

DBS BUSINESS REVIEW

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DBS Business Review

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Editorial

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A key goal of DBS Business Review is to facilitate a robust and dynamic scholarly communication across business schools in Ireland and beyond, including non-cognate disciplines. The journal also aims to infuse these conversations with ideas and submissions from professionals, practitioners and industry experts. It is intended that the cross-fertilisation of this broader conversation will spark new insights and innovations as well as foster enthusiasm, humanity and creativity within the business community....(Morgan and O'Neill, 2017)

Since the publication of the first issue of DBS Business Review, the journal has achieved a number of milestones. The journal is now indexed on the Directory of Open Access Journals and on international EBSCO and ProQuest databases. International engagement with the journal continues to grow. Editorial and Advisory Boards now include members from Metropolitan University London, Manchester Business School, The American College of Greece and the University of Granada.

The second issue of the journal maintains a rich and varied scholarly communication with submissions on a wide range of topics from a variety of contributors including academics, academic managers and leaders, practitioners, librarians and students from institutions such as Trinity College Dublin, Ulster University, the Swiss Business School, Dublin Business School and the Institute of Technology, Blanchardstown (now part of the new Technological University). Topics span cutting edge subject areas with unique focuses geographically, technically and in terms of industry type such as dark tourism in Northern Ireland; data analytics and SMEs (as opposed to large corporations); consumer behaviour in the private higher education sector; social media as a teaching tool; social and psychological (as opposed to employment) outcomes in Springboard programmes and copycat restaurants (as opposed to copycat clothing). This issue also includes a scoping review which is more traditionally associated with the health sciences field but is highly beneficial in the business discipline.

Industry input into the journal remains high with an article on faking good in interviews by Dr Gerry Fahey, Principle of OD Solutions, formerly employed in senior management roles at the Irish Dairy Board and Bord Failte. The issue also includes an interview with Ann Chapman, Founder and Managing Director of Stonechat and winner of 'Jewellery Store of the Year' at the Retail Excellence Ireland awards 2018. Developments in relation to teaching and learning are an important focus of the Editorial Team. Consequently, the latest issue of the journal incorporates a new teaching and learning section comprising a case study of an initiative between Microsoft Ireland and DBS. There is also practitioner update from a graduate of Dublin Business School, Ben Doyle, on the new Central Credit Register. Ben is now employed in the banking sector.

The content of the journal has also expanded this year to capture sector wide discourse on a range of developments via a Developments in Higher Education Section which includes informative and thought provoking reflections on the new technological university by Dr Joseph Ryan, CEO of the Technological Universities Association, and by Dr Terry Maguire, Director of the National Forum for the Enhancement of Teaching and Learning, and Dr Tony Murphy, Head of Quality Enhancement in Teaching & Learning at Dublin Business School, on the Forum's Review of the Existing Higher Policy Landscape for Digital Teaching and Learning in Ireland. The area of apprenticeship programmes is explored by Siobhan Magner, Education and Training Boards Ireland, and Naomi Jackson, Dean of Academic Affairs CCT College and Education Consultant.

The journal continues to stimulate discussion via the inclusion of an opinion piece annually which in this issue is written by Dr Orna Farrell, National Institute for Digital Learning (NIDL) based in Dublin City University, on the underutilization of e-portfolios in the Irish Education sector. There is an insightful book review on Altmetrics as a complement to traditional citation impact measures by Jane Burns, Head of Library Services at Athlone Institute of Technology. Jane is also an Altmetrics Ambassador for Ireland. The issue also includes a book review by Enda Murphy, Lecturer in Business at DBS, on Saving Capitalism by Robert Reich. The open access nature of DBS Business Review is a critical factor toward the success of the publication and provides a transparency and accessibility to the academic discourse generated by the journal. The richness and contemporaneous nature of this dialogue is also indicative of a robust engagement with the journal by the higher education and business sectors in Ireland. The annual production of DBS Review is complemented by an event to mark its publication. Discourse stimulated by the journal is further contemplated in front of a live audience drawn from the higher education and business sectors.

Morgan and O' Neill (2017) describe DBS Business Review as being 'a new open access publishing platform within disciplines of business and law for the diverse range of research-active agents across the sector: students, faculty, librarians, academic management and practitioners.' Student research is often relegated to dedicated student publications but in DBS Business Review student content is both encouraged

and welcomed at an early stage in students' thesis work either as co-published content or independently authored work. This year's issue contains an independently authored work by DBS recent graduate Audrey Brewer, now Digital Marketing Manager for Camile Thai. There are also a number of co-authored pieces between faculty and a number of Masters/PhD students.

