning outcome-based by the year 2012 (http://www.asef.org). Five basic criteria were used to measure the outcome-based curriculum in the national TQF (Thai Qualifications Framework) for higher education: knowledge, ethical and moral development, cognitive skills, interpersonal skills and responsibility, and analytical and communication skills. The emergence of these national educational agendas ignited expectations for the quality of education to be enhanced and simultaneously resulted in dilemmas in English language education.

Statement of the Problems

Unresolved challenging issues affect English language classroom learning and writing instruction. In addition to the perennial problems of Thai higher-education learners' writing skills in English (Asian Scientist Newsroom, 2011; ETS, 2005 & 2010; EF English proficiency index, 2012; Test and score data summary for TOEFL, 2012), students also have insufficiently developed thinking skills and lack opportunities to participate in the writing assessment process due to the classroom's competitive atmosphere. Concurrently, from the writing instructor's viewpoint, the provision of written feedback on learners' tasks is time-consuming as well as being ineffective as learners do not seem to learn from such feedback (Norton, 2009). This study was conducted to provide learners with chances to participate in the blended provision of team writing and student-centered assessment in order to resolve such teaching—learning—assessing dilemmas for learners and instructors.

The study aimed at (i) investigating and comparing the effects of team writing (TW) and student-centered assessment (SCA) on learning outcomes, team development, and assessment satisfaction of the participants after receiving four different modes of instruction: TW, SCA, TW and SCA, and normal instruction (neither TW nor SCA); (ii) evaluating whether and to what extent there was any significant difference in their opinions on learning outcomes, team development, and assessment satisfaction after the participants received four different modes of instruction; and (iii) exploring the opinions on learning outcomes, team development, and assessment satisfaction between high proficient and limited proficient groups after they received different modes of instruction.

Learning Outcomes – Team Development – Student-Centered Assessment

"Every student can learn, just not on the same day, or the same way."

(George Evans)

Effective learning and instruction including assessment and evaluation are necessarily based on a teacher's understanding of students' learning demand and methods as well as his or her ability to design classroom activities in response to course objectives (Fry et al., 2009). It is accepted that learning and instruction difficulties could bring about a gap between students and their teacher. This further affects the effectiveness of classroom learning and instruction and subsequently students' learning outcomes (Evans, 2013). It is difficult to teach individual students so they achieve the same course objectives while developing their thinking skills since these students must also simultaneously concentrate on their own learning.

"Variation theory" was introduced to explain problems in students' learning differences (Bussey et al., 2013). The theory describes such causes as students' different learning backgrounds and experiences which make them understand the same learning issue differently. Owing to Bussey et al.'s (2013) variation theory, student-centered learning and instruction has become a focus. Student-centered instruction needs to be explicit skill instruction which stimulates students' understanding of how to think, solve problems, put knowledge into practice (Weimer, 2012) in accordance with Bloom's (1971 cited in Forehand, 2005) development of thinking skills and learning. Learning and instruction in the form of "small groups" is regarded as a means to develop students' senses of participatory learning and cooperative and collaborative learning (Griffiths, 2009). When students work as a team, their process of cooperative and collaborative learning is significantly influenced by team effectiveness and team development (Fransen et al., 2013). During the teamwork exercise, the members are required to work together in groups to complete a learning task with a joint learning goal. This helps develop students' social skills. As Johnson & Johnson (1996b) state, social skills have four aspects: facilitating understanding, intellectual challenge, cooperative attitude, and leadership skills. Griffiths (2009) and Fransen et al. (2013) also point out that teamwork requires advanced skills, particularly in team tutors or leaders. They need teaching ability and techniques since team members normally have different behaviors that are likely to lead to intra-group conflicts.

In addition to student-centered learning and instruction, students' learning outcomes needs to be assessed between and after learning and instruction through assessment design and feedback (Norton, 2009). Student-centered assessment should be considered a strategy focusing on students' learning and authentic assessment that required cooperation and collaboration in the learning process in the classroom (Huba et al., 2011). Providing students with chances to reflect on and assess their own and classmates' written tasks is part of students' learning from authentic experience that leads to learning autonomy and lifelong learning (Fry et al., 2009). Reflective journal writing can be one of the tasks facilitating students' formative assessment (Irons, 2008) or alternative assessment (Author, 2014a) since it offers realistic measurements which help students to be aware of their linguistic development and learning processes (Richards &

Renandya, 2003). Evidently, students' assessment satisfaction is regarded as an indicator measuring the outcome from the use of the student-centered assessment (Evans, 2013; McKimm, 2009) and a quality and performance gauge indicating their learning and assessment experiences (Gurpinar et al., 2013; Oliver, 1989).

Methodology

Research Purposes and Design

The experimental research project employed mixed methods (Cameron, 2011; Check & Schutt, 2012; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013). The research framework of the study is illustrated in Figure 1.

This experimental research-designed study contains two sets of relevant pedagogical-intervention variables: independent and dependent variables. The first set contains two independent variables: team writing (TW) / individual writing (IW) and student-centered assessment (SCA) / teacher assessment (TA). The second set includes three dependent variables: learning outcomes, team development, and assessment satisfaction. In Figure 1, the research framework is described by the impacts of independent variables on dependent variables. The groups of dependent variables are shown in Table 1.
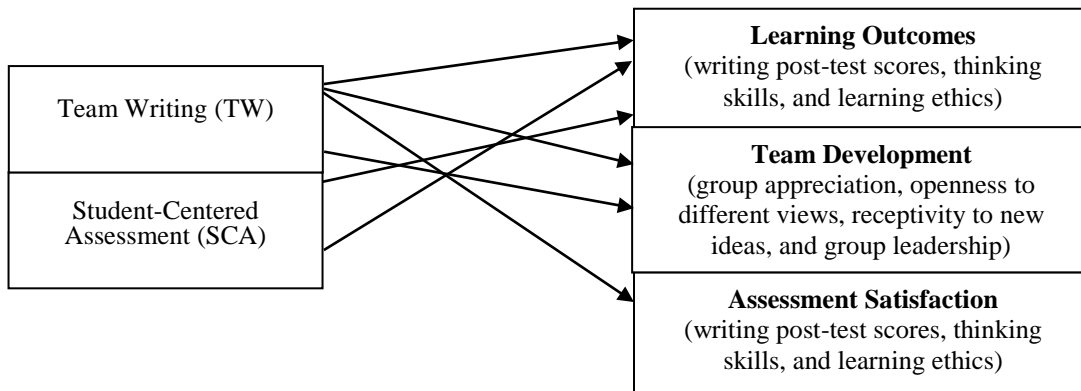
Figure 1: Research framework

Table 1: Summary of dependent variables

Dependent Variable	Component	Instrument
1. Learning Outcomes	1.1 Writing achievement (i.e. pre-test and post-test scores)	- Summary writing pre- and post-tests and proposal writing pre- and post-tests
	1.2 Thinking skills (i.e. self-regulation, critical thinking, and	- Writing task checklist (for the participants'

Dependent Variable	Component	Instrument
	creative thinking)	*practices* of dependent variables)
	1.3 Learning ethics (i.e. responsibility for own writing, responsibility for assessment, fairness in writing, and fairness in assessment)	- Self-assessment form (for the participants' *opinions* on dependent variables)
2. Team Development	2.1 Group appreciation 2.2 Openness of different views 2.3 Receptivity to new ideas 2.4 Group leadership	
3. Assessment Satisfaction	3.1 Learning activation 3.2 Learning integration 3.3 Learning progress 3.4 Feedback application	- Writing task checklist (for the participants' *practices* of dependent variables)
	3.1 Teaching process 3.2 Learning process 3.3 Feedback process 3.4 Teaching and learning (writing) activities	- Self-assessment form (for the participants' *opinions* on dependent variables)

The research design of the study can be symbolized as in Table 2.

Table 2: The 2X2 randomized control group design and experimental design

Assessment Pattern	Writing Pattern		Experimental Design
	TW	IW	A: Y_{1A} TW & SCA Y_{2A}
SCA	Group A: TW & SCA	Group C: IW & SCA	(R) B: Y_{1B} TW & TA Y_{2B} C: Y_{1C} IW & SCA Y_{2C}
TA	Group B: TW & TA	Group D: IW & TA	D: Y_{1D} IW & TA Y_{2D}
			Remarks: 1 = pre-test, 2 = post-test

In this case: TW = team writing

IW = individual writing

SCA = student-centered assessment

TA = teacher assessment

Before the experiment or before starting the pedagogical interventions, the extraneous variables in the study were controlled. Before receiving different modes of the interventions, the learning outcome (i.e. English language writing achievement), team development, and assessment satisfaction of all participants in a control group and three experimental groups were presumably similar or relatively equivalent. This is due to the participants' similar experience with the same systems of English language writing instruction and assessment (i.e. same learning communities,

learning environment, atmosphere of school and university classroom settings, and the humid climate of Thailand). Thus, the prior levels of English language learning and writing motivation of all participants before the implementation of this study were similar.

Additionally, four groups of all participants who enrolled in four class sections were randomly selected through the university's registration system; thus, the participants' gender was not relevant. As long as the students were willing to participate in the learning and teaching activities, the issue of the students' gender is not sound (Morgan, 2013). In this present study, since the participants gave informed consent and had no prior learning experience of team writing and student-centered assessment in writing classes, their team development and their assessment satisfaction before the study were presumably equivalent. Moreover, in this study, there was presumably no bias in the implementation of the four pedagogical interventions since the same instructor provided randomly selected pedagogical treatments to all four class groups.

As seen in Table 2, during a ten-week period of instructional strategy use—team writing (TW) and student-centered assessment (SCA) —four groups of 97 participants were in four treatment modes of instruction: TW, SCA, (TW and SCA), and normal instruction (neither TW nor SCA). That is, group A was given lectures using the integration of the TW and SCA lesson plans and employed rubrics for summary/proposal writing tasks. Group B was given lectures using the TW lesson plan as well as the normal instruction lesson plan (i.e. the participants utilized rubrics for summary/proposal writing tasks, while the instructor utilized summary/proposal writing criteria in the writing assessment.). Group C was given lectures using the normal instruction lesson plan as well as the SCA lesson plan and employed rubrics for summary/proposal-writing tasks. Last, group D was given lectures using the normal instruction lesson plan (i.e. the participants utilized summary/proposal-writing task rubrics, while the instructor utilized summary/proposal writing criteria in the writing assessment.).

Participants

The participants were 158 first-year university undergraduates (i.e. 61 students in the pilot study enrolled in Foundation English course in the first semester and 97 students in the main study enrolled in the second semester of the 2014 academic year) from the Faculty of Science at a university in Thailand.

Out of 97 participants, there were 54 female (approximately 56%) and 43 male (approximately 44%) first-year students. The participants had homogeneous backgrounds in terms of age range, native language, year of study, level of study, and faculty. The participants were divided into four class groups (i.e. one control class of IW_TA and three experimental classes of TW_SCA, IW_SCA, and TW_TA) based on four different modes of pedagogical interventions as shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Four groups of the participants based on four pedagogical interventions

Group	Writing Pattern_ Assessment Pattern	n	Percent (%)
1	TW_SCA	29	29.9
2	IW_TA	20	20.6
3	IW_SCA	26	26.8
4	TW_TA	22	22.7
	Total	97	100.0

Note: IW_TA: The control group

Data Collection and Analysis

This research project employed experimental research design with the mixed method (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007; Check & Schutt, 2012). The project covered the pilot study (i.e. in the first semester of the 2014 academic year between August and December, 2013) and the main study (i.e. in the second semester of the 2014 academic year between January and May, 2014). After the implementation of the pilot study to test the validity and the reliability of research instruments with 61 participants from an experimental class and a standard class, the instruments were developed and utilized in the main study.

In order to answer all the research questions of the main study, quantitative data were collected from *a test of English proficiency* (its validity and reliability was approved by the university's academic committee), *writing tests* (the content validity was verified by three experts while the inter-rater reliability (the computed Pearson correlation *r*) was .99 in summary writing and .97 in proposal writing), *writing task rubrics and checklists*, *team writing (TW) scoring sheet, student-centered assessment (SCA) sheet,* and *self-assessment form*. In order to analyse the students' practices on dependent variables (Table 1), *the writing task checklists* which were assessed by an instructor were utilized with students' written tasks scored through *writing task rubrics*, nine-week *reflective journals, TW scoring sheet, and SCA sheet*. In order to analyze the students' appraisals for their opinions toward dependent variables, a 70-item *self-assessment form* was used. Its validity was verified by three experts and its reliability index (Cronbach α-coefficient) was .84. Additionally, qualitative data were collected from *reflective journals* and *a focus-group interview*.

Findings and Discussion

Prior English Language Proficiency: The Participants

- *Is there any significant difference in learning outcomes on English language proficiency among four groups of the participants before receiving four different modes of*

instruction: TW, SCA, TW and SCA, and normal instruction (neither TW nor SCA)? If so, to what extent?

Prior to the provision of four different modes of pedagogical interventions, the participants' English language proficiency levels were tested to determine their initial entry scores using the university's standardized test of English proficiency. Non-significant differences were found between the four groups (F = .52, p > .05). This means that the levels of English language proficiency of the 97 participants from four classes were at a similar or equivalent level. Thus, based on hypothesis testing (1), the null hypothesis was rejected or the alternative hypothesis was accepted.

$$\text{Rejected } H_0 \ (\mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \neq \mu_3 \neq \mu_4)$$
$$\text{Accepted } H_1 \ (\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = \mu_4)$$

The non-significant difference in the English language proficiency of the four groups of participants could be due to the fact that all participants were homogeneous in terms of their university science discipline. According to the studies by Berthiaume (2009), Hughes & Overton (2009), and McAllister & Alexander (2009), students' thoughts, nature of knowledge, beliefs about English language learning, and socio-cultural characteristics could be influenced by the same institutional or disciplinary context. In this current study, without any initial input of different instructional treatments, the participants' English language knowledge and beliefs about English language learning were not much different. If there was a significant difference after pedagogical intervention later on, it would be likely due to the treatment.

Effects of TW and SCA on Learning Outcomes, Team Development, and Assessment Satisfaction: The Participants

A. Practices toward Learning Outcomes, Team Development, and Assessment Satisfaction

- *What are the effects of TW and SCA on learning outcomes, team development, and assessment satisfaction among the four groups of participants after receiving four different modes of instruction: TW, SCA, TW and SCA, and normal instruction (neither TW nor SCA)?*

(i) Practices on Learning Outcomes

The quantitative data analysis of learning outcomes utilized 194 pre-test and post-test scripts of summary writing and 194 pre-test and post-test scripts of proposal writing of the participants. These were scored by two experienced raters who were not involved in the provision of pedagogical interventions of the study to avoid any research result bias. Additionally, the participants' practice of thinking skills and their assessment satisfaction were analyzed from the mean scores of the 35 five-rating scaled writing task checklists (i.e. 1 "Very Weak", 2 "Weak", 3 "Moderate", 4 "Good", and 5 "Very Good). The total number of checklists was 388 (i.e. 97 participants' written tasks x 4 writing tasks).

After the provision of four different instructional interventions, the quantitative findings, gathered from the scores for the writing tests and the writing task checklists, show significant effects of TW and SCA on the participants' learning outcomes (i.e. overall writing post-test scores ($F(3, 93) = 4.56$, $p = .01$, small effect size $d = .13$), overall thinking skills ($F(3, 93) = 15.00$, $p = .00$, moderate effect size $d = .33$), and overall learning ethics ($F(3, 93) = 8.63$, $p = .00$, moderate effect size $d = .22$) at the .05 level. Additionally, based on the Post Hoc Tests for comparing the participants' learning outcomes (Appendix 2), out of the four groups, the participants from the TW_SCA group outperformed the other three groups in terms of thinking skills and learning ethics while those from the TW_TA group did better in terms of writing post-test scores as shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Optimal pedagogical interventions on participants' learning outcomes

Learning Outcome	Optimal Instructional Treatments
1. Writing Post-Test Scores	(TW_TA) > (TW_SCA) > (IW_SCA) > (IW_TA)
2. Thinking Skills	(TW_SCA) > (IW_SCA) > (TW_TA) > (IW_TA)
3. Learning Ethics	(TW_SCA) > (IW_SCA) > (TW_TA) > (IW_TA)

Notes: 1. Writing post-test scores: The writing test scores after the provision
           of different pedagogical interventions
           2. Significant effects on learning outcome numbers 1 to 3
           3. IW_TA: The control group

Interestingly, the participants in all three experimental groups outperformed those in the control group in all aspects of learning outcomes. When the participants were assigned to work in teams (i.e. the TW_SCA, TW_TA, and IW_SCA experimental groups), the individual participants had the chance to be engaged in writing and/or assessing written tasks. The improvement of the participants' learning outcomes after implementing teamwork was multiplied compared with working alone (Klingner, 2000; Mandal, 2009; Storch, 2011; Yung, 2010). From Table 4, the TW_SCA group performed better in terms of thinking skills and learning ethics while the TW_TA group performed better in their writing post-tests.

The significant effect on the participants' overall writing post-test scores is illustrated in Figure 2.

In Figure 2, the participants' learning outcomes were improved more when they were engaged in team writing. Based on the assessment patterns, the participants' thinking skills and assessment satisfaction were highest when they were exposed to student-centered assessment while their writing achievement improved more when they received their instructor's written feedback. Teacher assessment (TA) played a prominent role in improving the student participants' writing achievement. The majority of the 97 participants were aware of the necessity of teacher feedback although they had experience with self- and/or teammate(s)' feedback.

Estimated Marginal Means of Overall Writing Post-Tests
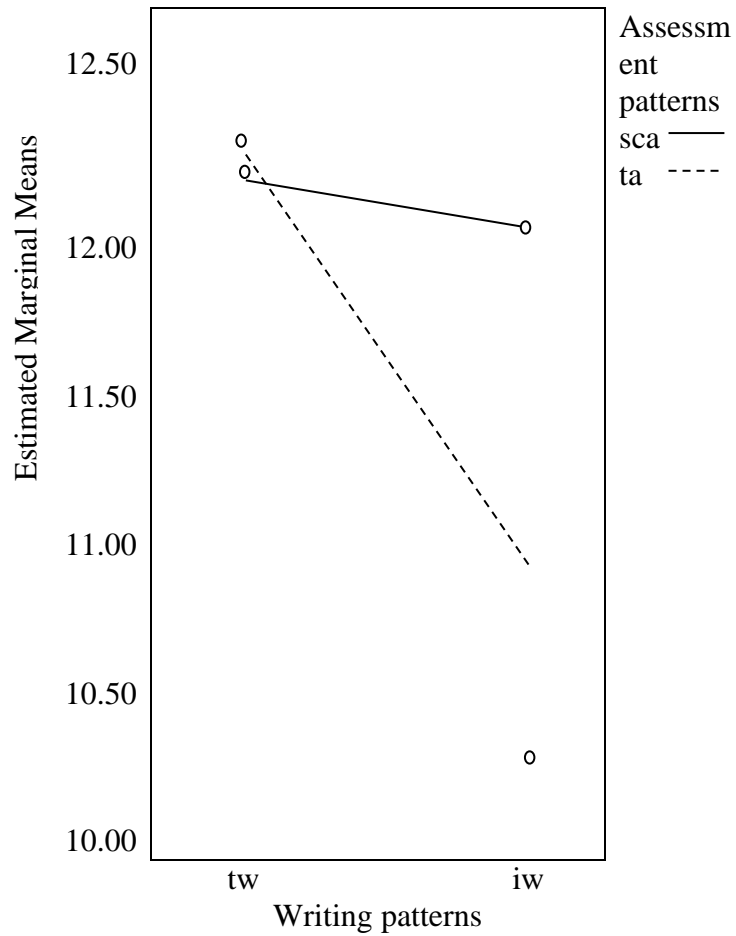
Figure 2: A significant effect on total average score of writing post-tests after instructional treatments

As the studies by Willey & Gardner (2010) and Wood et al. (2008) found, learning through teamwork enhances students' learning outcomes and is practical in large classes. Consistent with the results of the study by Husamah & Pantiwati (2014), the findings of the present study showed the significant interaction effects of team writing and student-centered assessment on the student participants' learning outcomes. This could be due to the fact that the participants performed well in their cooperative writing and assessment and this subsequently brought about the improvement of their overall writing post-test scores, thinking skills, and learning ethics. Additionally, as the participants were engaged in the writing process including assessment during summary writing and proposal writing practices in teams, their thinking skills and learning ethics (i.e. responsibility for their own writing, responsibility for assessment, fairness in writing, and fairness in assessment) were

simultaneously motivated. Furthermore, the participants had been engaged in four stages of the writing process which employed not only the process-oriented approach when emphasizing meaning or idea-generated fluency (Oshima and Hogue, 2007; Pritchard and Honeycutt, 2007) but also the product-oriented approach when focusing on form or linguistic accuracy (Author, 2009; Vickers & Ene, 2006).

(ii) Practices on Team Development

The quantitative findings, gathered from the writing task checklists, show the significant effects of TW and SCA on the participants' overall team development ($F(3, 93) = 21.73$, $p = .00$, moderate effect size $d = .41$) at the .05 level. Based on the Post Hoc Tests for comparing the participants' team development (Appendix 2), out of four groups, the participants from the TW and SCA group outperformed the other three groups in all aspects of team development as shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Optimal Pedagogical Interventions on Participants' Team Development

Learning Outcome	Optimal Instructional Treatments
1. Group Appreciation	(TW_SCA) > (IW_SCA) > (TW_TA) > (IW_TA)
2. Openness to Different Views	(TW_SCA) > (IW_SCA) > (TW_TA) > (IW_TA)
3. Receptivity to New Ideas	(TW_SCA) > (IW_SCA) > (TW_TA) > (IW_TA)
4. Group Leadership	(TW_SCA) > (IW_SCA) > (TW_TA) > (IW_TA)
5. Overall Team Development	(TW_SCA) > (IW_SCA) > (TW_TA) > (IW_TA)

Notes: 1. Significant effects on team development numbers 1 to 5
        2. IW_TA: The control group

The significant effect on the participants' overall team development is illustrated in Figure 3.