Digital technology is no longer viewed as a mere tool in the support of organizations, but rather as a disruptor that will create new organisations and replace many unwilling players (Scott, Loon am and Kumar, 2017) and the second issue of DBS Business Review is recognising this transformative change in both industry and academia with a number of articles pertaining to technology. The issue includes articles on data analytics, e-portfolios, social media, the National Forum's Higher Policy Landscape for Digital Teaching and Learning in Ireland and more. This has informed and shaped the topic of the Panel's discussion at the journal event which will be 'Education and Technology, Preparing the 21st Century Graduate for the Modern Workplace. '

At the very heart of DBS Business Review is a dynamic partnership between librarians and faculty. The Editor-in-Chief is an academic and the Managing Editor a librarian. The Editorial Board also comprises librarians and academics from across the sector. This year, DBS Library became one of just two members nationally of the international Library Publishing Coalition and are now listed in the Coalition's Library Publishing Directory. DBS Library has also launched a Library Publishing Press in which DBS Business Review now sits. The benefits of librarian/academic collaboration are numerous. Buggle (2017) states:

The publishing role of academic libraries has been a natural development. Libraries have provided a comprehensive range of research supports to faculty including provision of guidance on getting published, bibliometrics, copyright and author rights, funding sources and applications, archiving on institutional repositories and preservation. Librarians have the technical know-how to manage a variety of platforms, to apply metadata to ensure maximum visibility, and they already have established relationships with the electronic database vendors who can aggregate new content via their discovery tools.

The international open science movement which includes open access publishing is also a key priority for the Irish Government. Open skills training has been recognized as being critical for researchers, academics and librarians. Europa in a recently published Open Science Skills Working Group Report states that:

Open Science is transformative to the research landscape, allowing research to be carried out with a high degree of transparency, collegiality, and research integrity. For Open Science to become a reality researchers need appropriate discipline-dependent skills training and professional development at all stages of their research careers.

Participation in an open skills publishing project such as DBS Business Review furthers this type of professional development activity.

Ayris and Ignat (2018) envisage librarians as playing a pivotal role in the open science movement, stating that 'Open Science represents new ways for society to engage with

science. It is revolutionary in its ambition and libraries have a core role to play in supporting its success.'

The open access nature of DBS Business Review has increased relevance in light of the recently announced Plan S, a European wide initiative which stipulates that the research outputs of all publicly funded research must be available on open access by 2020. Science Europe describes Plan S as:

After 1 January 2020 scientific publications on the results from research funded by public grants provided by national and European research councils and funding bodies, must be published in compliant Open Access Journals or on compliant Open Access Platforms.

There are twenty Irish open access journals indexed on the DOAJ, including DBS Business Review. These journals represent a powerful portal for publically funded European research. Support from relevant agencies and stakeholders within the sector to position these journals as such is critical in the context of Plan S. DBS Business Review welcomes submissions from a range of stakeholders including the research outputs of funded projects.

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Business Intelligence as a Source of Competitive Advantage in SMEs: A Systematic Review

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Abstract

Competitive advantage is the ‘Holy Grail’ in strategic management theory. What makes a company more successful than its rivals has dominated scholarship in this area for more than 20 years. There have been two main theories proposed to attempt to identify the important resources and capabilities that configure to build competitive advantage; the Resource-based View and Dynamic Capability View. There is a growing literature stream in the area of Business Intelligence (BI) and Big Data Analytics with regard to both the computer technology and business management constructs. However, the literature is silent of the affordances of BI for Small to Medium Enterprises (SMEs), and so a significant gap in the literature remains. This discussion aims to signal the need to fill that gap and to build awareness of BI as a potentially significant contributor to sustained competitive advantage in SMEs underpinned by the iniquitousness of cloud applications previously the domain of Multinational Corporations. Keywords: Business Intelligence; Competitive Advantage; SME; Capabilities; Key Performance.

1.0 Introduction

Due to increasing globalisation and rapid changes in technology, SMEs face more significant challenges operating in turbulent markets than their larger competitors. Scholarship in strategic management theory has identified knowledge building capabilities as a critical source of competitive advantage in SMEs (Teece, 2000; Teece and Linden, 2017). The primary objective of this paper is to explore the literature around the main components of BI, examine the extent of its use in SMEs, and determine if it can lead to competitive advantage.