The significant development in all aspects of the participants' teamwork implies that after the participants were exposed to the team writing and student-centered assessment treatment, their group appreciation ($F(3, 93) = 7.91$, $p = .01$), openness to different views ($F(3, 93) = 42.34$, $p = .01$), receptivity to new ideas ($F(3, 93) = 5.95$, $p = .01$), and group leadership ($F(3, 93) = 20.65$, $p = .01$) were significantly developed with the moderate effect level of .20, the large effect level of .58, the small effect level of .16, and the moderate effect level of .40, respectively. These significant effects on team development indicated that after the TW and SCA group experienced team writing and student-centered assessment, they felt they were appreciated for the way their groups functioned, were open-minded to different and new ideas, and were able to manage a team (Griffiths, 2009). Exposure to team writing and student-centered assessment affecting team development could lead to team effectiveness

(Fransen et al., 2013; Griffiths, 2009; Norton, 2009). Like the study by Fransen et al. (2013), teamwork affected students' learning process only when teamwork was developed and effective.

The significant improvement of the participants' team development in all aspects after implementing teamwork was multiplied compared with working alone. This result was consistent with that of the study by Fransen et al. (2013) which focused on cooperative and collaborative learning through teamwork processes. The result of their study confirmed that task completion through teamwork determined the effectiveness and the development of

Estimated Marginal Means of Overall Team Development
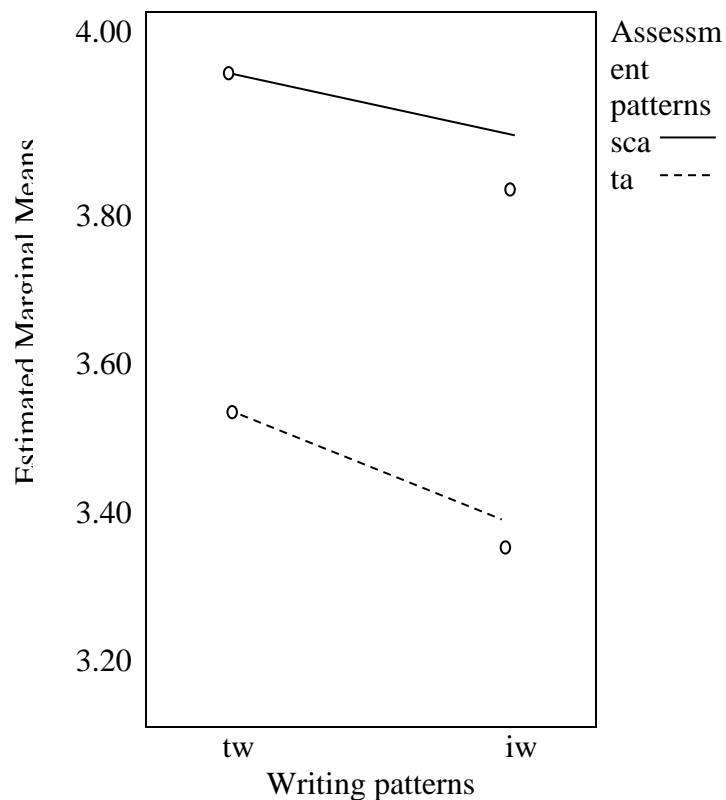
Figure 3: A significant effect on overall team development after instructional treatments

students' teamwork. Bandura (1989) pointed out that students needed to have social skills in order to interact and work with people as a team effectively. Griffiths (2009) reasoned that working as a team was one way to promote students' learning process. In the current study, aspects of social skills (Johnson & Johnson, 1996b) are closely related to the attributes of team development (Griffiths, 2009). It is likely that the significant effects of TW and SCA on the participants' team development are indicative of the effectiveness of the participants'

teamwork (i.e. the TW_SCA group). As indicated in the study by Fransen et al. (2013), teammates with social skills could make their team(s) develop better than those without social skills.

(iii) Practices on Assessment Satisfaction

The assessment satisfaction of the four groups of participants (i.e. learning activation, learning integration, learning progress, and feedback application) were analyzed through the writing task checklists. Statistically significant effects were found for team writing and student-centered assessment on the participants' learning progress ($F(3, 93) = 5.01$, $p = .01$, small effect size $d = .14$) and feedback application ($F(3, 93) = 11.98$, $p = .01$, moderate effect size $d = .28$) at the .05 level. Furthermore, TW and SCA had statistically significant effects on the participants' overall assessment satisfaction ($F(3, 93) = 5.84$, $p = .00$, small effect size $d = .16$) at the .05 level. Moreover, based on the Post Hoc Tests for comparing the participants' overall assessment satisfaction (Appendix 2), the participants whose group received the TW and SCA treatment performed better as shown in Table 6 and Figure 4.

Table 6: Optimal pedagogical interventions on participants' assessment satisfaction

Learning Outcome	Optimal Instructional Treatments
1. Learning Activation	(TW + SCA) > (IW + SCA) > (TW + TA) > (IW + TA)
2. Learning Integration	(TW + SCA) > (IW + SCA) > (TW + TA) > (IW + TA)
3. Learning Progress	(TW + SCA) > (IW + SCA) > (TW + TA) > (IW + TA)
4. Feedback Application	(TW + SCA) > (IW + SCA) > (TW + TA) > (IW + TA)
5. Overall Assessment Satisfaction	(TW + SCA) > (IW + SCA) > (TW + TA) > (IW + TA)

Notes: 1. Despite no significant effects on assessment satisfaction numbers 1 to 2, optimal instructional treatments were found.
2. Significant effects on assessment satisfaction numbers 3 to 5
3. IW_TA: The control group

The participants were satisfied with their learning progress, feedback application, and overall assessment. This may be because the participants had opportunities to engage in learning through team writing and student-centered assessment. As Norton (2009) explained, students' learning outcomes are improved when they and their classmates provide effective feedback to one another. The study by Evans (2013) found that in higher education, assessment feedback affects the development of students' learning processes, cognitive process, critical ability, self-regulation, and social skills. Another indicator measuring the outcome from the use of student-centered assessment can be measured from students' assessment satisfaction (Evans, 2013; Frick et al., 2010; Gurpinar et al., 2013; McKimm, 2009; Oliver, 1989).

Estimated Marginal Means of Overall Assessment Satisfaction
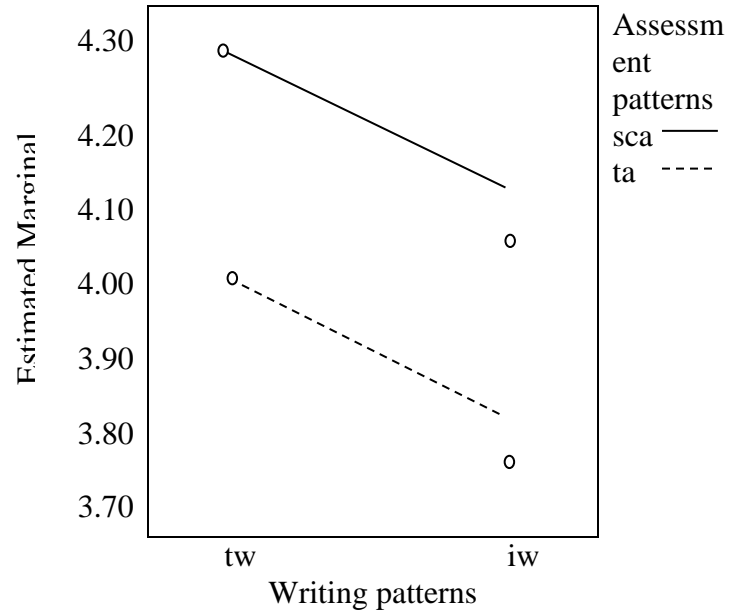
***Figure 4: A significant effect on overall assessment satisfaction
after instructional treatments***

In this present study, assessment satisfaction includes students' appraisal of their satisfaction with learning, writing, and assessing processes (Frick et al., 2010; Gurpinar et al., 2013; Oliver, 1989) or students' subjective evaluation of their learning and assessment experiences and outcomes pertinent to an educational process (Gurpinar et al., 2013; Oliver, 1989).

In the writing practices of the present study, four groups of the participants had opportunities to assess their own and/or classmates' written tasks through the writing process (Oshima & Hogue, 2007). The participants were able to write drafts, check, and spot errors on their own and their classmates' written tasks. That is, participants' self- and classmate-feedback motivated their own learning (Gosling, 2009; Willey & Gardner, 2010). Both self- and classmate-feedback are types of student-centered assessment that require cooperation and collaboration learning (Huba et al., 2011). As revealed in the responses to an open-ended item on the self-assessment form in the present study, all participants expressed their satisfaction with the teaching, writing, and learning activities provided in their groups. In addition, a participant in the IW_SCA group suggested practicing the process-oriented approach in the writing process more frequently so that writers would be able to identify their learning and writing difficulties and the appropriate solutions. Other participants also suggested introducing the writing and assessing activities provided in their groups to other writing classes.

In answer to research question 2, team writing and student-centered assessment were found to have significant effects on the participants' learning outcome, team development, and assessment satisfaction at the .05 level. Thus, based on the second hypothesis testing (Appendix 1), the null hypothesis was rejected or the alternative hypothesis was accepted:

$$\text{Rejected H}_0: \ \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = \mu_4$$
$$\text{Accepted H}_1: \ \mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \neq \mu_3 \neq \mu_4$$

B. Opinions toward Learning Outcomes, Team Development, and Assessment Satisfaction

- *Is there any significant difference in the opinions toward learning outcomes, team development, and assessment satisfaction of the participants after receiving four different modes of instruction?*

The quantitative findings, gathered from the self-assessment form, show a non-significant effect on the participants' opinions toward learning outcomes and team development and a significant effect on their opinions toward assessment satisfaction in relation to feedback process and the overall assessment satisfaction at the .05 level. Out of four groups, the average score of the opinions toward the feedback process and the overall assessment satisfaction in the IW_SCA group were significantly higher than that in the TW_SCA group at the .05 level.

In answer to research question 3, team writing and student-centered assessment had significant effects on the participants' opinions toward overall assessment satisfaction. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected or the alternative hypothesis was accepted:

$$\text{Rejected H}_0: \ \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = \mu_4$$
$$\text{Accepted H}_1: \ \mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \neq \mu_3 \neq \mu_4$$

(i) Non-significant Effect on Participants' Opinions toward Learning Outcomes

The non-significant effect of instructional treatments on the participants' opinions about their learning outcomes in all aspects of English language writing skills, thinking skills, and learning ethics among the four class groups could be explained by Fry et al.'s (2009) learning cycle. In a learning cycle, learning may not occur if there is no change in what students understand, perceive, and perform. In the present study, a shift of the participants' opinions toward their learning outcomes before and after receiving different instructional treatments may not be much different. That is, the participants in the experimental groups had similar opinions toward their learning outcomes to those in the control group.

Support for the suggestion that this non-significant quantitative result could be derived from the participants' qualitative data is provided by their opinions about learning outcomes in their reflective journal entries. These revealed that the opinions of the

participant writers from the three experimental groups (i.e. Groups 1, 3, and 4) and the control group (i.e. Group 2: IW_TA) were not much different. Although each group of participants was exposed to different instructional modes, the participants' journal entries from all groups showed similar awareness of their learning strengths, weaknesses, and problems.

However, in the present study, approximately 36% of the participants in the IW_SCA group still questioned the SCA's fairness in assessment. In addition, a high proficient participant revealed in the interview that some of his classmates copied their written tasks so they could submit their tasks on time. Although they had the chance to be exposed to student-centered assessment, this did not guarantee that those participants would improve their learning ethics and subsequently learning outcomes. This could be the reason why the participants' opinions toward their learning outcomes were found to have no significant difference.

(ii) Non-significant Effect on Participants' Opinions toward Team Development

The non-significant difference in the participants' opinions toward team development after receiving different modes of pedagogical intervention can be explained by the participants' responses to two open-ended items in the self-assessment form. It can be seen that three participant groups (i.e. the TW_SCA group, the IW_SCA group, and TW_TA group) had similar opinions toward team development as the control group (i.e. the IW_TA group). In the content analysis, the participants from four different groups revealed both the merits and demerits of working as a team (Yung, 2010). Regarding the merits of teamwork, most participants in the IW_SCA and the TW_TA groups found that teamwork helped to improve their writing skills, task responsibilities, and assessment experiences. Moreover, the participants in the control group who rarely had a chance to engage in teamwork showed their consciousness of the necessity of team writing. In terms of the demerits of teamwork, some participants in the TW_SCA group pointed out the overloaded assessment forms while those in the TW_TA group demanded more frequent team discussion on the review of writing content. Furthermore, the participants in the IW_SCA group raised the issue of the optimal number of team members per group. The participants in all groups similarly suggested introducing both writing and assessment in classroom instruction and adding more class time for learning and writing activities.

(iii) Effects on Participants' Opinions toward Assessment Satisfaction

The significant effects of the instructional treatments on the participants' opinions about assessment satisfaction on the feedback process (i.e. self-feedback, classmate-feedback, and teacher feedback) and the overall assessment satisfaction could be due to the following reasons.

The majority of the participants' responses from all groups revealed their satisfaction with the provision of not only teaching and learning (writing) activities including journal

writing but also the instructional treatments. Every group of participants expressed positive opinions toward assessment satisfaction (i.e. teaching process, learning process, feedback process, and teaching and learning (writing) activities). The participants' assessment satisfaction was likely to confirm the practicality of the feedback provision. The seven principles of good feedback provision (Norton, 2009: 137-143) to promote students' learning are as follows:

- Facilitating the development of self-assessment (reflection) in learning;
- Promoting peer and tutor dialogue around learning;
- Helping clarify what good performance is (goals, criteria, expected standards);
- Providing opportunities to close the gap between current and desired performance;
- Delivering high-quality information to students about their learning;
- Encouraging positive motivational beliefs and self-esteem;
- Providing information to teachers that may be used to help shape the teaching

To illustrate, the IW_SCA participant group who outperformed those in the TW_SCA group revealed that most of them were aware of the merits of student-centered assessment. Approximately 36% of the IW_SCA group found that SCA helped enhance their involvement in the feedback process. Moreover, about 7% of them were satisfied with their classmates' feedback in the sense that their feedback helped raise the quality of their written tasks. Additionally, around 50% of the group admitted that SCA helped develop their writing skills in English. Interestingly, around 7% of the IW_SCA group respondents indicated that SCA promoted their independent learning. As one of the respondents (i.e. Participant number 4 in the IW_SCA group) wrote in the extra Part 4 of self-assessment form:

> *"We didn't frequently know accurate knowledge of grammar and appropriate vocabularies to be used in contexts. This made us unable to edit a written task correctly. But when our instructor assigned my classmate(s) and me to mutually edit our written tasks and the instructor also provided us feedback on the edited tasks later, this two-way feedback made my classmate(s) and me better understand English. Sometimes, the instructor also provided indirect feedback in our tasks. This made us further search for more information and try to find answers."*

It could be said that mutual editing by the participants led to cooperative learning that helped them to learn autonomously. As stated in the study by Jacobs & Goh (2007), cooperative learning was actually derived from the principle of positive interdependence. In their study, positive interdependence occurs when all team members understand and can complete an assigned task due to mutual support. This could be why there were

significant effects on the participants' opinions towards feedback process and overall assessment satisfaction after the provision of instructional treatments.

C. Opinions toward Learning Outcomes, Team Development, and Assessment Satisfaction: High Proficient and Limited Proficient Groups

- *What are the opinions toward learning outcomes, team development, and assessment satisfaction between high proficient and limited proficient groups after receiving four different modes of instruction?*

After receiving the instructional treatments, eight randomly-selected participants were interviewed for in-depth information. The focus-group interview responses of four high proficient participants and four limited proficient participants from four different instructional treatment groups raised some issues.

The first issue was the shift in writing confidence of the limited proficient group. A high proficient participant (H1) and a limited proficient participant (L1) who were exposed to team writing and student-centered assessment said that they felt more confident in writing and revision. To illustrate, the participant L1 felt more confident in the revision process after having the chances to read and edit all of his teammates' written tasks. As stated by Marzano et al. (1993), the acquisition of thinking skills (i.e. self-regulation, critical thinking, and creative thinking) helps boost students' self-confidence that in turn influences their learning and/or writing achievement.

The second issue is consciousness about the importance of time management. Participants H1, H2, H3, L1, and L3 perceived time management in writing as an important factor influencing their writing achievement. Furthermore, participant H2 in the IW_TA group raised the issue of the pressure on her writing time. Moreover, participant L1 in the TW_SCA group reported that after the writing practices through TW and SCA, he became more aware of writing time management.

The third issue is the existence of teamwork conflicts. Most high and limited proficient participants admitted that they sometimes faced some difficulties while participating in teams. Participant H1 in the TW_SCA group said that some of his teammates were reluctant to participate in teamwork activities while participant L1 in the same group found some teammates had inadequate English language proficiency. Participant L1 also agreed that a team leader needed to have leadership skills to be able to manage a team effectively. However, participant H4 in the TW_TA group was not satisfied with the team leader's roles. Similarly, the study by Fransen et al. (2013) shows that being a team leader needs advanced skills to advise and deal with team members whose behaviors are varied and which sometimes cause group work conflicts. Similarly, as Loughry et al. (2014) stated, students' team skills (e.g. their ability to work with teammates from diverse backgrounds and variable ability to evaluate teamwork) help improve their learning outcomes. These interview responses regarding teamwork conflicts show that real-life learning situations are not always consistent with learning theories. As Evans (2013) stated, learning and instruction difficulties are sometimes inevitable. Such

difficulties could further affect the effectiveness of classroom learning and instruction and subsequently students' learning outcomes. In contrast to the main findings in the present study, despite some underlying conflicts in teamwork, the differences in the four groups of participants' overall learning outcomes, overall team development, and overall assessment satisfaction were found to be statistically significant at the .05 level.

The fourth issue is the integrity of academic writing. As participant H1 from the TW_SCA group revealed in the interview, some of his teammates plagiarized during journal writing so as to submit their journals on time. On the other hand, participant H3 in the IW_SCA group realized the importance of plagiarism avoidance by suggesting using unseen instead of seen writing sources in writing activities. In addition, participant H4 in the TW_TA group raised the issue of the importance of students' writing responsibility and ethics. Interestingly, as Norton (2009) suggested, reflective journals helped limit the opportunity for student plagiarism in writing.

Hence, another related issue is the promotion of reflective journal writing. In the current study, it was found that almost all participants from the four groups had positive comments about the provision of reflective journal writing in their classes. Participant H1 in the TW_SCA group perceived journal writing as a way to relax and express feelings. He also perceived journals as a good source of reflecting on teaching and learning situations in the classroom. In addition, participant H3 in the IW_SCA group, participant L4 in the TW_TA group, and participant L2 in the IW_TA (control) group said that journals helped review knowledge acquisition and led to reflection on their own learning in class. Interestingly, participant H2 from the IW_TA group revealed that her attitude to writing was changed positively after keeping journal entries. Participant H1 and participant L2 also suggested introducing journal writing in the undergraduate English courses.

Conclusion and Implications

This project raised some dilemmas relating to learning, teaching, and assessing. The main findings of this study confirm that the provision of English language writing instruction in class could be efficient and effective when students are assigned to write in teams and are engaged in assessing their own and teammates' written tasks. This is in addition to the feedback provided by the teacher. The problem of assessment and feedback being areas that students were least satisfied with (the National Student Survey, 2007; cited in Norton, 2009: 132) can thus be resolved.

As team-based writing and student-centered assessment are cooperative learning-oriented tasks (Gray & Klapper, 2009; Loughry et al., 2014; Morton, 2009; Wood et al., 2008), the implementation of both contributed to the participants' positive interdependence which was a valuable by-product (Jacobs and Goh, 2007) of the process. Normally, in mixed-ability classroom learning and instruction, students are heterogeneous in terms of levels of English language proficiency—high and limited proficient students. High proficient students tend to assist and learn from limited proficient classmates to be able to achieve the assigned writing

activities (Storch, 2011; Wass et al., 2011). Thus, the provision of team writing and student-centered assessment helps students to be engaged in writing and creates their positive interdependence.

In addition to the promotion of the participants' progress in writing skills through fluency and accuracy (Author, 2009), and improvement in thinking skills through self-reflection, the reflective journal entries in the current study can also reveal the participants' varied learning styles which helped them facilitate and achieve their own learning (e.g. aural (auditory-musical), visual and verbal (linguistic) learning styles) (Huba & Freed, 2011). With the student participants' satisfaction and appreciation of the provision of reflective journal writing, it would be worth introducing journal writing, one of the student-centered assessment techniques (Gray & Klapper, 2009; Wood et al., 2008), in the English language course curricula for university undergraduate students.

Learning development from teamwork (Gurpinar et al., 2013) is sometimes called "high-quality learning outcome" (Prosser & Trigwell, 1999; in Norton, 2009: 135) or "deep approach to learning" (Fry et al., 2009: 10). As Spady (1994: 9) said, "*Successful learning promotes even more successful learning*". Learning outcomes can even reflect the effectiveness of student learning, course instruction and evaluation, and the quality of education. The significant findings of this study are relevant to three Cs-21st century lifelong skills (i.e. critical thinking, creativity, and collaboration). They could be used to argue for team writing and student-centered assessment in English language writing courses in EFL contexts.

In the light of the qualitative findings, the participants' interview responses raise the following issues:

- The issue of a participant's writing time pressure suggests that time-management training be investigated. Additionally, a comparative study should be conducted with students who are trained in test-management strategies and those who are not.

- The issue of academic writing integrity was raised by some participants. Methods to enhance the ethics and the sense of responsibility of first-year university undergraduate students should be investigated.

Limitations of the Study

This study is limited in the following areas:

- *The uncontrolled variation in the number of the students per class:* In the current study, 97 out of the 135 registered students were from four class sections. Thirty-eight registered students from these four sections were excluded from the data analysis of the study due to their incomplete participation in the study (e.g. their low midterm scores prevent them from getting an 'A' grade in the course, their decision to re-take the university entrance examinations in a bid to gain admission to other faculty, etc.).

- *Research Generalization:* The participants in this project cannot be generalized to all first-year Science undergraduate students at the same university where this project was undertaken and at other universities in the Thai context.

Acknowledgements

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APPENDIX 1.

Research Methodology of the Study

Research Purpose/ Research Question/ Research Hypothesis	Research Instrument	Data Collection	Data Analysis

- To investigate and compare the effects of team writing (TW) and student-centered assessment (SCA) on learning outcomes, team development, and assessment satisfaction of the participants after receiving four different modes of instruction: TW, SCA, TW and SCA, and normal instruction (neither TW nor SCA).

1. Is there any significant difference in learning outcomes on English language proficiency among four groups of the participants before receiving four different modes of instruction: TW, SCA, TW and SCA, and normal instruction (neither TW nor SCA)? If so, to what extent?	a) A test of University English proficiency	(i) Participants' scores of English language proficiency	*Quantitative analyses* - One-way ANOVA

Hypothesis 1:
If four different modes of instruction (i.e. team writing (TW), student-centered assessment (SCA), TW and SCA, and normal instruction (neither TW nor SCA)) have not been provided to the four groups of participants, then there will be no significant difference in the participants' learning outcomes on English language proficiency among four groups.

$$H_0: \ \mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \neq \mu_3 \neq \mu_4$$
$$H_1: \ \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = \mu_4$$

2. What are the effects of TW and SCA on learning outcomes, team development, and assessment satisfaction among four groups of the	a) Writing pre-test and post-test - Summary writing tests	(i) Participants' scores of writing tests: - Scores of summary writing tests (nPre-test = 97, nPost-test = 97)	*Quantitative analyses* - Descriptive statistics (e.g. frequency, percentage, arithmetic means, standard deviations, etc.) - Two-way ANOVA

Research Purpose/ Research Question/ Research Hypothesis	Research Instrument	Data Collection	Data Analysis
participants after receiving four different modes of instruction: TW, SCA, TW and SCA, and normal instruction (neither TW nor SCA)?	- Proposal writing tests	- Scores of proposal writing tests (nPre-test = 97, nPost-test = 97)	when the finding of research question 1 reveals no significant difference among four groups of the participants' levels of English proficiency before implementing this experimental study.
	b) Writing task checklists attached with each writing task (i.e. a total of four writing tasks: two summary writing tasks and the other two proposal writing tasks)	(ii) Average rating scores, calculated from all four writing tasks, of: - Thinking skills (n = 97) - Learning ethics (n = 97) - Team development (n = 97) - Assessment satisfaction (n = 97)	- An independent-samples t-test - Cohen's effect-size (d) Method - One-way ANOVA

Hypothesis 2: If four different modes of instruction (i.e. TW, SCA, TW and SCA, and neither TW nor SCA) have been provided to the four groups of participants, then there will be significant differences in the participants' learning outcomes, team development, and assessment satisfaction among the four groups.

$$H_0: \; \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = \mu_4$$
$$H_1: \; \mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \neq \mu_3 \neq \mu_4$$

Research Methodology of the Study (Continued)

Research Purpose/ Research Question/ Research Hypothesis	Research Instruments	Data Collection	Data Analyses
▪ To evaluate whether and to what extent there is any significant difference in the opinions toward learning outcomes, team development, and assessment satisfaction of the participants after receiving four different modes of instruction.			

Research Purpose/ Research Question/ Research Hypothesis	Research Instrument	Data Collection	Data Analysis
3. Is there any significant difference in the opinions toward learning outcomes, team development, and assessment satisfaction of the participants after receiving four different modes of instruction?	a) Self-assessment form (Parts 1 and 4)	(i) Responses from the self-assessment form containing participants' general information- English language learning and writing background, learning outcomes, team development, and assessment satisfaction (n = 97)	*Quantitative analysis* - Descriptive statistics (e.g. frequency, percentage, arithmetic means, standard deviations, etc.) - One-way ANOVA
	b) Self-assessment form (Extra Part 4)	(ii) Responses of the form (Extra Part 4) (n = 97)	*Qualitative analysis* - Content analysis
	c) Self-assessment form (Part 4, Item number 70)	(iii) Responses from the form (Part 4, Item number 70) (n = 97)	
	d) Reflective journals	(iv) Journal entries (n = 97)	

Hypothesis 3:

If four different modes of instruction (i.e. TW, SCA, TW and SCA, and neither TW nor SCA) have been provided to the four groups of participants, then there will be significant differences in the participants' opinions toward learning outcomes, team development, and assessment satisfaction among four groups.

$$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = \mu_4$$
$$H_1: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \neq \mu_3 \neq \mu_4$$

- To explore the opinions toward learning outcomes, team development, and assessment satisfaction between high proficient and limited proficient groups after receiving four different modes of instruction.

4. What are the opinions toward learning outcomes, team development,	a) Focus-group interview	(i) Interview responses ($n_H = 4$, $n_L = 4$)	*Qualitative analysis* - Content analysis

Research Purpose/ Research Question/ Research Hypothesis	Research Instrument	Data Collection	Data Analysis
and assessment satisfaction between high proficient and limited proficient groups after receiving four different modes of instruction?			

APPENDIX 2.

Comparisons of Practices toward Learning Outcomes, Team Development, and Assessment Satisfaction among Four Groups

ANOVA
Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Writing PostTest	Between Groups	51.134	3	17.045	4.556	.005
	Within Groups	347.923	93	3.741		
	Total	399.057	96			
Thinking Skills	Between Groups	10.034	3	3.345	14.995	.000
	Within Groups	20.745	93	.223		
	Total	30.779	96			
Learning Ethics	Between Groups	2.018	3	.673	8.633	.000
	Within Groups	7.246	93	.078		
	Total	9.264	96			
Team Development	Between Groups	6.282	3	2.094	21.725	.000
	Within Groups	8.964	93	.096		
	Total	15.246	96			
Assessment Satisfaction	Between Groups	3.490	3	1.163	5.839	.001
	Within Groups	18.528	93	.199		
	Total	22.018	96			

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable	(I) Section	(J) Section	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Writing PostTest	tw sca	iw ta	1.78056(*)	.56219	.012	.2650	3.2962
Significant Effects:		iw sca	.16662	.52239	1.000	-1.2417	1.5749
(tw sca) > (iw ta)		tw ta	-.16501	.54686	1.000	-1.6393	1.3092

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Dependent Variable	(I) Section	(J) Section	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
(iw sca) > (iw ta) (tw ta) > (iw ta) *Thus,* (tw ta) > (tw sca) > (iw sca) > (iw ta)	iw ta	tw sca	-1.78056(*)	.56219	.012	-3.2962	-.2650
		iw sca	-1.61394(*)	.57528	.037	-3.1648	-.0631
		tw ta	-1.94557(*)	.59758	.009	-3.5566	-.3346
	iw sca	tw sca	-.16662	.52239	1.000	-1.5749	1.2417
		iw ta	1.61394(*)	.57528	.037	.0631	3.1648
		tw ta	-.33163	.56030	1.000	-1.8421	1.1789
	tw ta	tw sca	.16501	.54686	1.000	-1.3092	1.6393
		iw ta	1.94557(*)	.59758	.009	.3346	3.5566
		iw sca	.33163	.56030	1.000	-1.1789	1.8421
Thinking Skills *Significant Effects*: (tw sca) > (iw ta) (iw sca) > (iw ta) (tw ta) > (iw ta) Thus, (tw sca) > (iw sca) > (tw ta) > (iw ta)	tw sca	iw ta	.8069(*)	.13728	.000	.4368	1.1770
		iw sca	.3806(*)	.12756	.022	.0368	.7245
		tw ta	.7135(*)	.13353	.000	.3535	1.0734
	iw ta	tw sca	-.8069(*)	.13728	.000	-1.1770	-.4368
		iw sca	-.4263(*)	.14047	.019	-.8050	-.0476
		tw ta	-.0934	.14592	1.000	-.4868	.2999
	iw sca	tw sca	-.3806(*)	.12756	.022	-.7245	-.0368
		iw ta	.4263(*)	.14047	.019	.0476	.8050
		tw ta	.3328	.13682	.101	-.0360	.7017
	tw ta	tw sca	-.7135(*)	.13353	.000	-1.0734	-.3535
		iw ta	.0934	.14592	1.000	-.2999	.4868
		iw sca	-.3328	.13682	.101	-.7017	.0360

Post Hoc Tests
Multiple Comparisons (Continued)

Dependent Variable	(I) Section	(J) Section	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Learning Ethics *Significant Effects*:	tw sca	iw ta	.39156(*)	.08113	.000	.1728	.6103
		iw sca	.06391	.07539	1.000	-.1393	.2672
		tw ta	.07404	.07892	1.000	-.1387	.2868

Dependent Variable	(I) Section	(J) Section	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
(tw sca) > (iw ta)	iw ta	tw sca	-.39156(*)	.08113	.000	-.6103	-.1728
(iw sca) > (iw ta)		iw sca	-.32764(*)	.08302	.001	-.5515	-.1038
(tw ta) > (iw ta)							
		tw ta	-.31752(*)	.08624	.002	-.5500	-.0850
Thus,							
(tw sca) > (iw sca) > (tw ta) > (iw ta)	iw sca	tw sca	-.06391	.07539	1.000	-.2672	.1393
		iw ta	.32764(*)	.08302	.001	.1038	.5515
		tw ta	.01013	.08086	1.000	-.2079	.2281
	tw ta	tw sca	-.07404	.07892	1.000	-.2868	.1387
		iw ta	.31752(*)	.08624	.002	.0850	.5500
		iw sca	-.01013	.08086	1.000	-.2281	.2079
Team Development	tw sca	iw ta	.6599(*)	.09024	.000	.4166	.9032
		iw sca	.1153	.08385	1.000	-.1107	.3414
Significant Effects:		tw ta	.4223(*)	.08778	.000	.1856	.6589
(tw sca) > (iw ta)	iw ta	tw sca	-.6599(*)	.09024	.000	-.9032	-.4166
(iw sca) > (iw ta)		iw sca	-.5446(*)	.09234	.000	-.7935	-.2957
(tw ta) > (iw ta)		tw ta	-.2376	.09592	.090	-.4962	.0210
Thus,	iw sca	tw sca	-.1153	.08385	1.000	-.3414	.1107
(tw sca) > (iw sca) > (tw ta) > (iw ta)		iw ta	.5446(*)	.09234	.000	.2957	.7935
		tw ta	.3070(*)	.08993	.006	.0645	.5494
	tw ta	tw sca	-.4223(*)	.08778	.000	-.6589	-.1856
		iw ta	.2376	.09592	.090	-.0210	.4962
		iw sca	-.3070(*)	.08993	.006	-.5494	-.0645
Assessment Satisaction	tw sca	iw ta	.52489(*)	.12973	.001	.1751	.8746
		iw sca	.23763	.12055	.310	-.0874	.5626
Significant Effects:		tw ta	.33597	.12620	.055	-.0042	.6762
(tw sca) > (iw ta)	iw ta	tw sca	-.52489(*)	.12973	.001	-.8746	-.1751
(iw sca) > (iw ta)							
(tw ta) > (iw ta)		iw sca	-.28726	.13275	.198	-.6451	.0706
		tw ta	-.18892	.13790	1.000	-.5607	.1828
Thus,	iw sca	tw sca	-.23763	.12055	.310	-.5626	.0874
(tw sca) > (iw sca) > (tw ta) > (iw ta)		iw ta	.28726	.13275	.198	-.0706	.6451
		tw ta	.09834	.12930	1.000	-.2502	.4469
	tw ta	tw sca	-.33597	.12620	.055	-.6762	.0042
		iw ta	.18892	.13790	1.000	-.1828	.5607
		iw sca	-.09834	.12930	1.000	-.4469	.2502

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

"STUDENT TRAINING IN ATTITUDE AND RESPONSIBILITY" INTERVENTION PROGRAMME IN HELPING ACADEMICALLY AT-RISK STUDENTS IN A HIGH STAKE EXAMINATION CONTEXT

Nalini Arumugam
Academy of Language Studies
Kaarthiyainy Supramaniam
Faculty of Education
Universiti Teknologi MARA, Malaysia

Abstract

A high-stake standardised testing policy of using secondary school examination results as a prerequisite for tertiary education and future careers has driven many schools to focus on producing high achievers. Inadvertently students who do not perform well academically in an examination driven context may easily lose interest and motivation to study. This paper describes a longitudinal intervention programme called *Student Training in Attitude and Responsibility" that was designed* based on positive values and literacy skills to help academically at-risk students prepare for the *SPM* national exam. The programme was carried out for eight months and included three months of weekly lessons, two outdoor motivational camps and four months of weekly tuition. Their progress was assessed four times prior to the national examination. Findings of the intervention programme not only showed significant improvement in their academic achievement but also a positive attitude towards their school and teachers. Likewise, their teachers and parents also noted positive changes in the students' attitude and behaviour. The programme demonstrates that timely intervention based on both literacy skills and values is necessary to help at-risks students get back on track for academic success.

Key words: academic success, at-risk students, high-stake, positive attitude, positive values

Introduction

Many examination oriented countries around the world have adopted high-stake standardised testing policies as prerequisite for tertiary education and future careers. Many secondary school students strive to obtain stellar results in the national examination like the Malaysian Certificate of Education (*Sijil Peperiksaan Malaysia* or SPM henceforth) as the results are often perceived to be representation of their academic achievements; likewise, such results are highly coveted by tertiary institutions that pursue agendas of their own like climbing world rankings. Parents with children who obtain good grades would be proud as they have more options of scholarships and universities. In other words, society generally perceives students with good results at high-stake examinations as high achievers. This inadvertently puts a lot of stress on students who do not perform as well as their successful peers. The students who underperform academically are often branded as "underachievers" or "low performers" (Kushman, Sieber, & Harold, 2000) which in fact reflect at-risk behaviour related to low literacy skills (Kususanto, Ismail, & Jamil, 2010). At-risk behaviour has been defined in relevant literature as students who have academic, behaviour or attitude (Janosz, Blanc, Boulerice & Tremblay, 2000) but this paper adopts Suh, Suh and Houston (2007) who define at-risk in the academic context as "aspects of student's background and environment that may lead to a higher risk of his or her educational failure". In this current context, the at-risk students are those who would be sitting for their SPM examination but have been performing poorly in their studies.

For the school community, the at-risk students pose a threat to the overall school performance that may have implications on funding, administration and ranking at the ministerial level. This is because high ranking schools (student academic performance is a criterion of school performance) are often eligible for opportunities like sponsorship, funding and incentives unlike low ranking schools. Parents too often clamour to send their children to the coveted schools which in turn add to the reputation of the school. It is not surprising then that many schools strive to churn out as many good results as possible, sometimes focusing on the high achievers who would rake in the high grades, and the average performing students who could possibly bring similar good results with the last thrust of preparation. Hence this pursuit of academic excellence raises a concern for the weak students who do not perform well in their studies and are at-risk of performing poorly in the high-stake examination. Such students are often pushed to the periphery of the community in schools; they are either located in the last classes (in schools that stream students into classes according to their examination results or in case of mixed groups, are ranked the lowest in their class). Past research shows that students who are academically at-risk may drop out of school or become delinquents (Suh, Suh & Houston, 2007), which underlines the importance of offering an intervention to help them improve their studies and complete their secondary education successfully.

Students who perform poorly in examination oriented contexts may easily lose their interest and motivation to study. While their more academically successful counterparts are said to be highly motivated and engaged in learning (Kushman, 2000; Woods, 1995), students who continuously perform poorly may have low self-esteem and find themselves at-risk of dropping out of school. Furthermore, it is highly likely that mainstream schools with large student population may not have the resources nor the luxury of time to focus on students' needs, beliefs and interests although ideally schools accord equal learning opportunities for students to advance at their own learning trajectories. Unfortunately in a standardised high stake examination oriented education system, individual needs, beliefs and interests are often side-lined for one size fits all examination questions. Hence

academically at-risk students need to be engaged through intervention programmes that closely guide them for the examination as without such interventions, students who had continuously performed poorly throughout their academic years would seem destined to fail in the formal education system.

Teacher- student Academic Expectations

Four decades of empirical research on teacher and student relationships and expectancy effects show that teachers' perception affects their students' academic performance (Jussim & Harber, 2005) and self-esteem (Kususanto, Ismail & Jamil, 2010). When teachers' perceived their students to be weak, the students tend to have poor perception of themselves although they did not initially do so (Madon, Smith, Jussim, Russell, Eccles, Palumbo & Walkiewicz, 2001). Although teachers are expected to be just and treat all students fairly, research shows that they demonstrate positive biasness in evaluating high expectancy students' work compared to the low expectancy students (Jussim & Eccles, 1992). They give more response opportunities and praises, are less critical (Brophy, 1987), provide more challenging instruction (Brophy, 1987), and interact more warmly (Babad & Taylor, 1992) with the high expectancy students. In sum, teachers' expectations and differential treatments of high and low ability students (Kuklinski & Weinstein, 2001) adversely impact low achievers.

In transactional theory, the higher a student's expectation is, the greater the teacher's expectation, which in turn leads to more challenging, warmer, and more responsive instruction. This in turn leads to the student's improved achievement (Jussim & Harber, 2005). In other words, if the students' display low expectations, they are less likely to receive the attention they deserve from their teachers in order to improve themselves and are more likely to be marginalised. However, there are teachers who are highly motivated and influence their students' learning and motivation whether they have high or low expectancies. These teachers are found to reach out to low-achieving students and invest attention and effort in them. They are often generous with praises during the teaching and learning *processes* rather than the students' ability in learning (Ashton & Webb, 1986). Hence the point is, highly motivated teachers could be the catalyst to spur their students' academic success. This raises a concern for teachers who experience burnout in continuously dealing with the pressure of showing certain percentage of success in high-stake examinations and the socioacademic challenges of dealing with the potentially at-risks students. What is needed in such a case is an external intervention that could break the adverse transactional cycle of teacher-student classroom behaviour. An intervention programme such as the *"Student Training in Attitude and Responsibility" (henceforth STAR)* described in the subsequent parts of this paper demonstrates how an intervention approach could deal with the vicious adverse transactional cycle in school in preparing highly at-risk students for a high-stake examination.

Theoretical Framework: The Self-Worth Theory

The self-worth theory proposes that individuals' main priority is the search for self-acceptance and that one's worth is relative to "the ability to achieve competitively" (Covington, 1998, p. 78). In the school context, students may equate their self-worthiness with the high stake national examination results like the SPM. Such a view is reinforced as society celebrates and rewards students who produce strings of As and are highlighted in the media year after year. Covington's self-worth theory lends credibility to the hypothesis that students maintain a positive self-image of themselves in view of their school results and conversely, academically at-risk students may have negative self-

perception. If there is no intervention offered to help them in their learning process *prior* to the final high stake examination, there is a high possibility of them repeating their previous failures which may have negative consequences on their self-worth in the long run.

Covington (1984) explains further that *achievement* and *ability* are two constructs that are related to self-worth and accomplishment in individuals. Individuals are said to feel worthless as they experience "the disclosure of incompetency" (Covington, 1984, p. 8). On the other hand ability is when they feel that they are able to accomplish something. He theorises that ability, effort, performance, and self-worth have a causal relationship whereby ability, performance and effort are related to self-worth. This implies that unless academically at-risk students are able to see themselves getting better examination results, they may be "cut off from a major source of self-esteem" (p. 8). However, Weibell (2011) assures that self-perception of one's performance is not the only way to achieve self-worth as ability and diligence is also factors for success. This suggests that at-risks students may perform better in an alternative interventionist approach instead of remedial teaching in the classroom. In other words, taking an interventionist approach that focuses on diligence and performance may offer students who have been accustomed to performing poorly in school an opportunity to experience success.

The alternate approach as demonstrated in this paper also includes positive human values apart from constructs of ability, performance and diligence in the process of teaching and learning. The programme was tailor-made to deal with individual learning whereby students were given opportunities to experience success when completing tasks in order to reinforce the belief that they could repeat their success later during the high stake examination. Weibell (2011) students may view their success as one-time incidence unless they experience repeated success. The current paper is also designed based on Covington's view that "humans do typically discount factors that might qualify or discredit their successes and cast their failures in the best possible light" (1998, p.8) and to address the students' poor self-worth. In short, the intervention programme aimed to steer the target students towards academic success.

Methodology

The STAR programme was conducted in seven secondary schools in the Klang Valley and one in Negeri Sembilan, Malaysia. However, this paper solely reports the findings from the secondary school in Negeri Sembilan as the researchers were participant observers cum instructors. This enabled them to observe the participants' behaviour continuously. The school was selected as a single case study to evaluate the effects of prolonged intervention on academically at-risk Form Five students (seventeen year olds) who had registered for the SPM examination. The school had streamed the high- and low achievers into separate classes. Hence it could be summed that the low performing students were the most at-risk of failing in the high-stake examination.

For the STAR programme, the participants from the low performing classes were regrouped according the school's official examination results based on four important subjects – Bahasa Malaysia, English language, General Science and Modern Mathematics which are considered important in the SPM examination. Their progress was monitored through summative test scores: Test One, mid-semester examination, Test Two and Trial examination throughout the programme.

Permission was obtained from the school principal who agreed to try a different approach in dealing with these students who would otherwise continue to perform poorly and eventually face a bleak future.   Their parents were also notified to obtain their permission and were briefed on the programme prior to commencement.   All the parents agreed as their children needed help academically. The purpose of the programme was to promote a sense of self-worth among the target students through repeated activities and positive values.   The school administration, students, teachers and parents were informed of the programme which required the STAR programme instructors to teach the participants.