BI has morphed into a generic term to describe the technologies that support the processes for storing, collecting and analysing data (Wixom and Watson, 2012). Thus, BI is now developing into a separate stream within the strategic management literature related in SMEs to competitive advantage. Competitive advantage may be defined as that thing or things about our business which makes certain customers buy from us, rather than our competitors. The popularity of big data business analytics is increasing exponentially, and the challenge remains as to how SMEs can leverage it and create value in their businesses (Vidgen, Shaw and Grant, 2017). While the increasing importance of BI is recognised in the literature, the empirical research of its significance from an organisational perspective remains under-researched. Accordingly, this paper presents a systematic review of the extant literature in BI and its utility in supporting competitive advantage in SMEs. This emerging practice is known as Business Intelligence (BI) but also referred to as Big Data or Business Analytics (Bayrak, 2015). Thus, the purpose of BI is to support better decision making in SMEs.

This paper will start with a quick overview in Section 2.0 of the systematic methodology used to define the boundaries of BI and SMEs and to discover if there is a new literature stream emerging at the nexus of SMEs, BI and competitive advantage.

Next, in Section 3.0, the review will define what BI means regarding the SME. The challenges facing the SME is also discussed to the future importance of BI to competitive advantage in the market. In the section 3.5, the discussion is brought together from the SME perspective with an overview of the interplay between big data and the concept of BI. The varying technologies are discussed and an attempt at a definition of BI is proposed to guide the remaining discussion.

Section 4.0 builds on the definition of BI, but looking at the architecture of technologies that have relevance to the SME. Applications available through cloud servers are specifically targeted, alluding to the hitherto accessibility of powerful data applications which were previously reserved for the large-scale organisations. The section continues with a discussion of BI situating it firmly in the SME context and building towards the argument that BI can underpin competitive advantage. The final Sub-section (4.3) highlights the challenges that SMEs face and suggests that having access to Everything-as-service is not necessarily the sole contributor to competitive advantage.

Section 5.0 suggests a new research stream at the nexus of SMT and BI in SMEs. Both disparate streams of the literature are brought together to lay the foundations for a conclusion on whether using BI in SMEs can, and will, lead to competitive advantage over its rivals.

2.0 Review Methodology

The systematic literature review followed an established protocol recommended by Kitchenham (2004). The stages of the protocol were in three distinct parts. First, a compilation of search terms. Second, a defined list of criteria for inclusion or exclusion

of journals and publications. Third, a critical analysis, data extraction and synthesis of resulting publications. Normal, Boolean, Proximity and Truncation techniques were used as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Keywords and descriptors for searching

Normal	Boolean	Proximity	Truncation
"Business intelligence."	Business AND Intelligence	Business ADJ Intelligence	Business Intell*
"BI" "SME"	BI AND SME	BI ADJ SME	BI*
"Business intelligence and competitive advantage"	"Business intelligence" AND "competitive advantage"	"Business intelligence" ADJ "competitive advantage"	Business intelligence competitive*
"Business Analytics"	Business AND Analytics	Business ADJ Analytics	Business Analytics*
"BA" "SME"	"BA AND SME"	BA ADJ SME	BA SME*
"Business Analytics and competitive advantage."	"Business Analytics" AND "competitive advantage."	"Business Analytics" ADJ "competitive advantage."	Business Analytics competitive*
"XaaS and SME"	"XaaS" AND "SME"	"XaaS" ADJ "SME"	XaaS SME*
"XaaS and SME and competitive advantage"	"XaaS" AND "SME" AND "competitive advantage"	"XaaS" ADJ "competitive advantage"	"XaaS Competitive"

The list of electronic databases used were: Emerald, Science Direct, IEEE Explore, Springer, Taylor and Francis, Google Scholar and ABI/Inform. The first stage of the search started with papers dated between 2000 and 2010 (n = 78). Relevant papers were scanned through title, abstract and keyword sections of the paper. If papers appeared relevant, the conclusion section was quickly scanned, and discarded if not

useful. In the second stage, papers between 2011 and 2017 were accumulated and aggregated according to usefulness ($n = 63$). Since the construct of BI only stated to gain momentum in 2010 (Mikalef, *et al.*), a more rigorous selection process was applied to these papers. The criteria applied were: peer-reviewed journals; scientific rigour, the credibility of claims; and, relevance to topic. A final total of 60 papers were retained.