Overall the STAR intervention programme was conducted in three phases over an eight month period. In the first phase, the instructors (the researchers) met the students for a weekly one-hour and thirty minute session for two months. In the second phase, the students were taken to two outdoor motivational camp retreats. In the third phase, the instructors continued their assistance until week 32. Figure 1 below depicts a summary of the programme:
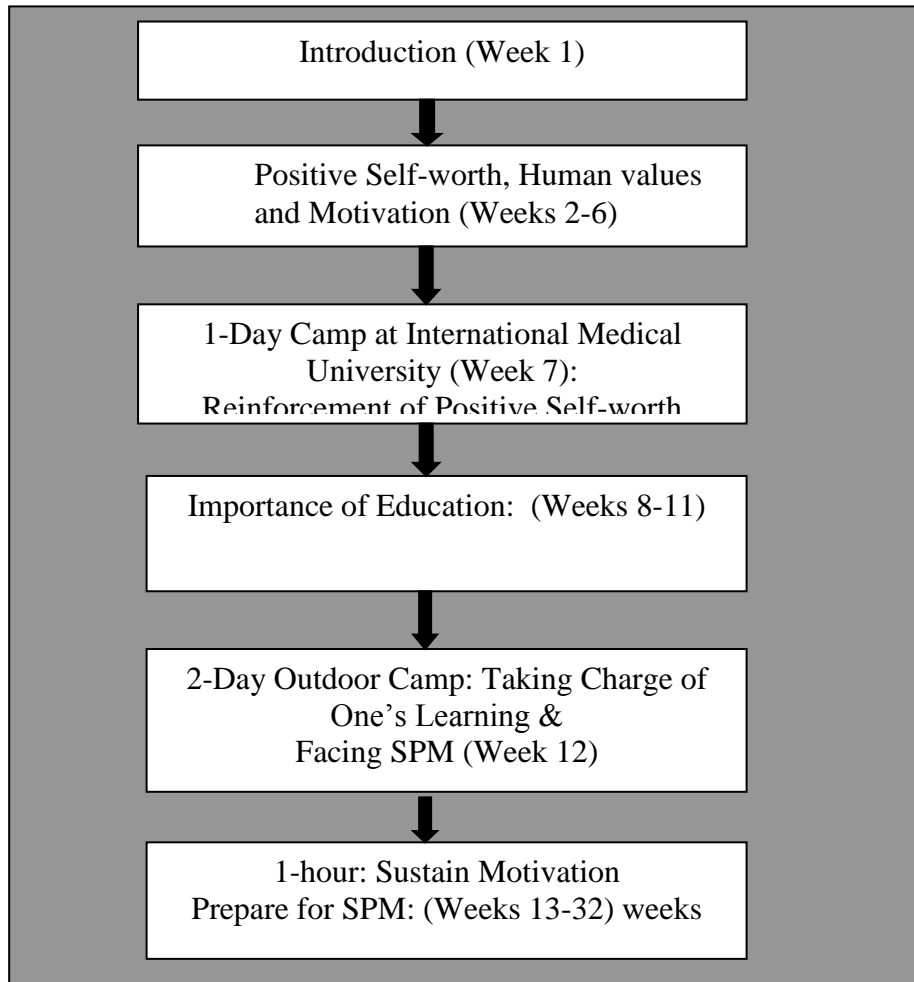

Figure 1: Summary of the STAR Intervention Programme

The programme was consciously designed to draw the at-risks students' interest and motivation as many of them were quiet and seemed withdrawn. For some it was an unusual experience being the focus of attention in a non-competitive environment. Each lesson included problem-solving games related where they could solve them successfully. The instructors praised and motivated them after each task as the aim was to demonstrate that success was achievable through diligence, performance and ability in line with the self-worth theory. Apart from this, the instructors also instilled universal human values like sharing, responsibility, gratitude, compassion, discipline and other values. The students' scores from all the tests and outdoor activities were analysed for the mean score.

Findings and discussion

Firstly the STAR intervention programme was conducted by volunteers who had experience in teaching youths; however, the class teachers assisted them by identifying the participants for the programme and providing their background information for the instructors. The class teachers were not directly involved as past research shows that students were affected by teacher biasness when it concerns students' work (Jussim, 1989). A student, Hakim said, "The facilitators can teach us till we can understand. They can come down to our level. This is easy to understand." Hakim's classmates reported that during the programme, they were allowed to participate at their own pace and they were not stressed or "degraded" in front of their peers.

Secondly the students often worked in groups to complete the tasks as the aim was to encourage them to collaborate instead of competing with one another. Likewise the students also reported that they preferred to work in groups. The instructors did not interfere in their discussions but facilitated by explaining the tasks or difficult words. The tasks were related to the four subjects as this not only reinforced what they had learned in class but also promoted a sense of accomplishment when the tasks were completed. In a non-competitive environment, the at-risk learners were able to complete the tasks which otherwise would have been abandoned when their more advanced peers completed the tasks sooner. A student, Samy, shared, "I am not so clever, if my classmate passed the test; I feel very stupid and embarrassed." Hence students who compared themselves with their more successful peers in a competitive environment have poor self-worth. Also, it is not unusual for teachers in Malaysian classrooms to overlook the underperforming students due to time constraints. In such circumstances, those who were unable to complete the tasks would feel worthless as they experience what Covington shares as "the disclosure of incompetency" (1984, p. 8). Another student Lee shared during the interview, "The good students are always studying for SPM examination. I don't really like to study but my parents are pressuring me to do well like the students in the first and second class. How can I compete with them?" However, Jason mentioned that a few of his classmates had changed their behaviour and were more motivated to study after the participating in the STAR programme. They tried to finish their homework and had asked questions to their facilitators during the classes.

On the other hand, the tasks in the STAR programme were also designed to be completed within the time limit as to prepare them for the high-stake examination. The instructors coaxed the students to complete the tasks by themselves although they were given some guidance. For example the instructors limited their assistance to certain parts of the text or steps in completing the tasks. Past research support that when the students felt a sense of achievement and were able to complete tasks, they experience greater self-worth and accomplishment as individuals (Covington, 1984). The

STAR programmes premise was that the student's ability, effort, performance, and self-worth would have a positive causal relationship with self-worth. This implies that unless academically at-risk students are able to see themselves getting better exam results, they may be "cut off from a major source of self-esteem" (p. 8).

The students were also brought to visit one of Malaysia's prestigious private universities, the International Medical University as part of the outdoor activity during week seven. The purpose was to expand their horizon of education beyond school. Many students in the Malaysian classrooms are not exposed to the options available to them post high stake examination that many would actually think of the SPM as the pinnacle of success. For many students, the SPM result is a reflection of their future and a poor result equates a bleak future. For at-risk students, such a narrow view of education poses a daunting experience as they were perceived as potential failures in school. The field trip was an eye opener for them to see that the high-stake examination, though important, was not the ultimate end of education and that they could strive for achieve greater things if they focused and invested more effort in their studies. Intermittently, positive phrases like "I can" or "I will" were often repeated along other human values during the trip to promote self-worth. It was believed that a change of environment would boost the students' self-confidence too as they walked among medical students who were once students like them and had gone through the gruelling process of sitting for a high-stake examination.

Similarly in the two-day outdoor camp during week 12, the students were instilled with motivation and enrichment activities related to the four subjects. Moral values were delivered through activities like "Appreciating your parents", ""Aim for the Stars" and "I Can and I Will". In Figure 2 below, the students were asked to list down their negative perception of themselves and bad habits and rid of them symbolically by burning the list:

Figure 2: Students' activities

The STAR programme resumed with lessons in the subsequent weeks once the outdoor activities had ended. Although the researchers were aware that quantitative reporting has limitations in capturing

the experiential learning process of the individual students, it was nevertheless necessary as the students would ultimately sit for the SPM where their abilities would be assessed through standardised examination questions and reported accordingly. Hence the programme applied similar assessment in monitoring the students' progress. Table 1 depicts the average score in all the four subjects during the programme:

Table 1: The Average Scores of Test 1, 2, 3 and 4

	Test 1	Test 2	Test 3 (after camps)	Test 4
Bahasa Malaysia	15. 2759	18.3085	28. 5094	32.6125
English Language	21.1149	28.0248	41. 5085	45.4235
General Science	16.3256	21.5095	32.5460	48.6531
Modern Mathematics	12.3652	15.6850	19.2564	19.1265

The mean score of the 22 students in Bahasa Malaysia were <15. 2759> in Test 1, <18.3085>,<28. 5094> and <32.6125> respectively in Tests 2, 3 and 4. In four subsequent tests, it is obvious that the scores have improved significantly. There is continuous improvement from Test 1 to Test 4 particularly in Test 3 where students had just returned from their two-day camps and were highly motivated.

Data from the interviews with teachers during the STAR programme revealed that the teachers had changed their negative perceptions of the students and had stopped branding their classes as "useless" or "problematic". Likewise student Mega shared that he no longer despised his class teacher and actually liked his teacher as he discovered "Miss Dee" was "friendly and did not jump into conclusion based on others' complaints". Similarly, the discipline teacher admitted that he saw fewer delinquents in his office for flouting school rules, and there were "less students loitering and playing truant from classes."

Interview with parents revealed improved relationships with their children. Imran reported that he was highly motivated to learn in order to "make his parents proud of himself, and also to prove to relatives and society". Another student, Jinah reported being pressured by his parents as his father was a teacher. He was concerned with Jinah's academic performance and relentlessly reminded him to do well in SPM. Jinah avoided meeting his father but after attending the STAR programme, he said that he understood his father better and had improved his relationship with him. John claimed that he now completed his homework given by the facilitator who checked his work and explained clearly how to go about in completing it, "If I make mistake, they will not scold me". Overall, everyone agreed that the students were more driven to study and attributed the positive changes to the STAR programme. Before the intervention, they were mainly forced by the school teachers and parents to study and prepare for their upcoming SPM but after experiencing a sense of accomplishment through the tasks and obtaining good results, they were determined to complete their projects and homework without being told.

Conclusion

Quantitative and qualitative findings from the STAR intervention programme conducted in the selected school in Negeri Sembilan revealed that academically at-risk students could be helped to improve their learning outcomes. Although the results may not be generalised to other high-stake examination contexts due to the small number of schools involved in the project (the programme was carried out by other instructors in six other schools in the Klang Valley using the same module), the positive outcomes in all the schools generally prove that the intervention programme may be useful in dealing with at-risk students who would otherwise be marginalised or fail in the major examination. The intervention programme is an alternative approach as it is designed to deal with the learners' self-worth as a starting point in bringing about changes rather than making changes in the teaching and learning materials in the classrooms that generally focus on students' academic performance solely. The premise that students, who have a change in their attitudes and perceptions of human values, would assume greater responsibility over their academic endeavours (i.e. as seen in their improved examination results and classroom behaviour) seem to point that timely intervention like the STAR programme is necessary to help students. Hence it is not surprising that Pintrich and Schunk (2002) perceive that motivation could positively influence students' performance and in turn, their positive performance may motivate them further in reaching their goals. Penn (2002) assures that it is essential for students to realise their self-potential and this is exactly the core of self-worth dynamics.

The programme did not only benefit the students as the students' improvement also positively affected their teachers and administrators who were willing to try alternative approaches in dealing with at-risk students. The activities conducted during the camps were based on human values, motivation and social responsibilities and less on classroom subjects. The activities could be carried out by the teachers in the classrooms as part of their everyday teaching if it is too costly to run such programmes independently. Diversions such as this could motivate at-risk students to improve themselves. In transaction view, teachers who see improvements in their students' results or behaviour could in turn become more interested in the teaching and learning process. Hence, the STAR programme could be further explored in the context of everyday school life. The Ministry of Education (MOE) could consider incorporating parts of the programmes, if not all, to keep the at-risk students in school and equip them with a basic formal education before they exit out of the school system forever.

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HIGH RISK OF INTERNET ADDICTION AND ITS RELATIONSHIP WITH PERSONALITY TRAIT, ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE AND QUALITY OF LIFE IN UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS

Manika Wisessathorn
Ramkhamhaeng University, Thailand

ABSTRACT

Nowadays, the internet has widespread adoption by undergraduate students and internet addiction has emerged as one of the significant issues that impact on their performance and holistic health. The present study aimed to expand these findings in respect to Thai undergraduate students by addressing the key research question, namely, are there any relationships between time spend online, personality trait, academic performance and quality of life with respect to undergraduate Thai students? A cross-sectional design was adopted by using three measures, including a questionnaire on internet use and pattern of use, the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF), and the WHOQOL-BREF test. A total of 430 students, aged 17 to 24 years (mean = 19.42, SD = 1.23), participated in the study. The result showed significant relationship between excessive internet use and lower score of GPA. Strong relationship was also found with personality trait in the domain of emotional instability, assertiveness or competitiveness, happy-go-lucky, disregard of rules, being suspicious, worrying or insecure behavior, being undisciplined, and a tendency to be tense and driven. Further, excessive users of internet were rated lower in terms of physical and psychological well-being. This finding highlights a need for closer examination of personal factor relevant to internet use and its impact on student's function and life.

Keywords: Internet Addiction, Personality, Academic performance, Quality of Life, Undergraduate Student

Introduction

In the globalization era, the rapid growth of internet and technology are shaping the way people live and with greater dependency on internet use. People can easily connect to internet network anytime and anywhere via various devices, e.g. computer, laptop, or smartphone. Therefore, the number of internet users around the world has increased tenfold from 1999 to 2013, up to three billion in 2014 and has continued rising year by year (Internet Live Stats, 2015). The number of internet users in Thailand is ranked as 29th in the list of internet users by countries in 2014 and is ranked as 10th largest IP network number in Asia while the percentage of population with internet is 28.84% (Internet Live Stats, 2015; National Electronics and Computer Technology Center, 2015). The preference of internet-based specific activity for Thai users is social network. By the fourth quarter of 2014, 52% of the Thai users had an active account with social network. The most popular is Facebook with a 28% penetration rate (The Statistic Portal, 2015). In terms of age, the largest group of Facebook users is in the age group of 18-24, 25-34 and 13-17 years old, respectively while an average time spent on internet is 5 hours 7 minute per day (Syndacast, 2015).

The 'internet addiction' or 'excessive internet use' or 'problematic internet use' has been considered as undesirable behavior; internet provides enormous information as well as various websites for entertainment and online communication. Although the latest edition of the DSM-5 is still not official, it appears in part of the 'Internet Gaming Disorder (IGD)' whereby people are persistent and recurrent users of the internet to engage in games that result in cognitive and behavioral symptoms e.g. progressive loss of control over game, tolerance and withdrawal symptoms. Those with severity of this disorder will spend more hours participating in games online until there is loss of a significant relationship, job, education or career opportunity (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). However, Pontes et al. (2015) considered internet addiction apart from IGD and Young (1996) viewed behavior of internet addiction similar to impulse control disorder that did not involve an intoxicant. The common characteristics of people with addiction to internet include (i) obsession with internet, (ii) inability or poor control toward use of internet, (iii) leading to negative outcomes in daily life, distress, psychological dependence and decline in socio-psychiatric functioning (Spada, 2014; Yang, et al., 2005).

Some previous literature has reported on an association between excessive online behaviors and individual's functioning or holistic health, especially in high-risk group of students/adolescents. One study with Indian school students revealed that students who were in the severe and profound groups of internet addiction had detrimental effects on their academic performance and mental health rather than students who were average users of internet (Singh & Barmola, 2015). Another study with Turkish university students examined the role of internet addiction and social media membership on psychological capital (PsyCap) that referred to state of satisfaction and happiness in life. Their finding revealed that internet addiction and PsyCap was negatively correlated but, surprisingly, social media membership led to both higher PsyCap and higher internet addiction. Therefore, social media application that seems to deliver friendly environment may introduce worse situation all at once (Simsek & Sali, 2014). Furthermore, when seeking to shed light on specific online activities that are relevant to internet usage behavior, one study with

large sample in UK (n=1,057) suggested that about half of the participants perceived themselves as having internet addiction while their internet use would be reduced if access to their preferred online activities was restricted (Pontes et al., 2015).

Statement of the problem

While previous literature indicated the impact of internet addiction on individual's functioning and health, a comprehensive study of personality that could contribute to internet usage was still somewhat deficient; further, the frequency and intensity of internet use seem to vary among adolescents in different environment and context. Therefore, the present study sought to expand those finding in regards to the Thai situation by investigating the relationship between time spent online, personality (16 traits), academic performance (GPA) and quality of life (in domain of physical, psychological, social relationship, environment and overall) with respect to Thai undergraduate students in order to ascertain the associations among them.

Framework of the study

The study employed a quantitative approach to explore the relationship between time spent online, personality (16 traits), academic performance (GPA) and quality of life. The framework of study is illustrated in Figure 1.
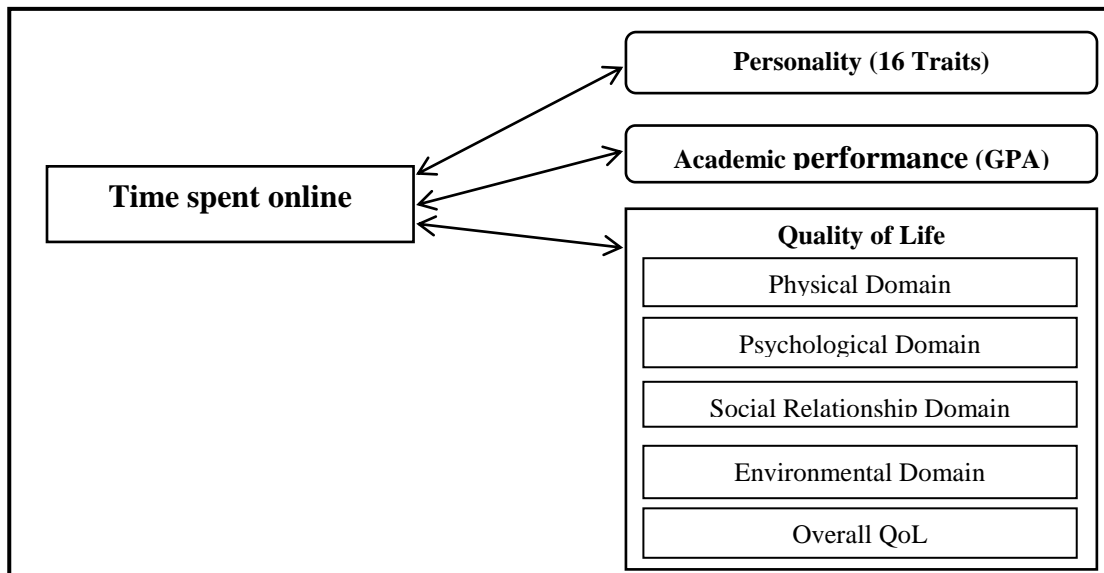

Figure 1: Framework of the study

Methodology

Participants and procedures

The present study adopted a cross-sectional design with participants who had to (i) be 16-25 years old, (ii) be the first-year undergraduate students at the Ramkhamhaeng University, (iii) enrolled in course of Introduction to Psychology during 2nd semester 2014 and studied at the Bangna campus and (iv) able to make access to internet via one or more tools/channels. These criteria were set to reduce confounding effect on research outcomes by rendering participants' educational background to be relatively similar. After finishing recruitment, the questionnaire packages were distributed to selected students and 474 completed instruments were returned. During the initial screening of the data, 44 (9.28%) were excluded due to some incomplete questionnaires. Thus, a total of 430 participants remained for the final analysis. There were 171 (39.8%) males and 259 (60.2%) females. The mean age was 19.42, with a standard deviation of 1.23 (age ranged from 17 to 24 years old).

Measures

The questionnaire package composed of three measures including (i) the questionnaire on perception of internet use and pattern of use, (ii) the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF) and (iii) the WHOQOL-BREF test. Likewise, the questions on participants' demography and other information (e.g. age, gender, GPA) were also contained in the package. The questionnaires were administered to participants after class and it took about 45-60 minutes to finish. Meanwhile all of them were assured of anonymity and confidentiality.

Questionnaire on internet use and pattern of use

This questionnaire was developed to investigate participants' internet use characteristics, including the questions of channel of internet access, pattern of internet use, time spent on internet per day and perception of internet addiction (yes/ no/ not-sure). Further, it also included one open-ended question, namely, asking about how internet usage impacted on them.

The Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF)

The 16PF was developed based on the trait theory of Cattell. It was a self-report assessment instrument measuring sixteen primary factors that were conceptualized as universal aspect of individual personality. It comprised of 187 items, scoring on a bipolar scale, to assess 16 traits as follows; warmth (type A), reasoning (type B), emotional stability (type C), dominance (type E), liveliness (type F), rule-consciousness (type G), social boldness (type H), sensitivity (type I), vigilance (type L), abstractedness (type M),being private (type N), apprehensiveness (type O), openness to change (type Q1), self-reliance (type Q2), perfectionism (type Q3) and tension (type Q4). Scoring the 16 PF needed a step of converting raw score to normalized sten score through norm tables (divided by age and gender) for each factor, and then plotting individual's personality profile (Cattell & Mead, 2008). The application of 16PF to internet addiction issue was suitability as suggested by previous studies (Yang, et al., 2005; Young and Rodgers, 1998). Besides, in this study, the in-used 16PF was the 16PF-Thai Version which was developed by the Department of Medical Services, Ministry of Public Health, Thailand. Measurement of internal consistency of the 16PF Thai-Version in this study was done by calculating Cronbach alpha coefficients with 30 samples revealing values ranging from .890 (type B) to .715 (type E), with an average of .794.

WHOQOL-BREF test

The WHOQOL-BREF test was an abbreviated form of the WHOQOL-100. It was a self-report assessment which was developed by the World Health Organization in order to assess generic quality of life. The test comprised of 26 items which measured the broad domains of physical health, psychological health, social relationship and environment. Meanwhile, the overall quality of life was considered through total score from all items (WHO, 1996). The WHOQOL-BREF test has applicability in various fields, including in psychology, public health and behavioral sciences; therefore it was selected for measuring general quality of life in the issue of internet-addictive behavior. The Thai-Version of the WHOQOL-BREF test developed by the Department of Mental Health, Ministry of Public Health, Thailand, was used for this study. Measurement of internal consistency provided values ranging from .815 (social relationship) to .702 (physical health), with an average of .791.

Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses comprised of (i) descriptive statistical analysis of participant's characteristics, and (ii) Pearson Correlation to find out the relationship among variables of interest. Quantitative analyses (iii) and (iv) were additional; including (iii) One-Way ANOVA to divide group of internet users by their perception toward internet use and amount of time spent online and (iv) post hoc test to ascertain significant difference among each pairs.

Results

Participants' demographics and characteristic of internet use

A detailed description of the participants' demographics and characteristic of internet use is presented in Table 1. Average age of participant was 19.42 (SD = 1.23) years old while an average GPA was 2.77 (SD = .45). Most of them accessed the internet from laptop (76.5%) and smart mobile phone (73.0%), respectively. They preferred all-day long internet accessing (66%) while some of them accessed the internet only when needed (33.5%). In terms of daily internet usage, participants reported using the internet nearly 4 hours (SD = 3.75) per day. Meanwhile, 46.8% of participants perceived themselves as addicted to internet, 36.3% believing that they had no addiction and 14.9% were not-sure about their possible addiction to internet.