3.0 Literature Review

3.1 Big data overview

Big data has become a tool of increasing importance in recent years mediated by the astonishing growth and diversity of the nature of data. This range and diversity have also influenced how data is processed and utilised. The diversity of data has resulted into a deluge of specialisms, ranging from retail consumer analytics to scientific and military applications. According to Tan *et al.* (2013), the real-time transactional databases of Walmart was 2.5 petabytes in 2011 of customer behaviours and preferences, market trends and activity on different devices. By 2016, the data deluge had risen to 40 petabytes. Other important areas of data collection are military applications, for example the US Airforce possesses over 30 years of video footage from Afghanistan and Iraq while CERN produces 13 petabytes of data in 2010 alone (Tan *et al.*, 2013). Big data equates to big news for larger companies allowing them to understand why customer buy what they do, and to build string loyalties in the traditional fickle retail markets.

Big data is rapidly becoming an area of interest in business strategy as well as in social sciences and management generally. According to Mikalef *et al.* (2018), this new focus on data has been inspired by the wide-scale adoption of social media, reward cards and artefacts that relate to the Internet of Things. There are different epistemological views on 'big' from different ontological perspectives. Hence the usefulness of data from the point of a sensor manufacturer is very different from that of a marketing manager in a cosmetics firm.

There is some debate in the literature to an exact definition of big data, with some researchers focussing on the origins of data, such as whether the data originates in social media, mobile phones (Johnson, 2012), GPS (McAfee, Brynjolfsson and Davenport, 2012), news streams, financial (Sun, Chen and Yu, 2015), and sensors for engineering applications (Babar and Arif, 2017). Big data can be compared to its predecessor, data analytics, where the ultimate goal is to make some sense of the data and use it to gain competitive advantage (McAfee *et al.*, 2012).

The scholarship in this area is starting to move away from the specific affordances of data for different applications, but instead to taxonomy that involves categorisation into domains regarding five 'Vs': value, velocity, veracity, variety, and volume (Akter *et al.*, 2016). This taxonomy describes the economic viability of the data and if the investment costs in harvesting the data bring real value to the SME. In other words, does it make sense for the SME to develop the necessary dynamic capabilities from limited

resources? The “Veracity” of the data, which categorises data used is from a trusted source; it is authentic and protected, should also be an additional “V” (Demchenko *et al.*, 2013). Seddon and Currie (2017) take it one step further by adding visualisation of the data, where patterns and trends can be interpreted with some degree of ease in their study of online financial trading.

Nevertheless, the evolving definitions are an indication of the rate at which data is increasing and morphing into different forms for harvesting (Mikalef *et al.*, 2018). Thus, the increasing variability and accessibility of data available are generating dynamic opportunity for SMEs to punch above their weight using evaluation tools previously the exclusive domain of the larger corporations in the past. However, SMEs have proved themselves to be slower adopters to the utilisation of big data, and are in danger of being left floundering in the jet stream of their larger rivals. This is a major concern, as larger organisations build capabilities in big data that allow them to detect market trends in advance of SMEs thereby increasing further their dominance. Since SMEs are a vital part of the global economy governments as well as consumers, have cause for concern.

3.2 Data in the SME context

The volume rate of generation of data worldwide per day is said to be doubling every 40 months. In 2016, the volume of data created worldwide each day was 2.5x10⁶ terabytes (Coleman *et al.*, 2016). As discussed in the previous section, the variety, velocity and volume of data is overwhelming and complex. The complexity of data is largely due to the generation of data in different formats: textual, image, sensor, structured, and unstructured data. Traditionally, organisations obtained data through simple databases of customer records, through recording and monitoring. SMEs level of adoption in collecting data from customers varies considerably, as it does in larger organisations. KPMG noted the diversity in their 2015 report adoption of data analytics across different industries and noted that the insurance companies were leaders in the deployment of advanced data analytics (Coleman *et al.*, 2016). The insurance industry was closely followed by banks and supermarkets, and in more recent times, government revenue bodies and healthcare companies. Another concern for the SME is the rapid pace of high levels of refinement in data analytics tailored specifically to meet the needs of specific market. The increasing gulf will lead to sustainable competitive advantage over the long term and force SMEs into more and more specialised niche markets to survive. This trend is highlighted by the report in 2012 found that only 0.2% of SMEs in the UK were actively adopting data analytics compared with 25% in larger organisations (e-skills UK, 2013).

A report published by TechNavio, forecast that the compound annual growth rate of SME big data will grow over the period 2014-2018. Therefore because of this rapid growth in the size of big data, those SMEs that still employ traditional methods will find it difficult to manage and analyse it. There is little by way of empirical research into the issues and problems facing SMEs in the adoption of big data analytics. The

following section takes a look at the problems and challenges in business analytics for SMEs derived from the literature review.