Table 1: Participants' demographics and characteristic of internet use

Variables	n = 430
Gender (n, %)	
Male	171 (39.8)
Female	259 (60.2)
Age, years; mean (SD)	19.42 (1.23)

Variables	n = 430
GPA; mean (SD)	2.77 (.45)
Channel of internet access, may be more than 2 channels (n, %)	
Desktop computer	225 (52.3)
Laptop	329 (76.5)
Smart mobile phone	314 (73.0)
Tablet	67 (15.4)
Other mobile devices	18 (4.2)
Pattern of internet Use (n, %)	
All-day long	284 (66)
Only when needed	144 (33.5)
Other pattern of use	2 (0.5)
Daily internet use, hours; mean (SD)	3.97 (3.75)
Perceiving internet addiction (n, %)	
Yes	210 (46.8)
No	156 (36.3)
Not-sure	64 (14.9)

Divided groups by perception on internet use

This section considers the group of internet users segmented by their perception toward internet use and amount of time spent online. Table 2 reveals statistically significant difference (F = 68.994, p-vale < .001) between students who perceive internet addiction and spend an average of 5.85 (SD = 4.25) hours/day on internet access, students who perceive no addiction and spend an average of 1.89 (SD = 1.77) hours/day and students who are not-sure about their addiction to internet and spend an average of 2.94 (SD = 2.25) hours/day.

Table 2: Divided student groups by perception on internet addiction

Perceiving internet addiction	Mean (hr./day)	SD	F	p-value
Yes	5.85[a,b]	4.25	68.994**	< .001
No	1.89[a]	1.77		
Not-sure	2.94[b]	2.25		

* p-value < .05, ** p-value < .01
The F-Test determined whether there were significant differences among groups. Post hoc tests were then used for indicating multiple comparisons. Groups with dissimilar superscripts were significant differences; [a] indicated the difference in Yes/No Group; [b] indicated the difference in either Yes/Not-sure Group or No/Not-sure Group

Relationship between time spent online and GPA

Table 3 presents the Pearson correlation coefficients between times spent online and academic performance (GPA). It reveals that excessive internet use is strongly related to lower GPA (coefficient = -.216, p-value <.01).

Relationship between time spent online and quality of life

Table 3 also specifies the Pearson correlation coefficients between times spent online and students' quality of life. It reveals that students who were excessive users of internet would have lower scores in physical well-being (coefficient = -.099, p-value <.05) and psychological well-being (coefficient = -.108, p-value <.05). Another point of interest was the correlation between time spent online and social relationship. Although, there was no significant relationship between these variables, the correlation was in positive direction. This might reflect perceiving better social relationship when spending longer time online.

Table 3: Relationship between times spent online, GPA and quality of life

Variables	Time	GPA	Physical	Psycho	Social	Environment	Overall
Time spend online	1						
GPA	-.216**	1					
Physical Health	-.099*	-.020	1				
Psychological Health	-.108*	-.003	.582**	1			
Social Relationship	.076	-.122*	.420**	.437**	1		
Environment	-.037	-.116*	.505**	.572**	.479**	1	
Overall QoL	-.047	-.075	.794**	.832**	.656**	.855**	1

* p-value < .05, ** p-value < .01

Relationship between time spent online and personality (16 traits)

The Pearson correlation coefficients between time spent online and personality (16 traits) shows that students who excessively use internet were more likely to be emotionally less stable (type C; coefficient = -.130, p-value <.01), assertive or competitive (type E; coefficient = .149, p-value <.01), happy-go-lucky (type F; coefficient = .222, p-value <.01), disregard rules (type G; coefficient = -.116, p-value <.05), suspicious (type L; coefficient = .122, p-value <.05), worrying or insecure (type O; coefficient = .155, p-value <.01), undisciplined or careless of social rules (type Q3; coefficient = -.145, p-value <.01), and tense and driven (type Q4; coefficient = .115, p-value <.05). Other types of personality including warmth (type A), reasoning (type B), social boldness (type H), sensitivity (type I), abstractedness (type M), being privately focused (type N), openness to change (type Q1) and self-reliance (type Q2) were not significantly associated with online usage. [Note: *The Table of Pearson correlation coefficients does not appear here due to technical problems. Any reader wishing to have a copy can contact the Editor who will supply it*]

Discussion

This study sought to expand finding of internet addiction within Thai's context by investigating the relationship between time spent online, personality (16 traits), academic performance (GPA) and quality of life (in domain of physical, psychological, social relationship, environment and overall) in Thai undergraduate students in order to ascertain the associations among them.

Firstly, when determining the average time spent online, participants reported using the internet nearly 4 hours (SD = 3.75) per day. When comparing studies on different countries, it is found that Thai users spend time online comparatively equal to that of other countries. For example, the study in UK indicated that the daily internet use for leisurely purposes was an average of 4 hours/day (Pontes, et al., 2015). The study in Hong Kong reported time spent online in light user group and heavy user groups as averaging 2.95 and 4.29 hours/day, respectively (Wong et al., 2015). The study in France reported the time spent online by generalized problematic internet users, specific problematic internet users and non-problematic internet users as 4.80, 3.21, 2.30 hours/day, respectively (Laconi et al., 2015). Moreover, the literature suggests that individual who identified themselves as addicted to the internet displayed a tendency to engage in specific online activities rather than generalized use (Pontes et al., 2015). Therefore, when considering online behavior it is important to take into consideration the individual's context.

Second, the present study found significant correlation between time spent online and academic performance (GPA). It was obvious that excessive internet use was strongly related to lower GPA. This is consistent with most of the previous studies; for example, the study with Indian high school students revealed a significant effect of internet addiction on academic performance, especially in students of profound internet addiction group, while it may be academically valuable if used moderately (Singh & Barmola, 2015). Some studies typically determined relationship between specific online activities and academic performance, such as the study of Junco (2012) which explored the relationship among time spent on Facebook, frequency of Facebook activities, frequency of checking Facebook that impact on GPA and time spent preparing for class. His results indicated that large amounts of time spent on Facebook was negatively predict GPA, while frequency of checking to see what friends were updating and sharing (not including socializing) were negatively associated with time spent preparing for classes. While the study of Mohammadi et al. (2015) inferred that internet usage could be an indicator of academic procrastination across different years of study in Iran's undergraduate students.

Third, considering correlation between time spent online and personality, it was found that students who excessively use internet were more likely to be emotionally less stable, assertive or competitive, happy-go-lucky, disregard rules, suspicious, worrying or insecure, undisciplined or careless of social rules, tense and driven (type Q4; coefficient = .115, p-value <.05). This finding aligned with previous studies which consider personality as a predisposing factor impacting on excessive internet use behavior (Yang, et al., 2005). The relationship between personality traits in students and their perceptions of internet addiction in this study was comparatively similar to the study undertaken by Young and Rodgers (1998) who found characteristic of internet-dependent users were high self-reliance, emotional sensitivity and reactivity, low self-disclosure

and non-conformist characteristics. Those characteristics activated to an internet addiction by fulfilling unmet psychological needs through on-line stimulation. The study of Xiuqin et al. (2010) clarified the personality profile of internet-dependent users, namely, that they tended to be introverted and exhibited psychoticism. The study of Ko et al. (2006) revealed significant traits that predicted internet addiction, including high novelty seeking, high harm avoidance, and low reward dependence. They also reported that adolescents with internet addiction were more likely to have substance use experience. However, the meta-analysis of Koo & Kwon (2014) found that intrapersonal factor (e.g. escape from self, self-control, self-identity, and emotional regulation) had significantly larger effects on internet addiction than interpersonal factors (e.g. parent-child relationship, family functioning, and social support).

Furthermore, the internet addicted behavior of university students who were in adolescent-aged needed a closer consideration. Adolescent-aged was a period of develop identity and autonomy while internet seems to be an easily accessible way for adolescent to experiment and reach a sense of identity, autonomy and fulfill basic needs of being competent and relating to others. Thus, adolescents who have weak personality may use the internet to lessen their inner weakness or struggle. Some of them may develop virtual self in the internet with the purpose of eliminating feeling of dependency or incompetence or even escape from reality which may in turn lead to internet addiction (Koo & Kwon, 2014; Wong, et al., 2015; Yang, et al., 2005). Moreover, excessive use of internet may formulate or change trait/habit of individual; a study indicated that people with internet addiction were easily bored, had difficulty concentrating on tasks or school-work, fail to engage in face-to-face activities and tended to have less social skills (Li et al., 2015).

Finally, we turn our attention to the issue of correlation between times spent online and students' quality of life. This study showed that students who were excessive users of internet would have lower scores in physical and psychological well-being. Many previous studies reported on direct and indirect impact of internet-excessive use on psychological health, especially increasing of both internalizing problems (e.g. distress, depression, anxiety, stress) and externalizing problems (e.g. impulsive, delinquent and aggressive behavior) (Akin & Iskender, 2011; Evren et al., 2014; Wong et al., 2015). As well as, the negative correlation between internet addiction and physical health, this result was congruent with the study of Li et al. (2015), US university students who self-identified as intensive internet users were more likely to be sleep deprivation and failure to exercise, resulting in poor physical wellness. Meanwhile, for social relationship domain, it was interesting that excessive online users seem slightly better in social relationship. As suggested by Whang et al. (2003), the internet addiction group created new social relationship online which was expressed in a high proportion of online chatting to make new friends. Therefore, the report of slightly positive correlation may be due to the feeling of having shallow relationship with online-friends more than real-life ones. The psychological reasons may be because those excessive internet users accessed online activities in order to compensate their interpersonal difficulties and stress in real-life situation.

The present study had limitations. First, it employed cross-sectional design which reported only associations among research variables rather than gaining insight into the situation. Second, the sample size may be large enough but samples may not be representative for subjects of interest since there were lots of criteria set up for recruitment. Hence, the generalizability may be limited

just to students with similar conditions. Third, this study did not take specific online activity into consideration. Perhaps future studies may take these matters into consideration so as deepen the understanding of the issues.

Conclusion and Implications

Overall, the results of this study supported the view that excessive internet use correlated with personality trait, lower score of GPA, and poorer quality of life in domains of physical and psychological health. Regarding the implications of the current study findings, it is suggested that professionals should give greater consideration to: (i) how to improve adaptive function of students so that they are able to have well-functioning life while living in the rapid growth of online services and technology, (ii) find out specific purposes that students go online, and (iii) find out characteristic of 'healthy internet user' that benefits students to function and maintain their healthy life.

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ETHICAL LEADERSHIP PRACTICES IN THE UNIVERSITY SETTING: A MANAGERIAL CONDUCT FOR ORGANIZATIONAL SUCCESS

**Samer Khasawneh, Mohammad Jawarneh,
Jamal Abu-Alruzz,** and **Abdelghafour Al-Zawahreh**

Faculty of Educational Sciences
Hashemite University, Jordan

Abstract

The purpose of this research paper is to determine whether university academics holding managerial positions are regarded as ethical leaders in one public university in Jordan. Currently, there is a lack of research concerning ethical leadership practices in business and non-business settings especially higher education universities. Brown et al., (2005) ethical leadership survey is one of the most valid and reliable research tools in the field of ethical leadership, which is used to assess ethical leadership practices of managers based on followers perceptions. The research paper is quantitative in nature and was conducted using a survey design. Means, standard deviations, t-test, and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were utilized to analyze gained data. The findings indicated that university academics holding managerial positions are regarded as ethical based on followers' (faculty members) perceptions. Faculty members from the science colleges regarded their managers as being more ethical compared to those from the social science colleges. Finally, there were no significant differences among gender, academic rank, and experience of faculty members. The paper suggests that training workshops should be held for new management. Moreover, it is hoped that this research will encourage other universities locally and internationally to pursue such efforts.

Keywords: Ethical leadership, organizational success, higher education, and Jordan.

Introduction and Theoretical Framework

The era of the 21st century has witnessed economic downturns by many global organizations as a result of unethical practices. The continued scandals and corruptions have resulted in a loss of credibility in the management and leadership of these organizations (Weidner, 2010). According to Bragues (2008), the large majority of these business scandals occurred because "individuals holding leadership roles in the corporate arena lacked an inner moral core to influence their choices" (p. 373). As a result, both practitioners and researchers are beginning to fundamentally "rethink the very nature of how their organizations operate and how their people conduct business" (LRN, 2010, p. 4).

Today, many organizations suffer from ethical misconduct because of the negligence of ethical organizational values and lack of ethical leadership (Martin & Cullen, 2006). Moreover, based on the results of market polls conducted by Gallup Corporation, corruption is considered a problem in 108 countries worldwide (Sonnenschein & Ray, 2013). This situation has resulted in losses of millions of dollars (Harshman & Harshman, 2008), which triggered a strong interest in ethical leadership research (Ruiz-Palomino, Saez-Martínez, & Martinez-Canas, 2013; Steinbauer, Renn, Taylor, & Njoroge, 2014).

This new reality posed a paramount concern for all types of public and private organizations to promote ethical behaviors in higher education and corporate codes of ethics through efficient and effective ethical leadership, which is a critical piece for organizational success (Brown, Trevino, & Harrison, 2005; Brown & Mitchell, 2010; Kalshoven, Den Hartog, & De Hoogh, 2011; Ruiz, Ruiz, & Martinez, 2011; Simons, Friedman, & Liu, 2007; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck 2009). Organizations that engage in ethical misconduct "face an increasing risk of declining market share, lower profits, and government regulation" (Gagne, Gavin, & Tully, 2005, p. 110). By the same token, organizations that seek to increase their productivity, performance, and profit need to have good ethical practices (Carroll, 2004).

Previous research indicates that effective ethical leadership is a strong predictor of job satisfaction, job performance, organizational commitment, organizational optimism, organizational citizenship behavior, innovation, reduced deviant behaviors, and improved leaders-follower relationships (Brown et al. 2005; Brown & Trevino, 2006; Carmeli, Gelbard, & Reiter-Palmon, 2013; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008; Kacmar, Bachrach, Harris, & Zivnuska, 2011; Kalshoven et al., 2011; Loi, 2012; Mayer, Kuenzi, & Greenbaum, 2010; Piccolo, Greenbaum, Den Hartog, & Folger, 2010; Ruiz et al., 2011; Shin, 2012; Tu & Lu, 2013; Zhang, Walumbwa, Aryee, & Chen, 2013).

Brown and Trevino (2006) point out that ethical leadership should be "nice and necessary" for all organizations in today's global business. Ethical leadership which is defined as the "demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision making" (Brown et al., 2005, p. 120) denotes new ways of leading, necessary to create a competitive advantage for organizations (Kalshoven et al., 2011). Moreover, organizations need strong ethical leadership to present an ethical image, reputation, trust, legitimacy and credibility to their stakeholders (i.e., customers, suppliers, employees, and the society at large), which is vital for the achievement of long-term, strategic organizational objectives (Brown et al., 2005; Hansen, Dunford, Boss, Boss & Angermeier, 2011; Pettijohn, Pettijohn, & Taylor, 2008).

Organizations that need to transform and adapt to the challenging and dynamic nature of today's business need ethical leaders with characteristics such as altruism, trustworthiness, honesty, respect, openness, justice, and sincerity about ethical standards and philanthropic decisions (DeHoogh & DenHartog 2008; Souba, 2011; Zhu, May, & Avolio 2004). King (2008) affirmed that ethical leaders often shared values such as "honesty, loyalty, dedication to purpose, benevolence, and social justice, strength of character, humility, and patience" (p. 719). Moreover, ethical leaders should reward ethical behaviors and hold employees accountable through punishment of ethical misconduct to abide by high ethical standards and encourage others within their organizations to do so (Brown et al. 2005; Piccolo et al. 2010). Furthermore, ethical leaders need to consider and respect human rights, morality, dignity, autonomy, and talents of their employees (Ciulla, 2004; Kalshoven, Den Hartog, & De Hoogh, 2012; Piccolo et al. 2010).

Trevino et al., (2003) produced a list of behaviors that define an ethical leader including "doing the right thing, being a good, open communicator and receptive listener, sticking to principles and standards, holding followers accountable to standards, and not tolerating ethical lapses" (p.18). Brown et al. (2005) highlighted three main traits of ethical leadership represented by being an ethical role model, fair treatment of people, and actively managing morality. Ethical leaders should seek after employee professional development and creating stakeholder support and societal legitimacy; should communicate ethical values to others through open and transparent environment and offers training and support for employees on how to act ethically in the workplace (O,Connell & Bligh, 2009). In sum, ethical leaders should "not just talk a good game" but instead "practice what they preach" by acting as role models for ethical behavior (Brown & Trevino, 2006, p. 597).

Similar to business organizations, there are calls for improved ethical leadership in higher education (Hamilton, 2007; Moberg, 2006) in the areas of administration (Humphrey, Janosik, & Creamer, 2004; Kelley, Agle, & DeMott, 2006), faculty (Hamilton, 2007; Kelley et al., 2006), and research (Kelley et al., 2006; Kelley & Chang, 2007). For example, many leaders of higher education institutions are engaged in ethical misconduct related to violations of the law leading to termination of university presidents and boards (Bartlett, 2006; Gerber, 2005; Kelley & Chang, 2007; Tierney, 2005; Yeo & Chien, 2007; Van Der Werf, 2007). Kelley et al. (2006) stressed how unethical behavior can "undermine the reputation of universities" (p. 206) and credibility (Caldwell, Karri, & Matula, 2005). To this end, the society at large expect more out of the university system with regard to ethical leadership practices (Deeds, 2004; Evans, Trevino, & Weaver, 2006; McCabe, Butterfield, & Trevino, 2006; Moberg, 2006). Therefore, there are many calls to conduct research regarding ethical leadership practices in higher education.

Statement of the Problem

Over the last decade, public and private sector organizations are facing an increased risk of ethical misconduct by individuals holding managerial and leadership positions. Such unethical practices can lead to lower performance, declined profit, and loss of credibility and reputation of these organizations. To this end, both researchers and practitioners are pursuing significant research efforts to understand how managers and leaders conduct business. Moreover, the literature emphasizes the need for additional research on ethical leadership (Northouse, 2010; Yukl, 2006). To the researchers' best knowledge; little or no research exists in the Middle East, especially in Jordan

that investigated ethical leadership practices in higher education institutions. Therefore, the primary purpose of this study is to determine whether university academics holding managerial positions are regarded as ethical leaders in one public university in Jordan.

Research Questions

To achieve the primary purpose of this study, the following research questions were formulated:

1. Are university academics holding managerial positions regarded as ethical leaders based on faculty members' perceptions in one public university in Jordan?
2. Are there any statistical significant differences exist in the perceptions of faculty members toward ethical leadership based on differences in gender, college, academic rank, and experience?

Importance of the Study

The results of the present study are important for a number of reasons. First, the outcomes of this study may help faculty members in higher education learn about ethical practices in their institutions and how might effect their overall ability to pursue ethical behaviors as the norm of practice. Second, faculty members who are in managerial positions (e.g., department chairs, assistant deans, vice-deans, and deans) may realize and understand their own ethical leadership practices, which is a step toward becoming effective professional leaders. Third, the university administration may benefit from the results of the study in taking proactive steps toward improving work ethics. For example, presidents of higher education institutions may have a clear picture of the ethical practices of their managerial/leadership staff and proactive measures may be set in place for identifying effective future managers/leaders. Fourth, the results of this study will also help fill in the gap in the literature related to the lack of research on ethical leadership in higher education in a non-western country. International researchers may use these results to determine and compare the level of ethical leadership practices across cultures.

Methodology

Research design

This study is quantitative and descriptive in nature, which is designed to investigate ethical leadership practices of university academics holding managerial positions based on perceptions of followers in one university setting. The study also investigated significant differences in their perceptions based on demographic variables of gender, academic rank, years of experience, and college. Means, standard deviations were used to determine if university academics in managerial positions are regarded as ethical leaders. Independent sample t-test was used to determine whether perceptions of ethical leadership practices differed based on gender (male vs. female) and college (social science vs. science). Analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistic was used to determine whether there are significant differences in the means of followers' perceptions towards ethical leadership practices based on differences in academic rank and experience. In case of differences, Scheffe post hoc comparison was used. The alpha level was set at 0.05 a priori.

Population and sample

The target population for this study was defined as all faculty members from one public university located in the middle part of Jordan, which is about 515 participants. A random sample of 180 faculty members was chosen from the target population. A total of 129 usable instruments received with a response rate of 72 percent. The sample distribution was 81 males (63.8%) and 46 females (36.2%). There were 10 professors (7.8 percent), 36 associate professors (28.1 percent), 53 assistant professors (41.4 percent), and 29 instructors (22.7 percent). With regard to years of experience of faculty members, 26 (20.3 percent) had less than 3 years of experience, 37 (28.9 percent) had between three and five years of experience, 44 (34.4 percent) had between six and ten years of experience, and 21 (16.4 percent) had more than 10 years of experience. There were 44 (40.7 percent) faculty members associated with the social science colleges and 64 (59.3 percent) faculty members associated with the scientific colleges.

Instrumentation

A two-part instrument was used to collect data in this study. The first part contained the Ethical Leadership Scale (ELS), which was developed and validated by Brown et al., (2005) through a series of seven studies. The ELS is relatively short and consists of a pool of ten items that can be applied to both formal and informal leaders at all levels of the organization in the domain of ethical leadership. The ELS scale is used to assess followers' perceptions of their direct manager or leader with regard to ethical leadership behavior.

Responses to the scale were measured on a five-point Likert-type scale ranged as follows: 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = neither disagree nor agree, 2 = disagree, and 1 = strongly disagree. Brown et al., (2005) mentioned that those responses falling at a cutoff value of three or above can be considered to be ethical leaders. Sample items include: "my manager/leader listens to what employees have to say" and "my manager/leader makes fair and balanced decisions". An overall mean score for the ten items was used as the overall measure of ethical leadership.

Based on previous studies, the ELS had excellent reliability coefficients ranging between α = 0.91 - 0.97 and predictable relationships with variables in the nomological network of ethical leadership such as perceived leader effectiveness, job dedication, satisfaction with the leader, and followers' willingness to report problems to management (Beeri, Dayan, Vigoda-Gadot, & Werner, 2013; Brown et al., 2005; Jordan, Brown, Trevino, & Finkelstein, 2013; Neubert, Carlson, Kacmar, Roberts, & Chonko 2009; Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes, & Salvador 2009; Mayer et al., 2010; Morris & Langari, 2012). The second part of the instrument contained information related to demographic characteristics of respondents such as gender, academic rank, previous experience, and college.