3.3 Challenges in big data analytics for SMEs

The literature suggests various factors that may explain the lack of adoption by SMEs, some pervasive and some not. The lack of understanding about big data analytics is frequently cited as one of the most serious impediments (e-skills UK, 2013). This can be explained by the tendency of SMEs to operate in niche markets leading to a reduced awareness of business trends outside of their domain specialisms (Coleman *et al.*, 2016). It has also often been commented, that SMEs do not have much interest in markets outside their specialisms and therefore often do not see overarching industry trends that could be profound implications for their niche markets in the future. Another barrier has been identified as an intrinsic conservatism where SMEs are reluctant to change their methods of operation and often have little interest, or indeed confidence, in management trends. A McKinsey report in 2011 highlights the skills shortage in data analytics skills in the market for both large and small organisations a 1.5 million shortfall in the USA alone (Manyika *et al.*, 2011). A similar study by e-skills in the UK highlights that 57% of recruitment companies experienced difficulties in hiring staff with data analytical skills (e-skills UK, 2013). With the projected growth of 243% over the period of 2013 (the year of the e-skills report) and 2018 expected, SMEs will simply be priced out of the market for qualified people. Ahlemeyer and Stubbe *et al.* (2014) are critical of the empirical literature because of the lack of academic case studies successful propagation of innovation in business mediated through big data analytical practices. Thus, stimulating and trend-setting big data SME success stories are not available to enthuse and inspire nascent SMEs.

The lack of transparency in the software market is also an issue for SMEs. Confronted with a dearth of SaaS business applications, for SMEs with little or no experience, it is difficult to select a product that is the most suitable. The front end interface is often too simplistic, or impossibly complex for the non-programmer. Except Watson Analytics from IBM, where pricing plans range from \$20 to \$40 per month, there are very few usable off the shelf solutions for the SME and does not involve a steep learning curve. With the advent of GDPR, data security is now an added hindrance for the SME. Although more of an issue for large organisations, SMEs nevertheless rely on older servers to run their businesses. A potential security issue for the SME is the outdated database management systems, for example in 2013 Microsoft ended all support for its 2003 Windows Server. Therefore, legitimate concerns by SMEs are their vulnerability to cyber-attacks and the theft of customer credit card details.

There is a strong correlation between a company who capture and used data effectively and competitive advantage, according to a study published in the MIT Sloan Management Review (Kiron, Prentice and Ferguson, 2012). The main findings were

that 67% of sample companies were convinced that the deployment of data analytical practices leads to at least 'moderate' competitive advantage. More than 50% stated that data analytics influenced a higher level of innovation, while at the same time, shifting the power balance within the organisation. While the larger organisation may have the resources to embrace data analytics into an overall business intelligence system and strategy, where does that leave the SME? What resources are available for the SME to start on that first rung of the ladder, and how can they access the necessary resources? The discussion, therefore, continues with a look at BI systems and how SMEs can utilise them.

3.4 What is Business Intelligence (BI)?

BI has evolved into a general term (first elucidated by the Garner Group in the mid-1990s) that encompasses methodologies, databases, machine architectures, analytical algorithms and methodologies (Sharda *et al.*, 2014). Thus, the primary objective of BI is to facilitate organisations to analyse data in real time to support pragmatic strategic decision making. Accordingly, with interactive access to data in real time, strategists arrive at an informed strategic decision based on the information they have – both current and historical (Turban *et al.*, 2008). This data can be for a wide variety of decisions, for example, marketing, sales promotions, future building requirements, and so on. BI is a process using a wide range of tools and applications that transform data into usable information that can then be converted into actions to facilitate actionable informed decisions by key managers. This emerging practice is also known as Big Data or Business Analytics (Bayrak, 2015). No precise definition exists for BI in SMEs, but for the literature review, will be defined as a wide choice of routines, technologies and algorithms that store, mine, and analyse data which can be used to assist pragmatic business decision making in SMEs.