Two translators (faculty members) who were bilingual in English and Arabic translated the English version of the ELS into Arabic (forward translation). These translators were instructed to retain both the form (language) and the meaning of the items as close to the original as possible but to give priority to meaning equivalence. When the Arabic translation was finalized, the ELS was then back-translated (from Arabic to English) by other two faculty members who were bilingual in English and Arabic. The back-translated items were then evaluated by a group of three faculty members to

ensure that the item meanings were equivalent in both the original English versions and the back-translated version. If differences in meaning were found between items, those items were put through the forward and back-translation process again. The Arabic version of the ELS was then pilot tested with a group of 25 faculty members selected from the target population under study to collect feedback about survey content and usage. This group was excluded from the main sample of the study. The feedback from the faculty members emphasized that the survey has both face and content validity. The internal consistency of the instrument was determined using the same group of subjects used in the pilot study. The feedback from the panel insured clarity of instructions and items.

The overall coefficient reliability for the ten items was 0.93. The standards for instrument reliability for Cronbach's a by Robinson et al. (1991) were used to judge the quality of the scales of the instrument. These standards were: 0.80-1.00, exemplary reliability; 0.70-0.79, extensive reliability; 0.60-0.69, moderate reliability; and 0.60, minimal reliability. Based on the above guidelines, the ELS had exemplary reliability. Therefore, this figure suggests that the survey is suitable to measure ethical leadership practices in higher education institutions in Jordan.

Data Collection

Data for this study were collected using the ELS instrument used in this study. The survey was distributed by the researchers during the second semester of the academic year 2013/2014. The sample of the study was contacted in person to grant permission to conduct the study. During this process, the researchers explained the purpose of the study, assured confidentiality of results, and handed the surveys to participants. The collection process of the surveys took approximately four weeks.

Results

The data collected from all participants were analyzed using software package SPSS version 17.0. Descriptive statistics for all variables in this study were examined using SPSS frequencies. The minimum and maximum values of each variable were examined for the accuracy of data entry by inspecting out of range values. An examination of these values did not detect any out of range values. Missing subjects were detected and valid percent was used to report results. Results of the study are addressed by each research question.

Question 1

The first research question concerned whether university academics holding managerial positions regarded as ethical leaders based on faculty members' perceptions in one public university in Jordan?" To measure ethical leadership practices, faculty members were asked to rate their responses on ten items. The mean values and standard deviations for followers' responses to these items are presented in Table (1). According to the table, the overall mean score for all items was 3.86, indicating that university academics holding managerial positions are considered to be ethical leaders. It is noted that responses to the ten items fall at a cutoff value of three or above, indicating the practice of ethical leadership.

Table1. Means and Standard Deviations for Items of the Ethical Leadership Scale

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation
My manager/leader………..		
1. Listens to what employees have to say.		
2. Makes fair and balanced decisions.	3.98	0.87
3. Can be trusted.		
4. Conducts his/her personal life in an ethical manner.	3.98	0.87
5. Disciplines employees who violate ethical standards.		
6. Sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms ethics.	3.95	0.97
	3.93	0.86
7. Has the best interest of employee in mind.		
	3.90	0.86
8. When making decisions, asks "what is the right thing to do?"		
	3.82	1.00
9. Discusses business ethics or values with employees.		
10. Defines success not just by results but also the w that they are obtained.	3.78	0.89
	3.72	0 0.9
	3.66	0.97
	3.66	0.85
Total (Overall)	**3.86**	**0.68**

Question 2

Question two concerned whether statistical significant differences exist in the perceptions of faculty members toward ethical leadership based on differences in gender, college, academic rank, and experience? Independent sample t-test was used to examine the difference in means between gender of participants (males vs. females) and college of participants (social science vs. science) on the overall score of ethical leadership. Table (2) illustrates that there were no significant differences (p ≤ 0.05) between gender of participants on the overall score of ethical leadership. Table (3) shows that there were significant differences (p ≤ 0.05) between the perceptions of participants from the social science faculty compared to those from the science faculty on the overall score of ethical leadership.

Table 2. Differences between Male and Female Employees' Perceptions of Ethical Leaders on the Overall Score of the Ethical Leadership Scale.

Overall Score	Gender	N	Means	Std. Deviations	T	*p*
Ethical leadership	Male	77	3.92	0.73	1.14	0.25
	Female	41	3.77	0.59		

Table 3. Differences in Employees' Perceptions of Ethical Leaders Based on their College (Social Science vs. Science).

Overall Score	College	N	Means	Std. Deviatio	T	*p*
Ethical leadership	Social Science	41	3.68	0.63	4.09	0.000
	Science	61	4.15	0.52		

With regard to the academic rank of faculty members, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) shows that there were no significant differences between the four group levels (professor, associate professor, assistant professor, and instructor) on the overall score of ethical leadership (see Table 4). With regard to the experiences in current position variable, utilizing the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), Table (5) shows that there were no significant differences between the four experience group levels (less than 3 years, 3-5 years, 6-10 years, and more than 10 years) on the overall score of ethical leadership.

Table 4. Differences between the Four Levels of Academic Rank (Professor, Associate Professor, Assistant Professor, and Instructor) of Employees' (Faculty Members') Perceptions of Ethical Leaders on the Overall Score of the Ethical Leadership Scale.

	Sum of Squares		*df*	F	*p*
Ethical leadership	Between Groups	0.308	3	0.211	0.88
	Within Groups	55.980	115		
	Total	56.288	118		

Table 5. Differences between the Four Levels of experience (Less than 3 years, 3-5 years, 6-10 years, and more than 10 years) of Employees' (Faculty Members') Perceptions of Ethical Leaders on the Overall Score of the Ethical Leadership Scale.

	Sum of Squares		*df*	F	*p*
Ethical leadership	Between Groups	2.432	3	1.740	0.16
	Within Groups	54.049	116		
	Total	56.481	119		

Discussion and Recommendations

Ethical leadership is argued to be a construct that is critical in helping organizations of all types succeed through increased productivity, competitive advantage, and organizational effectiveness. Ethical leadership takes place when leaders of an organization demonstrate standardized appropriate behavior through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the encouragement of such behavior to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision making (Brown et al., 2005). The current study is designed to determine whether university academics holding managerial positions are regarded as ethical leaders based on followers' perceptions in one public university in Jordan. A sample of 129 followers participated in the study by completing the Ethical Leadership Scale (ELS) developed by Brown et al., (2005).

The results of the current study indicate that the ELS is a brief, sound, and reliable instrument that appropriately measures ethical leadership practices in a university setting. The instrument in this study yielded an alpha reliability coefficient of 0.92, indicating its suitability and consistency. One of the main findings of this study is that faculty members, based on their perceptions, consider their superiors as ethical leaders, which is evident by the high mean values for each item in the instrument and for the overall score. In general, faculty members indicate that superiors are trustworthy and ethical; promote ethical behaviors and actions such as conducting their personal lives in an ethical manner; discipline employees who violate ethical guidelines; work for the best interest of employees; listen to employees' opinions and suggestions when making ethical and balanced decisions; conduct two-way communication with employees to discuss ethical values and the right things to do when conducting business for the sake of multiple stakeholders.

Results from the current study are consistent with previous research indicating that ethics is a desirable and appropriate conduct, which guides individuals to differentiate between right and wrong conduct in a given situation (Northouse, 2007). Moreover, the present study's findings are consistent with the opinion of previous research indicating that (a) ethical leaders are seen by their followers as trustworthy and fair (Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009) and (b) ethical leaders consider the impact of their managerial decisions on the larger society in which they operate (Piccolo et al., 2010).

One possible explanation for the presence of ethical leadership practices in the university under study is the fact that successive university presidents along with the university council has established a culture of shared leadership and transformational leadership in all aspects of the university work process over the past 14 years which is a key stone for evolving ethical leadership practices. It is well-known that ethical leadership practices are a compilation of rules found in the other types of leadership theories mentioned earlier. Therefore, with the advance of time, many members of the university have adapted to the practices of ethical leadership and became a normal practice.

Another strand of results regarding demographic variables found no difference between male and female faculty members' perceptions of ethical leadership practices. These results can be justified by the fact that the education systems in Jordan emphasize equality between males and females which is then carried out in all aspects of life. Also, the university under study hires and treats all employees equally regardless of gender. With regard to college of participants, the results showed

that faculty members from the science colleges had higher mean values than those from the social science colleges. This result might be justified. The science colleges (e.g., medicine, engineering, and physics) are more inclined toward dealing with scientific facts of the world and this requires less human interaction as compared to the social science field (e.g., education, management, and tourism) which is completely focused on human behavior. Finally, academic rank of participants and their years of experience in the university had no effect on faculty members' perceptions of ethical leadership. As mentioned earlier, the culture of ethical leadership has developed over the past 14 years as a result of the practice of other types of leadership such as shared and transformational.

Recommendations

Based on the above discussion, a number of practical and theoretical recommendations are provided. From the practical standpoint, university presidents and councils at the university system should continue emphasizing ethical leadership practices on a regular basis and pass on their practice to other public and private universities in Jordan. This can be accomplished through workshops and seminars held on the university campus. Another recommendation is that there is a need to demand faculty members who will presume managerial positions to attend training sessions on how to implement the practice of ethical leadership in their daily work. For example, training sessions may focus on training prospective management on employee empowerments, voice, role-model behaviors, and ethical decision-making in daily behaviors to promote an ethical culture. Considering that today's students are the future leaders, the last recommendation would be to incorporate a mandatory course about ethical leadership and its importance in advancing the well-being of the organization. This recommendation is mentioned by Joseph and Efron (2005) who emphasized the importance of including the teaching of ethics in the university settings.

From the theoretical standpoint, a replication of this study with a larger sample should be undertaken. For instance, researchers at each university in Jordan should investigate ethical leadership practices utilizing the ELS. Moreover, more qualitative research should be done in this area to provide more in-depth information for the construct of ethical leadership, which may also result in enhancement for the instrument at hand. Further, research should attempt to relate the ethical leadership construct with other constructs in the nomological network such as organizational performance, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and workplace deviance. Finally cross-cultural studies should be carried out to better understand the similarities and differences across cultures regarding the concept of ethical leadership.

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THE FACULTY MEMBERS' ENGAGEMENT: THEIR PREFERENCE AND ACTUAL WORKLOAD IN THE HASHEMITE UNIVERSITY

Aieman Ahmad Al-Omari
Mahmoud Khaled AL-Jradat
Department of Educational Foundations and Administration
Faculty of Educational Sciences,
Hashemite University, Jordan

Abstract

This study explores the faculty members' engagement in the Hashemite University. Faculty Engagement Survey used in this study. A stratified proportional randomsample was selected; consisted of a total of 270 faculty members. The results revealed that faculty member's preferences workload spent on research, while they spent more time on teaching as an actual workload. They rated "service" as low actual workload, but they try to preference it than teaching. Associate professors show that their engagement in the actual workload has more in "service" than assistant and full professors. Gender had no significant effect based on their actual workload. Scientific participants show that their actual workload engagement have more in teaching, research and service than others in humanities. Male participants show that their preferences engagement has more in teaching and service than females. Scientific participants show that their preference engagement has more in service than others in humanities.

Keywords: Faculty members; teaching; research; service, Hashemite University; Jordan

Introduction

The responsibilities of faculty members vary among individuals and academic units, traditionally they always include participation in the following activities: (a) teaching, (b) research, and (c) service (Mancing, 1991). These duties constitute the faculty member's principal obligation to the University.

The teaching, research, and service roles of college faculty members can be complementary, but they can also compete for the faculty member's time. Nakamura &Csikszentmihalyi (2005) identified four areas in which faculty engagement can be identified: educating students; preserving and advancing a specific domain of knowledge; serving the needs of the institution; and responding

to the needs of the broader society. They suggested that engagement depends upon the faculty member finding enjoyment in the challenge of one or more of these areas and sensing congruence between his or her values and those of the task.

The definitions of engagement varies in term of complexity. Engagement in work described as a positive psychological state (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008), and described as feeling a sense of responsibility for and commitment to a performance domain (Britt, Dickinson, Greene-Shortridge, &McKibben, 2007). Macey and Schneider (2008) suggested that engagement includes both psychological and behavioral components.

Likewise, engagement among faculty members is viewed differently in higher education literature. The use of the term *engagement* in reference to faculty members commonly signifies service activities that extend beyond the institution (Antonio et al., 2000; Ward, 2003). Furthermore, Boyer's (1990) model of scholarship, particularly the aspect of *application* which suggests that the faculty member uses knowledge gained through research to assist others in the community, has been used synonymously with faculty engagement (O'Meara et al., 2009).

In Hashemite University, Faculty members Act No. (48) for year 2005 in Article (22) indicated that tasks of faculty member at the university include: Teaching and conducting examinations. Conduct innovative research and studies. Supervision of theses and student research and reports of scientific and social activities and direct them scientifically and ethically. Academic Advising. Subscribe to the university councils and committees and those involving the university. Any action that promotes the university and pay them to progress. A full-time scientific duty at the university and make the effort for the advancement of science and its mission to maintain a decent standard position the university in the fields of research and teaching, guidance and management. Community service and development (Hashemite University, 2005).

In Hashemite University, from the researcher experience, teaching, conducting examinations and advisement activities typically constitute 70% of faculty workload per week per semester for the academic year. Conduct research and studies typically constitutes 20% of a faculty member's workload per semester for the academic year. Also, each member of the faculty is expected to serve in ways best suited to the faculty member's talents and the needs of the various units, generally this constitutes 10% of a faculty member's workload per semester for the academic year.

The faculty members' preference for their workload vs. their actual workload frequently indicates that faculty would like more time spent in research (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). Approximately one quarter of contemporary faculty, particularly those within research universities, spend more than 55 hours working per week; yet, they still report that their desire to participate in research is thwarted by the limited opportunities provided by their workload to engage in research. This conflict between time and desired activities is described by Schuster and Finkelstein (2006): "When organizational expectations diverge from those activities that individual faculty members value most, they are likely to experience considerable strain that may negatively affect their work—or, more problematically, they may find ways to passively circumvent organizational expectations" (p. 87).

In addition to the time spent in teaching and research activities, nearly 80% of faculty members report participating in service or volunteer work, and approximately 40% of undergraduate faculty advise students in their service work (Antonio, Astin, & Cress, 2000); however, the number of faculty members spending at least 5 hours per week in service activities is closer to 10%. When grouped with administrative activities, the 2004 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty data indicated that full-time faculty report spending 20.1%) of their time in service activities and part-time faculty spend 6.6%) of their time in service activities, emphasizing the higher service workload for full-time faculty (Cataldi, Bradburn, &Fahimi, 2005).

Another perspective of faculty service was offered through participation in committee work. As Porter (2007) indicating that using data collected from 5,867 full-time faculty members from research, doctoral, comprehensive, and baccalaureate institutions, he explored the type of committees, the number of committees served, and the number of hours spent in committee work. Differences in amount of committee work were most evident between junior and senior faculty members, with senior faculty members spending more time serving on committees. In addition, Porter reported that female faculty members spend more time on committee work than male faculty members at doctoral institutions. Porter's (2007) and Antonio et al.'s (2000) findings, as well as national data (Cataldi et al., 2005), indicated that the level of service involvement varies according to institution type, gender, rank, academic discipline, and personal values and underscores the inconsistency in faculty workloads.

Promotion is most often determined by publications, a terminal degree, and administrative responsibilities. However, the extent of reward is influenced by the type of institution and the academic discipline (Finkelstein, 2006). Clark (1986) claimed that the expectation to participate in teaching and research is a complicated demand that is "a critical problem affecting the vitality of faculty careers and the quality of undergraduate education" (p. 32).

Boyer (1990) suggested that faculty be recognized and rewarded for their unique areas of contribution. Those skilled in teaching as well as those experienced in research or active in service activities should be acknowledged and encouraged for their contribution to higher education. Some mandates, he emphasized, apply to all faculty; specifically, everyone should demonstrate the ability to perform original research and stay up-to-date in his or her field. He insisted that all faculty members be held to high standards of integrity and be measured for excellence.

Furthermore, evaluation based solely on scholarly productivity removes attention from teaching and could result in poor teaching and feelings of incompetence (Deci & Ryan, 1982). For example, feelings of inadequacy by faculty members are associated with instructor ratings from students that are lower than those received by faculty members who rated themselves as more self-assured (Brems, Baldwin, Davis, &Namyniuk, 1994). This self-doubt and low sense of competence can be further complicated by the pressure to produce, which induces more competition among colleagues.

Professors, rather, are more likely to be motivated in environments that promote autonomy and provide challenges. Motivation to teach includes the opportunity to influence students and the freedom to teach in one's own way. However, Deci and Ryan (1982) noted that "the issue is somewhat complicated, since teaching is not necessarily the central element of the job; university professors are frequently hired to be scholars and scientists rather than teachers" (p. 30). This

discrepancy could be resolved, at least somewhat, by a more flexible structure for evaluation that promotes individual faculty members' motivation. Encouraging faculty's intrinsic motivation to act within various roles may have a positive influence on student outcomes.

Purposes and Research Questions

A survey of the related literature in Jordan indicated paucity of research that addressed the faculty members' engagement; their preference and actual workload in Jordanian universities. Therefore, the specific purpose of the study, explore the Jordanian Universities faculty members engagement (teaching, research, and service). *Second*, analyze the significant differences in Jordanian Universities faculty members engagement based in their academic rank, gender, and discipline.

This study addressed the following specific questions:

Question 1: How do faculty members' perceived their preference and actual workload engagement (teaching, research, and service)?

Question 2: Do faculty members' engagement differ based on their actual workload regarding to their academic rank, gender and discipline?

Question 3: Do faculty members' engagement differ based on their preferences regarding to their academic rank, gender and discipline?

Significance of Study

College faculty members, however, are not limited to the role of a teacher; instead, faculty members have traditionally been expected to participate in teaching, research, and service. Many faculty members successfully balance expectations while finding enjoyment in their work (Nakamura &Csikszentmihalyi, 2005). Even so, these competing demands on a faculty member's time and effort could foster negative attitudes or detract from his or her overall performance, particularly when there is ambiguity related to the expectations of the faculty member's institution (Wright, 2005).

Despite the potential for stress created by competing and expanding expectations, creating specialized roles such as master teacher or research associate to replace regular academic appointments may not improve the quality of the faculty's work. On the contrary, Schuster and Finkelstein (2006) suggested that the combination of teaching and research was actually a successful pairing in the 20th century and contributed to the strength of American higher education.

The implications of the paradox created by the benefits of research-informed teaching vs. the competing demands on a faculty member's time could be resolved through reorganized workloads, restructured faculty evaluation programs, and revised rewards systems (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). Restructuring evaluation systems to acknowledge all areas of faculty work may have a potential benefit; however, it should be noted that a unique group of faculty members still provide community service related to their academic discipline despite their institution's failure to acknowledge or support such activities (O'Meara et al., 2009). The variance in faculty motivation,

behavior, and productivity have been explained by the faculty member's perceived competence, preferred effort for a given role, and perceived institutional expectations (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1995). O'Meara et al. implored researchers to explore not only the organizational contributors to faculty performance and productivity but also to introduce "personal and collective agency, commitment, passion, and care" (p. 149) to their list of variables.

Further research that investigates the intrinsic motivation, commitment, and sense of agency of these engaged faculty members can assist administrators and policymakers in creating a work environment that encourages faculty investment in their work, creativity, and effectiveness.

Methodology

Research Design

The purpose of this quantitative study was to measure the components that comprise faculty engagement in the areas of teaching, research, and service in Hashemite University, and do faculty members' engagement differ regarding to their academic rank, gender and discipline?

Population and Sample of Study

The population of study consists of all faculty members who are working in the Hashemite University for the academic year 2014/2015 with total number of (604), (Female= 161 ; Male= 447). A stratified proportional random sample was selected for the purpose of this study representing (270) faculty members (Female= 74, male= 196).

Research Instrument

Faculty Engagement Survey, Items were created deductively from research-based and conceptual definitions of engagement (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2005; Schaufeli& Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli et al., 2002) were reviewed for their potential contribution to the instrument.

Thirty-three items were included in each of the teaching, research, and service sections of the instrument. These sections also included items that asked the faculty members to assess their current and ideal work experience on a number of criteria. Each of the demographic items was included in the instrument for its contribution to analyzing the group differences in the data.

Instrument Validity

For the purpose of examining the validity of the instrument in this study (face validity evidence) it was presented to six experts in educational administration, research and evaluation and educational measurement. They were asked to check whether the statements in the instrument are clear and linked appropriately with the problem of study. Based on the experts' comments, some revisions regarding to the language were done to the instrument.

Instrument Reliability

Regarding the reliability of the instrument in this study, an internal consistency procedure (to estimate the consistency across the items) was used. A pilot study of 15 participants had been conducted. Those participants did not participate in the final study. The instructions were clear and all of the items of instrument functioning in appropriate manner. The values of alpha (the internal consistency coefficient) for dimensions of instrument were as follows: 0.85 for teaching, 0.87 for research, .and 0.88 for service. The previous values can be considered reasonably satisfactory to achieve the objectives of the current study.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using the software SPSS package for educational studies. Statistical treatments involved means, and standard deviation were employed to answer the first question. In order to examine whether there are statistically significant differences in means between demographic variables Three-way MANOVA technique was employed to answer the second and third questions.

The preference and actual workload of faculty members' engagement scores were determined. Preferences scores were interpreted using the following measures: 1.00-2.33 = low preferences; 2.34-3.67 = medium preferences; and 3.68-5.00 = high preference. Respondents were also requested to rate their actual workload engagement.

Discussion

Question 1:   How do faculty members' perceived their preference and actual workload engagement (teaching, research, and service)?

Table 1 reports the preferences and actual workload engagement (teaching, research, and service) for faculty members at Hashemite University.

• *Preference scores*: Study findings reported in Table 1 show that, the faculty members rated research as "high preferences" with means (4.11), and "teaching" as "high preference with mean (3.08), and rated "service" as high preference with means (3.96).

• *Actual workload scores*: Results reported in Table 1 show that, the faculty members rated teaching as "high actual workload" with mean (4.24), and "research" as "low actual workload with mean (3.38), and rated "service" as low actual workload with mean (3.37).

Table 1.Means and Standard Deviation of the preferences and actual workload engagement (teaching, research, and service) for faculty members at Hashemite University.