As is typical in academic scholarship, the definition of construct become confused as the field develops and expands. Bayrak (2015) points out that BI is preferred by the Information and Communications Technology (ICT) computing community, while the term Business Analytics (BA) is the choice of the business community. Since this review is from the ICT perspective, BI will be used throughout. BI defines technologies and software platforms that support activities such as metadata management, reporting functions, search tools, Online Analytical Processing (OLAP), data mining modelling and predicting/forecasting data, performance management, Customer Relationship Management (CRM), Management Information Systems (MIS), and, Extraction, Transformation and Loading (ETL) of data. Thus, the techniques available to the SME cover three broad areas: analytics, BI and decision support systems (DSS). They must all interplay together to form one coherent capability in the organisation to harvest and then make use of the data that leads to customer value at the very least. While a detailed discussion of each of these resources is outside the scope of this paper, the following section brings together the idea of big data and business intelligence through the agency of data analytics.

3.5 The interplay between big data, data analytics, and business intelligence

In another joint research project between MIT Sloan Management Review and IBM's Institute for Business Value of 4,500 executives, it was found that 58% responded that their competitive advantage increased over the previous year by developing capabilities in big data analytics (Kiron and Shockley, 2011), as described above, the findings are consistent with a later study by Kiron, Prentice and Ferguson (2012). The authors do not give a profile of the respondent companies, so it cannot be assumed that the companies in question were SMEs, or that their findings can be applied to SMEs. However, the authors did find that firms are more likely to benefit from data analytics if they have developed dynamic capabilities in having the right tools, technology and people.

There is no doubt that big data will become an increasingly important part of the business intelligence (BI) strategies of most successful companies in the future. Consider that, by 2020, it is predicted that somewhere in the region of 1.7 megabytes of new data will be created by each human every second, data trails will become the digital equivalent of a user's DNA strand (Marr, 2016). As discussed above, accessing data is one thing, but extracting meaningful information is quite another.

Big data is becoming more accessible to SMEs with lower budgets and limited IT capabilities. SaaS (software-as-a-service) makes storage and analysis technology is now available to rent at an affordable cost. Tools such as Hadoop provide storage and management of big data across networked databases and servers (Marr, 2016). Combine this with amazing technological advancement in ways that data can be analysed through images for facial recognition, text for meaning and sentiment, and predictive analytics. When adding machine learning and artificial intelligence, the requirement to have some engagement in BI will become a prerequisite even for a threshold capability to compete in the market, let alone competitive advantage.

Next, the paper discussed how the organisation might operationalise access of big data through the development of core-competencies expressed through the configuration of dynamic capabilities.

3.6 Developing big data dynamic capabilities

However, this conclusion might seem obvious but building the right kind of dynamic capabilities gets to the heart of the issue. The key is in the "dynamic" insofar that the exogenous high-velocity market conditions are correctly matched by the resources of the firm. This essentially means, that in a market where data is freely available, companies make the best possible use of the data and develop their dynamic capabilities to build a path to value for the firm. Put simply, SMEs must continually redeploy and refresh not only their dynamic capabilities in concert with their analytical insights but also the organisational resources necessary to turn this new knowledge into effective and profitable actions. With the rapidity of change in technology and the

inevitable proliferation of more and more data, the SME who does not embrace this new market “force” is in danger of being out-competed by its rivals. There is a case for revisiting the staid 5-Forces Model proposed by Porter (1985), and propose a new, 6 Forces Model to include technology and big data.

The construct of dynamic capabilities is relatively new, and there is still no coherent definition. Since its evolution from the Resource-based View (RBV), two main streams have evolved. The first is dynamic capabilities that are essentially well-developed routines (Eisenhardt, Furr and Bingham, 2010; Eisenhardt and Martin, 2000). As such, they can be copied and are therefore not a source of competitive advantage. The alternate view that dynamic capabilities are not simply routines, or routines build on routines, but capabilities that are developed from the ground up in response to the challenges of the market (Pierce, Boerner and Teece, 2002; Teece, 2018; Teece and Pisano, 1994). Hence, in Teece’s version, dynamic capabilities cannot be bought, they must be firm specifically developed.

The literature streams have at least developed to take account of the various forms of capabilities that exist in firms. However, it should be noted that the literature is very weak in its treatment of SMEs and thus represents a significant gap in the research. The body of scholarship does now recognise that capabilities operate quite differently from one another, both within the firm and between firms. Hence, capabilities can result in vast differences in firm performance and competitive advantage (Hoopes and Postrel, 1999). In addition, the firm must be agile enough, financially stable and adaptive to deliver value to the market, while at the same time, reap the financial benefits. The resources available to the SME can often be limited, so an effective, efficient and swift method of gathering valuable market knowledge will be of significant advantage over rivals.