Dimensions	Preference		Actual	
	Mean	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**
Teaching	3.80	0.774	4.24	0.471
Research	4.11	0.587	3.38	0.778
Service	3.96	0.739	3.37	0.860

Question 2: Do faculty members' engagement differ based on their actual workload regarding to their academic rank, gender and discipline?

Three-way MANOVA were conducted to determine whether there are significant mean differences in the actual workload of faculty members engagement in relation to their academic rank (Full Professor, associate, and assistant), gender (male and female) and discipline (sciences and humanities).

Table 2 presents the three-way MANOVA results. MANOVA results revealed significant differences between academic rank (Wilks' Lambda = .917, $F(6, 512) = 3.800$, $p = .0001$), and discipline categories (Hotelling's Trace = .036, $F(3, 256) = 3.075$, $p = .028$) on the combined dependent variable of faculty members engagement based on their actual workload. A univariate analysis was conducted as a follow-up test. Table 3 presents the ANOVA results. ANOVA results indicate that only the service dimension ($F(2, 269) = 11.225$, $p = .000$) differs significantly by the academic rank.

To assess pairwise differences among the groups of academic rank (Full, associate, and assistant), the Fischers LSD procedures (p = .05) was performed (Table 4). The results in Table 4 indicate that associate faculty members of participants in Service (M = 3.67) differ significantly from assistant of participants (M = 3.23), and associate professors differ significantly from full professors (M = 3.10), this means associate professors of participants saw that their engagement have more in service than others.

MANOVA results indicate that gender (Hotelling's Trace = .031, $F(3, 256) = 2.614$, $p = .0052$) had no significant effect on the combined dependent variable of faculty members engagement based on their actual workload.

Table 2. Three-way MANOVA for faculty members' engagement based on their actual workload by academic rank, gender and discipline

Effect	Value		F	Hypothesis d	Error df	P
Academic rank	(Wilk's Lambda)	0.917	3.800	6	512.00	0.001*
Gender	(Hotelling's Trace)	0.031	2.614	3	256.00	0.052
Discipline	(Hotelling's Trace)	0.036	3.075	3	256.00	0.028*

* indicates significant result

Table 3. ANOVA summary for faculty members' engagement based on their actual workload by academic rank, and discipline

Source	Dependent Variables	Type III sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Academic rank	Teaching	.014	2	.007	.034	.967
	Research	1.887	2	.943	1.818	.164
	Service	14.955	2	7.477	11.225	.000*
Discipline	Teaching	.800	1	.800	3.870	.050*
	Research	2.919	1	2.919	5.627	.018*
	Service	3.099	1	3.099	4.652	.032*
Error	Teaching	53.302	258	.207		
	Research	133.848	258	.519		
	Service	171.864	258	.666		
Corrected Total	Teaching	59.728	269			
	Research	162.853	269			
	Service	198.987	269			

* indicates significant result

Table 4.Fischers LSD Multiple Comparisons among participants regarding their academic rank experience for teaching engagement.

Dependent Variables	(I) Academic Rank	N	Mean	SD	Academic rank (J)	Mean Differences(I J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Service	Full	33	3.10	0.768	Associate	-0.570	0.167	0.001*
					Assistant	-0.1315	0.161	0.416
	Associate	99	3.67	0.674	Full	0.570	0.167	0.001*
					Assistant	0.438	0.109	0.000*
	Assistant	138	3.23	0.941	Full	0.1315	0.161	0.416
					Associate	-0.438	0.109	0.000*

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

ANOVA results in Table 3, and Means and standard deviation in Table 5, indicate that Teaching (F(1, 269)= 3.870, p=0.050 in scientific discipline (M=4.37) differ significantly from Humanities (M = 4.12), Research (F(1, 269)=5.627, p=0.018   in scientific discipline (M=3.55)   differ significantly from Humanities (M =3.23), and service (*F*(1, 269) = 11.225, *p* = .000) 050 in scientific discipline (M=3.47) differ significantly from Humanities (M = 3.28), this means scientific participants saw that their actual workload engagement have more in teaching, research and service than others in humanities.

Table 5.Means and Standard Deviation of actual workload engagement (teaching, research, and service) for faculty members at Jordanian universities regarding to their discipline.

Dimensions	Disciplines	No.	M	SD
Teaching	Humanities	141	4.12	0.450
	Scientific	129	4.37	0.460
Research	Humanities	141	3.23	0.732
	Scientific	129	3.55	0.795
Service	Humanities	141	3.28	0.769
	Scientific	129	3.47	0.941

Question 3: Do faculty members' engagement differ based on their preferences regarding to their academic rank, gender and discipline?

Three-way MANOVA were conducted to determine whether there are significant mean differences in preferences of faculty members engagement in relation to their academic rank (Full Professor, associate, and assistant), gender (male and female) and discipline (sciences and humanities).

Table 6 presents the three-way MANOVA results. MANOVA results revealed no significant differences between academic rank (Wilks' Lambda = .974, $F(6, 512) = 1.118$, $p = 0.350$).

MANOVA results indicate that gender (Hotelling's Trace = .036, $F(3, 256) = 3.039$, $p = .0030$) had significant effect on the combined dependent variable of faculty members engagement based on their preferences. Also, discipline (Hotelling's Trace = .033, $F(3, 256) = 2.816$, $p = .0040$) had significant effect on the combined dependent variable of faculty members engagement based on their preferences. A univariate analysis was conducted as a follow-up test. Table 7 presents the ANOVA results.

TABLE 6. Three-way MANOVA for faculty members' engagement based on their preferences by academic rank, gender and discipline

Effect	Value		F	Hypothesis d	Error df	P
Academic rank	(Wilk's Lambda)	0.974	1.118	6	512.00	0.350
Gender	(Hotelling's Trace)	0.036	3.039	3	256.00	0.030*
Discipline	(Hotelling's Trace)	0.033	2.816	3	256.00	0.040*

* indicates significant result

ANOVA results in Table 7 and Means and standard deviation in Table 8, indicate that Teaching (F(1, 269)= 4.285, p=0.039 in male faculty members (M=3.86) differ significantly from females (M = 3.53). Service (F(1, 269)=5.515, p=0.020 in male (M=3.92) differ significantly from females (M=3.61), this means male participants show that their preferences engagement have more in teaching, and service than females.

Also, ANOVA results in Table 7 and Means and standard deviation in Table 8, indicate that Service $(F(1, 269)=8.011$, $p=0.005$ in scientific discipline (M=3.96) differ significantly from Humanities (M =3.58), this means that scientific participants show that their preferences engagement have more in service than others in humanities.

Table 7. ANOVA summary for faculty members' engagement based on their preferences by gender, and discipline

Source	Dependent Variables	Type III sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Gender	Teaching	2.495	1	2.495	4.285	.039*
	Research	.973	1	.973	3.283	.071
	Service	2.339	1	2.339	5.515	.020*
Discipline	Teaching	.002	1	.002	.003	.958
	Research	.096	1	.096	.324	.570
	Service	3.398	1	3.398	8.011	.005*
Error	Teaching	150.216	258	.582		
	Research	76.504	258	.297		
	Service	109.442	258	.424		
Corrected Total	Teaching	161.445	269			
	Research	92.825	269			
	Service	147.270	269			

* indicates significant result

Table 8.Means and Standard Deviation of preferences engagement (teaching, research, and service) for faculty members' at Jordanian universities regarding to their gender and discipline.

	Dimensions	Variables	No.	M	SD
	Teaching	Male	196	3.86	0.064
		Female	74	3.53	0.145
Gender	Research	Male	196	4.14	0.046
		Female	74	3.93	0.103
	Service	Male	196	3.92	0.055
		Female	74	3.61	0.123
	Teaching	Humanities	141	3.69	0.108
		Scientific	129	3.70	0.115
Discipline	Research	Humanities	141	4.01	0.077
		Scientific	129	4.07	0.082
	Service	Humanities	141	3.58	0.092
		Scientific	129	3.96	0.099

Discussion and Conclusions

The value of measuring faculty engagement from a psychological framework describes engaged people as enthusiastic, efficient, and innovative. Engagement has also been positively correlated with job satisfaction, dedication, and commitment. In contrast, disengaged workers withhold effort or withdraw from the place of employment (Harter, 2008). The results of study revealed that associate professors of participants show that their engagement in the actual workload has more in "service" than assistant and full professors. Gender had no significant effect on the combined dependent variable of faculty members' engagement based on their actual workload. Also, results of study revealed that scientific participants show that their actual workload engagement have more in teaching, research and service than others in humanities.

In addition to that, results of study revealed that male participants show that their preferences engagement have more in teaching and service than females. Also, scientific participants show that their preference engagement have more in service than others in humanities. The results of study revealed that faculty member's preferences for their workload would like spent on research, while they spent more time on teaching as an actual workload which is going with Schuster & Finkelstein (2006) results.

Regarding to service, results of study revealed that faculty members rated "service" as low actual workload, but they try to preference it than teaching. This result contracted with the results of Antonio, Astin, & Cress (2000) that showed nearly 80% of faculty members report participating in service or volunteer work, and results of Cataldi, Bradburn, &Fahimi(2005) in the National Study of Postsecondary Faculty data 2004 indicated that full-time faculty report spending 20.1% of their time in service activities

The faculty member's workload often includes teaching, research, and service. The expectation for faculty to participate in all three areas results in competing demands for the faculty member's time; yet, the potential contribution of one work area to another has been noted in the results of this study, which is agreed with (Boyer, 1990; Colbeck, 2002; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006).

Despite the assumption that faculty members participate in all three roles of teaching, research, and service, the faculty member's actual workload varies across college types. Blackburn and Lawrence (1995) suggested that characteristics of individuals and their college combine and lead to variations in faculty motivation, behavior, and productivity. They identified four categories of variables that can predict levels of productivity: socio demographic, career, self-knowledge, and social knowledge. The combination of the individual's self-knowledge, attitudes and values, and personal ambition affect levels of engagement in different activities.

In addition to that, because faculty engagement is not a unitary overarching construct encompassing all three traditional work-related activities of teaching, research, and service, it may suggest that faculty developers assist faculty members to identify the areas in which they are psychologically engaged. According to Macey and Schneider (2008), behavioral engagement follows psychological engagement and presents itself in the form of doing something different, extra, or innovative.

The following recommendations made based on the findings, andobservations made by the researcher: Additional studies should undertake on larger and more diversepopulations to further validate the outcomes. The results of the Faculty members' engagement (teaching, research and service)can use tobetter develop faculty members and their students for their classroom environment and increasingeffective environment. Further studies across different semesters and in other colleges are required to gain an insight into the preferences and actual workload of faculty members engagement in Jordan.

Further qualitative and quantitative research can be conducted to find out: Why males feel their preferences engagement have more in teaching, research, and service than females. Also, why faculty members in scientific discipline reveals preferences engagement more than inn service than faculty members in humanities discipline. A follow-up quantitative study can be conducted at other universities. A longitudinal study can be conducted to find any trends or changes in the engagement over time in the university.

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Appendix: Faculty Engagement Survey

Your gender: Male   Female
College Discipline: Scientific   Humanities
Academic Rank: Full Professor   Associate   Assistant

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following items related to teaching. (1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3=somewhat, 4= agree, 5=strongly agree)

I- Teaching:											
	Preferences					Items	Actual workload				
No	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
1						Teaching is more of a duty than a joy for me right now. (reverse scored)					
2						I become easily absorbed in preparing for class.					
3						When I am teaching, I tend to forget about everything else.					
4						I am energized by teaching.					
5						Much of the time I dread going to class, (reverse scored)					
6						I believe my work as a teacher has an influence on society.					
7						I get easily discouraged when I encounter difficulties in my teaching, (reverse scored)					
8						Helping students learn can engross me for hours on end.					
9						I doubt that what I do in the classroom makes much difference in students' lives, (reverse scored)					
10						I view teaching as my calling.					
11						I feel confident in my skills as a teacher.					
II- Research:											
1						Research is more of a duty than a joy for me right now. (reverse scored)					
2						I become easily absorbed in my research.					
3						When I am doing research, I tend to forget about everything else.					
4						I am energized by doing research.					
5						Much of the time I dread working on my research, (reverse scored)					
6						I believe my work as a researcher has an influence on society.					
7						I get easily discouraged when I encounter difficulties in my research, (reverse scored)					
8						Writing can engross me for hours on end.					
9						I doubt that what I do as a researcher makes much difference in people's lives, (reverse scored)					
10						I view research as my calling.					
11						I feel confident in my skills as a researcher.					
III- Service											
1						Service to the university is more of a duty than a joy for me right now. (reverse scored)					
2						I become easily absorbed in my university service opportunities.					
3						When I am in a service role, I tend to forget about everything else.					
4						I am energized by providing service to the university.					
5						Much of the time I dread my service commitments, (reverse scored)					

6					I believe the service I provide has an influence on the university.				
7					I get easily discouraged when I encounter difficulties in my service activities, (reverse scored)				
8					The service I provide in my faculty role can engross me for hours on end.				
9					I doubt that the service I do makes much difference in people's lives, (reverse scored)				
10					I view service as my calling.				
11					I feel confident in my skills when I am providing service to the university.				

PRACTICE DEGREE OF THE DICTATORIAL LEADERSHIP STYLES BY HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS IN JORDANIAN UNIVERSITIES

Mahmoud Khaled Mohammad AL-Jaradat

Faculty of Educational Sciences, The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan

Abstract

This study aimed at identifying the practice degree of the dictatorial leadership styles by heads of departments in Jordanian universities. It also aimed to find out whether there are statistically significant differences among the responses mean of the faculty members about the practices of the dictatorial style by heads of the departments. A survey based on a sample of 682 faculty members reveals that the practice degree of the dictatorial style was high. However, the order of the practice level was *high* in terms of its *good aspects* and its *manipulative* or *elusive* aspects while the *Hard Boiled* aspect came last with a medium degree. Statistically significant differences were found in the responses means by qualifications, lengths of experience and university. Differences were also observed in the *Hard Boiled* level by years of experience favourable to those with more than 10 years. It is therefore concluded that as long as there are positives in respect of organizational processes, consistencies and emphases on the good aspects, dictatorial leadership is tolerable.

Keywords: Leadership styles, Higher Education, Dictatorial Leadership.

Introduction

Leadership is taken as an effective tool to raise the banner of progress, prosperity, excellence and competitiveness, under which the individuals and institutions shade at different fields and areas of work. Abdul Razak & Hamidon(2015) maintained that leadership is an assistant factor to the progress and development of nations. In addition, it leads the work in the institutions at difference types, including the education institutions, to achieve the objects. Starratt (2004) stressed that the organizational leadership is responsible for the development and maintenance of education environment, in a manner that serves the education objectives positively. Fullan (2003) explained that

the leader in education must have a perception in bringing about change in the organization where he/she works; and such change may be associated with the leadership style he/she follows.

The leadership styles of the academic leaders in the higher education institutions may vary between democracy and dictatorship, according to the work requirements and conditions. Cherry (2011) assures that the educational institutions differ in their leadership styles, among multiple leadership styles, such as dictatorial, cooperative, democratic and transformational, which are reflected on the leadership concept and its multiple definition trends. Richard. J . Davidson, R. J.; Daren C. Jackson, D. C.; and Ned H.(2000) explained that leadership is the practice of authority over the individuals, and that it is traits associated with the leader, such as enthusiasm, discovery, ability to train, future vision, love, confidence and effective roaming. He emphasized that these traits are reflected on the interests of the individuals, in particular, and the organization, in general. On the other hand, Robbins (2001) illustrated that leadership is the ability to influence others about the required objectives, which was supported by Kristina (2005) who emphasized that leadership refers to abilities and capabilities that the leader possesses in influencing the others toward accomplishing the tasks assigned to them.

Leadership has many dimensions and causes, which eventually motivate others and influence them to achieve the objectives. Leadership is not merely practicing authority over the individuals and controlling them, but also launching energies, capabilities and talents of the others. Still, others saw that leadership with its dictatorial or authoritarian style may also reflect on raising the level of performance, occupational commitment of the individuals and their job satisfaction. In this respect, Uraifij (2001) stated that the dictatorial leadership style derives its powers from the laws, regulations and instructions, based on the bureaucratic theory, which is sometimes vividly reflected on the work quality and direction toward achieving the objectives and the effectiveness of decision taking. Al-Hareeri (2008) maintained that the dictatorial style works well at the short run, especially in leading and managing the crises, although it is a style basically built on domination and intimidation.

The dictatorial leadership is the kind applied in the different institutions and organizations, which may have benefits reflected on the performance level, achieving the objectives, same as the other styles, such as the democratic or transformative. The successful leader owns many traits, among others; he/she tends to change his/her leadership style according to the requirements and conditions of the work (Based on the situational theory). This pattern is not of a single level of authoritarianism and extremism. Hamadat (2006) indicated that the dictatorial leadership is applied according to three sides represented by: the hard-line, benevolent, and Manipulativeleadership. Hasan (2004) also assured its existence and practices in the educational institutions under the term: authoritative, good and tactful leadership.

The concept of the dictatorial leadership is mostly viewed as a passive style in the institutional work. In this regard, Al-Mosawi (2004) defined it as "linked to the centrality of the powers, non-participation of others in the work tracks and decision taking." Al-Ajmi (2007) defined it as having influence on the motives of the workers; and Hraim (2004) associated it with the lack of trust between the leader and the subordinates, and application of coercion method in accomplishing the assignments of the workers. In spite of this passive perception of dictatorial style, yet it has positive aspects in leading the individuals in the different institution, including the educational institutions; that is because the dictatorial leader is most often characterized by activity and effectiveness Al-Mosawi, (2004). Al-Ghazw, (2010) added that this leadership style is useful during the emergency conditions of both the

institutions and individuals, and it is the most suitable method with the workers who deviate from the law, or evade observing and adherence to the decision and tasks allocated to them. Brennen (2002) maintained that the dictatorial style is preferred over the democratic one in cases of accomplishing the tough assignments, even if the reliance of the workers remains on their leader. This is in line with Remondini (2001), who indicated that this style might require the workers of the institution to follow certain ways to achieve the goals and obtain the desired results, which is deemed a right direction of the workers' efforts.

The researcher sees that the academic leaderships (such as the heads of departments) in the universities may practice several styles in leadership, including the dictatorial one. Even though, their practices may not be at the same level; their leaderships vary among the dictatorial, hardline, good or maneuver types. As such, the leadership practices of the dictatorial style are not of the same level, and may have their unique positives that are not found in the other styles. For example, if the hardline level is characterized by the use of punishment, firmness, centrality and monopoly in decision taking (Al-Amaireh, 2002), we find, on the other hand, that the good level is characterized by using the praise and light punishment to ensure the loyalty of workers in the implementation of the tasks entrusted to them, as well as accuracy in dealing with the workers (Al-Ayasreh and Bani Ahmad, 2007). Al-Ajmi (2007) added that the good leader gains the workers through persuasion and cooperation with them, which is better than threatening them to accomplish the works. Meanwhile, the properties of the maneuver level, in the dictatorial leadership are characterized by a degree of freedom, cooperation, and participation between the leadership and the workers, and clearly tends to the democratic style (Al-Zo'bi, 2013).

The heads of departments are representatives of academic leaders, whose leadership styles are reflected on the workers of the faculty members. Some faculty members may consider these leaders, in the universities, mostly tend to follow the dictatorial style; but, in fact, they might tend to certain level of this style as it achieves the work objectives in the organization. They further consider that the dictatorial leadership, as the other leadership styles, is a leading style having its effects on others and at the level of achieving the objectives of the institution as well. Nadeem, et al (2012) indicated that the both the dictatorial and democratic leadership styles have their positive effects on the workers and their job satisfaction. The results of some studies and research, which were conducted to identify the practiced leadership styles in the educational institutions, showed that the dictatorial and democratic leadership styles may be the dominant styles in the organizations; and that there are differences in the estimation of the sample about the practiced style according to the experience variable (Oravet, 1990). Literature concerning the leadership showed that the managers possess variant leadership efficacies that differ from one to another. These differences are clearly perceived by the workers in the organization, which are reflected on their performance level, no matter whether the practices of the managers were democratic or dictatorial (Sharma, 2011). Results of the study of Christine (2000) indicated that the leadership style that maintains a balance between interest to accomplish the work tasks and the human relations, is one of the best leadership styles, because it decreases the tension level with the workers.

Based on the fact that the dictatorial leadership has its levels among the radical, or the hardline, the good and the maneuver styles; and due to the rarity of the studies that dealt in this style alone, the focus of this study is to identify the dictatorial practices of the heads of departments in the Jordanian

universities according to the levels of the dictatorial leadership style levels(Hard Boiled, Benevolen, Manipulative).

Study Problem

The study problem revolves around identifying the leadership practices of the dictatorial leadership style, by the heads of departments of the Jordanian universities. The study problem was formed with the researcher through that fact that this type of leadership is mostly practiced by the academic leaderships, i.e. head of department, dean, vice dean. The faculty members and other administrative staff, affiliated to these heads of departments, may complain against practicing this type of leadership. Practically, this type may be the preferable by the leader in certain conditions and situation, but his/her leadership behavior may vary among the levels of this style, radical, good or maneuver. In addition, this style may have positives in the smooth running of the work tasks, as indicated by some studies, such as Al-Ajmi (2007), Al-Ghazw (2010), Al-Mosawi (2004), and Brennen (2002). These studies indicated that this style has its positives, such as raising the workers' motives, directing them toward work patterns associated to the success in accomplishing the difficult tasks. In addition, these positives are based on the rules and systems that represent protection of the workers.

The researcher stresses the problem of the study from the premise that both the dictatorial and the democratic styles represent two lines facing one another. The behavior of the educational leaders may differ according to the two styles in varying proportions; as the heads of the departments may follow the dictatorial pattern according to the radical level, but still having a small space for democracy. On the other hand, they may practice the maneuver level of dictatorship, which takes a wider space than the former in the democratic style, for the purpose of achieving both the objectives of the leader and organization. Meanwhile, the head of the department may be good in the dictatorial pattern, and still having a very wide space of the democratic style, as illustrated in the figure prepared by the researcher.
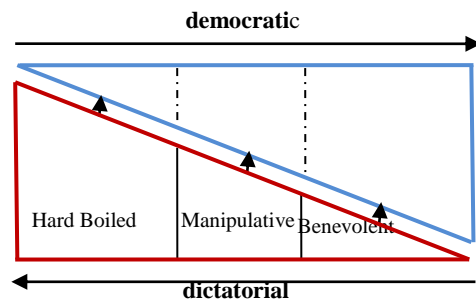
Study Importance

The study importance stems from the practice degree of the dictatorial leadership levels by the heads of the departments in the university higher education. The results of this study may benefit in altering the negative images that could be formed by the workers and faculty members in practicing the dictatorial style by the heads of departments. The results and suggestions of this study may enhance in conducting other studies according to the dictatorial leadership framework.

Study Objectives

This study aims at identifying the practice degree of the dictatorial leadership pattern by heads of departmenets in Jordanian universities, as per its various levels, i.e. hardline, cooperative good, maneuver or elusive. It also aimed to identify whether there are statistically significant differences among the mean of the responses of the study sample about the practices of the dictatorial style by the heads of departments, according to the (academic degree, years of experience and name of the university) variables.

Study Questions

This study attempts to answer the following two research questions:

1- What is the practice degree of the dictatorial style by heads of departments in Jordanian universities, as viewed by the faculty members?

2- Are there statistically significant differences at the ($\alpha=0.05$) level, among the mean of the responses of the faculty members on the practices of the dictatorial leadership style by the heads of departments in the Jordanian universities, as per the (academic degree, years of experience and name of the university) variables?

Study Method

This study follows the surveying method, based on data collection from the study sample members, and organizing and analyzing the date, in order to obtain the desired results, according to the study questions and objective.

Study Population and Sample

The study population consists of all the faculty members in the following Jordanian universities (Al-Yarmouk University, The Hashemite University, and University of Jordan) (n=2943 faculty members). A random sample was selected (n=682 i.e. 23% of the total study population), taking into account the distribution of the study variables, after returning the study instrument, correcting it and making sure of the accuracy of the responses to the questions included, by the study sample members. Table (1) illustrates this.

Table (1): Distribution of the Study Population and Sample by their Variables in the Jordanian Universities.

Variables		Study Population	Study Sample	Sample % of Population
		No.	No.	
Academic Degree	Assistant Professor and below	1700	391	13%
	Associate Professor	1243	291	10%

Variables		Study Population	Study Sample	Sample % of Population
		No.	No.	
	and above			
Years of Experience	10 years and less	1457	354	12%
	10 years and more	1486	328	11%
Name of the University	University of Jordan	1430	292	10%
	The Hashemite University	654	203	7%
	Al-Yarmouk University	851	187	6%
Total		**2643**	**682**	**23%**

Study Instrument

According to the methodology of the current study, an instrument (questionnaire) was constructed and organized, for identifying the practice degree of the dictatorial patterns by the heads of departments in the Jordanian universities. The researcher, in constructing the questionnaire, pursued the following:

- Reviewing the literature related to the subject of the study
- Determining the instrument domains (levels of the dictatorial style), and paraphrasing (25) items to measure the leadership practices, distributed over three levels of the dictatorial style levels, as follows: radical (hardline) dictatorial (8 items), Benevolent dictatorial (9 items), Manipulativeor elusive dictatorial (8 items).
- Organizing all the instrument items for responses by the faculty members according to Likert five-grade scale as follows (very high, high, medium, low, and very low), which are equivalent to the following values (5, 4, 3, 2, and 1, respectively). Evaluation of the degree for the open responses was taken by calculating the difference between the highest and lowest degrees; which was (4). By dividing it by (5), the length of the category was (0.80). accordingly, the means of the rating of the sample responses to the instrument items was as follows: (4-21-5) very high, (3.41-4.20) high, (2.61-3.40) medium, (1.81-2.60) low, and (1-1.80) very low.

Validity of the Instrument

The items of the instruments were presented to (12) experienced and specialized arbitrators of education and educational leadership. We requested them to determine the extent of relatedness of the item to the respective domain it measures. Their suggestions, remarks and amendments were taken into consideration about the items and the domains of the study instrument. As a result, the final number of the questionnaire items was (24) items, measuring the practices of the dictatorial style by the heads of departments in the Jordanian universities (after deleting one item of the hardline dictatorial style level).

To verify the validity of the instrument, the researcher applied it on an exploratory sample consisting of (25) individuals of the faculty members. The correlational coefficient between each item and the domain (level) it belongs to was calculated, which showed the following. The correlational coefficient of the level of the Hard Boileddictatorial style ranged between (0.59-0.72), the Benevolent dictatorial

style level between (0.66-0.83), and the Manipulative dictatorial style between (0.74-0.55), all of them are at the (α=0.05) level.

The researcher further calculated the internal consistency of the levels of the dictatorial style and its relatedness to the instrument, as a whole, according to Pearson Correlational Coefficient. In this concern, the internal consistency of the radical style level was (0.77), the good style level (0.83) and the Manipulativestyle level (0.74), indicative to the validity of the items and levels of the instrument, and its measuring of the trait it was made to measure.

Instrument Reliability

The researcher applied the instrument on a sample consisting of (5) faculty members, employing Cronbach's Alpha Correlational Coefficient, to determine the reliability degree of the study instrument. The results showed that the reliability coefficient of the radical style level was (0.81), the Benevolent style (0.85) and the Manipulative style (0.78), which indicate that the instrument with its domains (dictatorial style level) is valid for the study objectives.

Data Collection and Analysis:

The researcher followed the following procedures:

- Deciding the study sample (n=682, 23% of the total study population), already chosen through the random strata method.
- Designing the study instrument after reviewing the theoretical literature related to the study subject; and carrying out the validity and reliability of the instrument employing Pearson Correlational Coefficient and Cronbach's Alpha Correlational Coefficient.
- Analyzing the study data in compliance with the analysis program (SPSS), by obtaining the means (M's), standard deviations (SD's) and percentages (%s) for answering the first question of the study. Furthermore, applying T-Test and the One Way Analysis (ANOVA) method, according to the variables of the study (academic degree, years of experience and name of the university).

Results

Results of the first question: *What is the practice degree of the dictatorial style by heads of departments in Jordanian universities, as viewed by the faculty members?*

For answering this question, the means, standard deviations and percentages of each item of the items related to the dictatorial style level, as per the responses of the faculty members in the universities, were calculated. The values were arranged in a descending order according to their means and percentages. Results are summarized in Table No. (2), which indicate that the level of the Benevolent style had the highest mean (3.68) and (73.6%); followed by the Manipulative style with (3.61) mean and (72.2%); and the Hard Boiled style level came last in the third order, with (3.34) mean and (66.8%). The rating degree of all the levels of the dictatorial style levels was high, except for the radical style level, which came with a medium rating degree. The results further indicated that the

overall practice degree of the dictatorial style by the heads of departments, according to all the levels, was high, with (3.54) mean and (70.8%).

Table. (2)Means and Percentages of the Respondents' Responses on the Practice Degree of the Dictatorial Style by heads of departmenets in Jordanian universities, As Per Each Level, and all the Levels Collectively

Levels	Dictatorial Level	Mean by Degree Functi	No. of Items	Mean by Response Fun	%	Rating Degree
1	Benevolent	33.08	9	3.68	73.6%	High
2	Manipulative	28.88	8	3.61	72.2%	High
3	Hard Boiled	23.35	7	3.34	66.8%	Medium
	Total	**85.31**	**24**	**3.54**	**70.8%**	**High**

Results of every level of the dictatorial style level are explained as follows:

1- Hard Boiled Style Level

Results of Table (3) indicate that the highest practices of the heads of departments to the Hard Boiled dictatorial style level are associated to the fixed standards, set by the head of the department for the faculty members. This item had a (3.64) mean, with a high rating degree. The least practice was related to, "the head of department holds short meetings for the purpose of passing instructions and orders", with (3.10) mean and medium rating degree. Finally, the overall mean of the radical style level was (3.34), which represents the medium rating degree.

Table (3): M's, SD's and Percentages of the Study Sample Responses According to the Hard Boiled Style Level Items.

Rank	Texts of the Items	M	SD	%	degree apprecia-tion
1	The head of department sets fixed standards to evaluate the performance of the faculty members.	3.64	1.44	**72.8%**	High
2	The head of department applies the inspection method on every particular of the work.	3.39	1.43	**67.8%**	Medium
3	The confidence of the head of department in the faculty members is weak.	3.37	1.28	**67.4%**	Medium
4	The head of department captures all the powers in his department.	3.37	1.37	**67.4%**	Medium
5	The head of department takes all decision alone, without participation of others.	3.24	1.46	**64.8%**	Medium

Rank	Texts of the Items	M	SD	%	degree apprecia-tion
6	The purpose of head of the department is to achieve obedience and compliance of the faculty members.	3.21	1.38	**64.2%**	Medium
7	The head of department holds short meetings for the purpose of issuing instructions and orders.	3.10	1.26	**62.0%**	Medium
	Total	**3.98**	**1.31**	**66.8%**	**Medium**

2-Benevolent Style Level

Results of Table (4) indicate that the highest practice of the beneficial dictatorial style level is associated with the "the head of department presents the reports and suggestions about the problem concerning the decision before taking", with (3.96) mean and high rating degree. On the other hand, the least practice was related to "the head of department deals respectfully with the faculty members who perform their duties at work", with (3.44) mean and high rating degree. Finally, the overall mean of the style level was (3.67) with high rating degree.

Table (4): M's, SD's and Percentages of the Study Sample Responses to the Beneficial Style Level Items

Rank	Texts of the Items	M	SD	%	degree apprecia-tion
1	The head of department displays the reports and suggestions about the problem concerning the decision before taking it	**3.96**	**1.06**	**79.2%**	High
2	The head of department per-forms his/her duties very sincerely	**3.95**	**1.16**	**79.0%**	High
3	The head of department follows a divergent method in using the punishment and reward for the subordinates.	**3.79**	**1.12**	**75.8%**	High
4	The head of department has a unique way to persuade the faculty members accomplish the works assigned to them.	**3.73**	**1.67**	**74.6%**	High
5	The head of department makes his very best to find a climate that helps in decreasing the emergence of a behavior against	**3.60**	**1.11**	**72.0%**	High

Rank	Texts of the Items	M	SD	%	degree apprecia-tion
	him/her.				
6	The head of department is too confident in himself/herself at work.	**3.58**	**1.21**	**71.6%**	High
7	The head of department follows the dialogue manner in the different affairs of the concerned parties.	**3.52**	**1.27**	**70.4%**	High
8	The head of department attempts to provide the faculty members with after performing the required assignments.	**3.47**	**1.22**	**69.4%**	High
9	The head of department deals respectfully with the faculty members who perform their duties at work.	**3.44**	**1.33**	**68.8%**	High
	Total	**3.67**	**1.07**	**73.4%**	**High**

3-   The Manipulative or Elusive Style Level

Results in Table (5) indicate that the highest practice of Manipulative or elusive dictatorial style level, by the heads of departments, was "the head of department relies on time to conceal his/her decisions that harm others", with (3.94) mean and high rating degree. On the other hand, the lowest practice was related to the head of department's utilization of the lack of the faculty members of knowledge about systems, for the purpose of practicing power severally, with (3.37) mean and medium rating degree. Meanwhile, the overall mean of the Manipulative or elusive dictatorial style level was (3.61) with a high rating degree.

Table (5): M's, SD's and Percentages of the Study Sample Responses According to the Manipulative Style Level Items

Rank	Texts of the Items	M	SD	%	degree apprecia-tion
1	The head of department relies on time to conceal his/her decisions that harm others.	3.94	1.05	**78.8%**	High
2	The confidence of the head of department in the participation of the subordinates in performing the duties is weak.	3.70	1.40	**74.0%**	High
3	The head of department	3.65	1.63	**73.0%**	High

Rank	Texts of the Items	M	SD	%	degree appreciation
	hides behind a veil not perceived by the subordinates.				
4	The head of department does not inform faculty members about the actual decisions.	3.61	1.22	**72.2%**	High
5	The head of department deals with the faculty members, unequally.	3.58	1.26	**71.6%**	High
6	The head of department makes the subordinates feel that they partake in decision making, without their actual participation.	3.50	1.62	**70.0%**	High
7	The head of department adopts the individual communications manner with subordinates to accomplish the work.	3.49	1.47	**69.8%**	High
8	The head of department utilized the lack of the faculty members of knowledge about systems, for practicing powers severally.	3.37	1.77	**67.4%**	Medium
	Total	**3.61**	**1.07**	**72.2%**	**High**

Results of the second question: *Are there statistically significant differences at the (α=0.05) level, among the mean of the responses of the faculty members on the practices of the dictatorial leadership style by the heads of departments in the Jordanian universities, as per the (academic degree, years of experience and name of the university) variables?*

For answering this question, means and standard deviations were calculated, and T-Test was made for the responses of the faculty members, according to the study variables. The results of the question will be displayed as follows:

1- As per the academic degree variable:

The results of the M's, SD's and results of T-Test (in Table No. 6) show that there are no statistically significant differences at the (α=0.05) level, for all the dictatorial style levels, severally, and at the levels collectively.

Table (6) M's, SD's and T-Test Results of the Responses of the Faculty Members about the Practices of Dictatorial Style Levels by the Heads of Departments as per the Academic Degree.

Dictatorial Style Levels	Academic Rank	M	SD	Sig.
Hard Boiled	Assistant Professor and Less	23.2199	4.97715	0.412
	Associate Professor and More	23.5361	4.97385	
Benevolent	Assistant Professor and Less	33.0614	7.70457	0.928
	Associate Professor and More	33.1134	7.02735	
Manipulative	Assistant Professor and Less	28.7494	6.42899	0.521
	Associate Professor and More	29.0653	6.26258	
Total	Assistant Professor and Less	85.0307	13.13731	0.470
	Associate Professor and More	85.7148	10.87441	

2- As per the years of experience variable

Results of the values of the M's, and SD's and T-Test, displayed in Table No. (7), indicate that there are statistically significant differences at the (α=0.05) level, for all the dictatorial style levels, except of the hardline style level; and that the differences were in favor of those with more than 10 years of experience. Furthermore, there are no differences in the levels collectively.

Table (7): M's, SD's and T-Test Results of the Responses of the Faculty Members about the Practices of Dictatorial Style Levels by the Heads of Departments as per the Teaching Experience.

Dictatorial Style Levels	Experience Variable	M	SD	Sig.
Hard Boiled	Less than 10 Years	22.7062	5.04188	*0.000
	10 years and more	24.0459	4.81572	
Benevolent	Less than 10 Years	33.5452	7.60456	0.106
	10 years and more	32.6269	7.16083	
Manipulative	Less than 10 Years	28.6808	6.43004	0.359
	10 years and more	29.1284	6.27064	
Total	Less than 10 Years	84.9322	12.12288	0.354
	10 years and more	85.8012	12.30219	

*= (α=0.05)

3- As per the university name variable

Results of data in Table No. (8) show, as per the values of the M's, SD's and results of the One Way ANOVA, that there are no statistically significant differences at the (α=0.05) level, for all the levels of the dictatorial style levels, severally, and at the levels, collectively.

Table (8): M's, and Results One Way ANOVA of the Responses of the Faculty Members about the Practices of Dictatorial Style Levels by the Heads of Departments as per the University Name

Dictatorial Style Levels	Name of the University	M	SD	Sig.
Hard Boiled	University of Jordan	22.9075	4.99433	0.094
	Hashemite University	23.5025	4.47366	
	Al-Yarmouk University	23.8930	5.40503	
Benevolent	University of Jordan	23.3548	4.97455	0.408
	Hashemite University	33.4795	7.15726	
	Al-Yarmouk University	32.5764	7.15375	
Manipulative	University of Jordan	33.0160	8.07523	0.059
	Hashemite University	33.0836	7.41790	
	Al-Yarmouk University	29.1199	6.43840	
Total	University of Jordan	29.3941	5.61402	0.839
	Hashemite University	27.9626	6.89894	
	Al-Yarmouk University	28.8842	6.35580	

Discussion

This study aimed at identifying the practice degree of the dictatorial style by heads of departments in Jordanian universities, as per its three levels defined in this study. The first question focused on identifying these practices, as viewed by the faculty members in the following Jordanian universities (University of Jordan, Hashemite University and Al-Yarmouk University). The results shown in Table (2) indicated that the overall mean of the items of the practices of the dictatorial style, by the heads of departments, with its different levels, was (3.54) and (70.8%), representing a high rating degree. The order of the practices of the dictatorial style levels by the heads of departments was as follows. The Benevolent style level came first with (3.68) mean, followed by the Manipulative style with (3.61) mean, and the third and last was the radical or hardline style with (3.34) mean. That result may be linked to the managerial and leadership bases for department heads, inherently reflected on the level of implementation of the tasks assigned to faculty members. This result may further rely on the fact that the department head, as an educational leader, is governed by different conditions and situations, so that he/she variably uses this style. This is further based on that the institutional work has its many influences linked to the nature of the department head, as a group leader, and to the nature of the individuals, in terms of their personalities, aspirations, objectives, abilities and needs. In addition, the result of the good level as ranked first, may be attributed to that the human, in his/her nature, tends to the humanitarian dealing with other; and that the nature of workers who tend to appreciate work and desire to be committed to perform the tasks assigned to them, to the best satisfaction levels. In other words, the faculty members are positives according to the premises of **McGregor's (y) theory.** The tendency of the department head to the practices, linked to the level of the Manipulative style, may be

ascribed to the nature of the situation, condition or individuals, which the department head seas that this level is the most convenient for their personalities, according to the situational, theoretical provisions which was formulated by **Fred Fiedler.** On the other hand, the result of the Hard Boiled level may be interpreted by that pursuing the literality of the rules, regulations and instructions is a way for the faculty members' adherence and discipline at work. Moreover, setting fixed standards for evaluation and for the workers' performance level, which are observed by the department head, are among the factors that make the faculty members feel justice and strict attendance to work. This is also based on the premises of **McGregor's (x) and (y) theory.** As such, the researcher believes that the dictatorial style may have positives in the institutional work, especially the conditions threatening the institutional work, and dealing with others who do not want to accept responsibility, and with individuals with whom the humanitarian persuasion and response methods do not work.

This result may be in line with the study of Nadeem, et al (2012), which showed that the authoritarian and democratic leadership style has a positive effect on the employees and their satisfaction with the work. Other studies such as Al-Ajmi (2007), Al-Ghazw (2010), Al-Mosawi (2004), and Brennen (2002), showed that this style has positives. Out of these positives stated in these studies are: raising the motives of the workers, directing them toward work methods linked to the success in accomplishing the assignments, and that they are based on the rules and regulations that form a protection to the workers.

This study aimed at identifying the differences among the ratings of the faculty members about the practice degree of the dictatorial style levels, by the department heads, as measured according to the academic degree, years of experience and the name of the university.

Built on the values of he means and the results of T-Test (duly displayed in Tables 6, 7 and 8), the results indicated that there are no differences among the responses of the faculty members according to the academic degree and years of experience variables, in all the dictatorial style levels, severally, and all the levels collectively. Meanwhile, there were differences according to the years of teaching experience in the radical level of the dictatorial style, in favor of those whose experience in education is more than (10) years; and there are no differences in the other levels; but that there are differences in the other levels, and at the levels collectively.

The researcher explained the absence of the differences in the responses of the faculty members as follows:

- The dictatorial style is not an undesired style. Rather, it has positives in applications.
- There are certain situations that require the heads of departments practice such a type of leadership, particularly in the tough situations and conditions.
- For some faculty members, the use of other styles may not work in the institutional work, especially individuals who are passive at work.
- Practicing such style in management may sometimes give rights to the outstanding faculty members at work, raise their motives to work, and stimulate others as well.

The researcher explains the nonexistence of differences in the radical style level, as per the years of experience, by that the faculty members with longer experience have a clear vision in determining the tracks of the department heads in the leading and administrative styles.

These results may agree with the results of some previous results. For instance Nadeem et al (2012) who maintained that the authoritarian style has its positive effect on the workers and their job satisfaction. Oravet (1990) showed that the dictatorial leading style might be dominant in the organization; and there are differences in the estimations of the sample about the practitioner of the dictatorial style, as per the years of experience. The study of Sharma (2011), showed that the managers possess different leadership efficacies, which are well and clearly perceived by the workers in the firm, and are reflected on their performance level, whether such practices were democratic or dictatorial. The results of Christine's study (2000) indicated that the leadership style, which maintains equilibrium between care to accomplish work assignments and the humanitarian relations, is among the best leadership styles, because it decreases tension among the workers. Al-Ghazw (2010) stated that the dictatorial style helps and works during the emergency conditions for both the institution and the individuals. He further maintained that this leadership style is the most suitable with the workers who are law-deviants, or do not carry out the decisions and tasks assigned to them. Brennen (2000) emphasized that the dictatorial style is preferable over the democratic for accomplishing the assignments. Remondini (2001) indicated that this style may impose on the workers adopting certain ways to approach the objectives and desired results; and is deemed a proper orientation of the workers efforts. Finally, Al-Ajmi (2007) illustrated that the dictatorial style has an influence on the workers motives.

Recommendations

Based on the study results, it is vitally important to practice the dictatorial style in the institutional work, because it may be among the practices that are reflected on the quality of the work achievement, and realization of the institution objectives. However, the department heads, in practicing this type, must rely on fixed standards, and possess ability and efficiencies that lead them to success in adopting this style, such as time, and work conditions. Finally, the department heads must tend to the beneficial aspect of the dictatorial style.

Proposed Future Studies

As a result of the knowledge and experience accumulated with the researcher, within the course of this current study, he suggests that researchers, who seek investigation and research on this topic, identify the relationship between the dictatorial style practices and other factors. These factors may be, among others: achievement motivation of the workers, morale, trust of the workers, job satisfaction, job commitment, level of tension with the workers, crises leading and management, and effectiveness of decision taking.

Conclusion

This study focused on identifying the practice degree of the dictatorial style levels by the faculty members in the Jordanian universities. It also focused on defining the differences between the responses of the faculty members as per the academic degree, teaching experience and the name of the

university. The results showed that the practice degree of this style by the department heads was high. It further showed that there are no statistically significant differences between the responses of the faculty members, in general.

These results reveal and emphasize various principles. For instance, principles emerging from the situational theory, which states that, there is no single administrative method that could be applied in all conditions and situations. And, that the nature of the situation, the condition, or the nature of the environment are the factors that determine the most convenient style. Accordingly, department heads could adopt this style with its different levels, because it may be positive in many situations.

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