3.7 Building dynamic capabilities through big data analytics

As described above, Akter *et al.* (2016) showed that through the leveraging of big data analytics, noticeable gains in performance could be achieved. However, little attention was given in the study to defining the specific resources required to develop the capabilities to leverage such gains. Indeed, the literature is silent on how micro-foundations build in SMEs and they are orchestrated in such a way as to develop strong big data analytical capabilities. Thus, there is a significant gap in the literature where empirical research into mechanisms whereby SMEs can leverage “Everything as a Service” (XaaS) bespoke packages in a cost-effective way as a factor in developing a competitive advantage.

Gupta and George (2016), building on the resource-based theory, propose that the answer is looking at the resources in the firm. Resource-based theory (RBT) was developed by Barney (2007) and later developed by others (For example, Helfat and Peteraf, 2003; Kraaijenbrink, Spender, and Groen, 2010; Mahoney and Pandian,

1992; Priem and Butler, 2001; Roy and Khokhle, 2011; Wernerfelt, 1984; Winter, 2000). RBT is based on the premise that competitive advantage is gained by developing unique resources within the firm that are heterogeneous with respect to their competitors (Grant, 2005) and that are unique and difficult to imitate (Barney, 1991). Therefore, the RBT view takes a different perspective to that of the more standard approach of Porter (1985) that views competitive advantage in terms of external market forces. Instead, RBT looks inward towards the tangible and intangible resources of the firm and human skills and knowledge.

The taxonomical characteristics of big data lie, *inter alia*, in their volume, variety and velocity (Mikalef *et al.*, 2018). However, what is frequently overlooked, is the quality and fitness for the purpose of the data. While data is rapidly becoming a critical resource within the firm, a McKinsey report in 2011 identified data as an equally crucial factor in the firm as the traditional tangible assets such as capital, labour and commercial assets (Manyika *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, ownership of valuable data can be considered to be a critical tangible asset along with firm infrastructure, property, cash and IT systems.

The acquisition of data and its effective use is governed by the intangible assets of the firm. This involves in keeping up with knowledge and skills, which is not always possible for an SME. Tallon *et al.* (2013) recognise the importance of managing growing volumes of data in the organisation and propose a framework detailing the structures and processes that need to be in place to manage data. While, there are echoes of dynamic capabilities, but from a different perspective, yet again, there is a failure to recognise the fundamental challenges that face the SME. In order for data to be used effectively by the SME (where resources are in short supply), the data must be packaged and operationalised with as little effort and cost as possible. Elaborate frameworks with presupposed resources in place, simply do not wash with the reality of operating as an SME. LaValle *et al.* (2011) correctly recognise that a data-driven culture is an important factor in the continued success of the firm. This brings the focus back on the dynamic capabilities in the firm, where the culture for using big data will be embraced by top management right down to the individual worker (Gupta and George, 2016).

The third pillar of RBT is the human skills, knowledge and competencies. It is tempting to draw upon elaborate organisational structures whereby the division of responsibilities for the harvesting and deployment of big data delineates through database managers, programmers, cloud services managers, and so on. In reality, that multi-functional approach is not available to SMEs. Lamba and Dubey (2015) point to the importance of a “fact-based” learning culture and the inevitable top management support, which is relevant to any organisation regardless of size.

Despite the hype surrounding big data and the much heralded enormous potential, empirical research into the dynamic capabilities that need to be developed in SMEs remains under researched. Indeed, the authors are not aware of any active research in this area. The solution may potentially lie in SMEs forming strategic alliances with other SMEs who specialise in data harvesting. In doing so, the potential for bounded rationality is reduced, relational competencies are increased, and SMEs can grow and develop inter-relational skills. How this might be achieved will be discussed in the following section in the light of what resources are already available in the market.

4.0 Areas of big data analytics

The discussion now continues with the major component of the architecture of BI, namely: (i) the data warehouse, (ii) business analytics, and (iii) business performance management (Sharda *et al.*, 2014). In 2006, the umbrella term “Business Intelligence” emerged as more and more commercial products started to appear on the market, with the Garner Group popularising the construct in the mid-1990s (Sharda *et al.*, 2014). Typical BI systems are composed of four inter-relational components: (i) user interface; (ii) business analytic tools; (iii) data warehousing; and, (iv) business performance algorithms. The relational functionality of the four components elucidated in the way in which low granular data is stored, transformed and realigned to provide high-quality information allowing the manager to execute actionable pragmatic decisions.

A Data Warehouse (DW) can be described as a repository of data both current and historical that has, as its primary function, to facilitate actionable decision-making by managers (Turban *et al.*, 2008). So that the data is of maximal utility, it needs to be available in a structured format (Sharda *et al.*, 2014). Data that is not organised and resident in a database is generically labelled as being unstructured. Such unstructured data describes textual (e-mails, Word files, PowerPoints etc), and non-textual (media files such as JPEGs, MP4, MPEGs etc). The data is there for a reason, and that reason is to support the managerial decision-making processes. Accordingly, the data is then suitable for online analytical processing (OLAP), data mining, reporting and other decision-making applications. The DW can be available as a cloud application or resident on the servers in the organisation. DW is, of course, desirable but not always feasible in an SME environment (in particular for the smaller of the SMEs). For senior managers (or business owners) to make informed and accurate decisions, accurate and timely information is needed through a business reporting system. Reports (whether digital or paper) form the basis of communication of raw information required for decision-makers. There is a wide variety of BI related business reporting, for example (Sharda *et al.*, 2014):

- **Matrix Management Reports** - Lean Six Sigma (Keller, 2011; Kumar *et al.*, 2008); Total Quality Management (TQM) (Ghobadian and Galleary, 1996);

Strategy Mapping and Key Performance Indicators (KPI) (Kaplan and Norton, 2001, 2004).

- **Dashboard-Type Reports** - A range of performance indicators are presented on one screen or a single page. They are usually bespoke and predefined (for example SAP Business Objects Dashboards).
- **Balanced Scorecard Reports** - Developed by Kaplan and Norton (ibid) as a process to give an integrated overview on financial, business, knowledge management and growth metrics in a single report (Kaplan and Norton, 2001, 2004).

Thus, a business reporting system can be considered in a generic sense as a continuum where the data source is at one end and the manager at the other (Turban *et al.*, 2008). Accordingly, the data is structured, sorted and arranged into reports that have been specifically designed for the organisation (usually larger firms), or as a standard cloud-based application (for SMEs). The main components consist of a data supply, where events and transactions are recorded, filtered and sent in batches or in real time to a data storage repository. The data may originate online through web servers, the point of sale systems (POS), enterprise resource planning (ERP), or barcode readers, to name but a few. This process, known as Online Transaction Processing (OLTP) facilitates the delivery of the structured data to the repository or DW. The storage area is then in the form of a relational database where OLAP (for example, Cube functions) are used to stratify and extract the data (BI analytics) for BI intelligence reporting. The way data is recorded, structured, and analysed must suit the need of the business, and thus business logic is an important consideration. The critical step of capturing the data and delivering it in the form of an actionable report is through a well-defined process known as Extract, Transform, and Load (ETL). This critical process is the quality assurance stage where the data is correctly structured around the reports required (Sharda *et al.*, 2014).

4.1 Accessibility of BI Applications

The evolution of BI has not only revolutionised access to powerful applications for the SMEs but has created acronym heaven. Cloud applications and the ubiquity of enterprises offering data management solution have resulted in the SMEs having access to powerful applications and computing hardware previously only available to large organisations. Services range from Software-as-service (SaaS), where payroll, tax or HR service are outsourced, to Everything-as-service (XaaS); almost everything from computing to database management is outsourced to the cloud. While it is outside of the scope of this literature review to delve too deeply into every gradation of outsourcing, Table 2 delineates the various options available. It can be seen that the ubiquity of affordable internet services is now placing the SMEs at an advantage previously only in the domain of the large organisation of multinationals.

Table 1: Outsourcing “as service” functions (Author’s own elaboration)

Acronym	Meaning	Advantage to the SME
XaaS	Everything as a Service	All technology delivered through the internet – the ultimate IT outsourcing.
IaaS	Infrastructure as a Service	All hardware, software, networking, security, storage available through a service provider at a lower cost compared to owning all the system to the SME while remaining in control of their data.
SaaS	Software as a Service	The software is available to the SME from a vendor over the internet (typically) allowing access to applications previously only accessible to large companies.
BPaaS	Business Process as a Service	Typical outsourced functions such as HR, payroll, marketing, PR, SEO for example extremely cost-effective for micro-SMEs.
UCaaS	Unified Communications as a Service	SME can integrate services such as: VOIP; audio conferencing; integrated e-mail/SMS/fax; mobile communications convergence (phone, interactive whiteboards), through a third-party provider without having to invest heavily in such infrastructure.
DaaS	Desktop as a Service	A virtual desktop cloud service offered by a third-party provider for a monthly fee. Ideal for the micro-SME who are predominantly mobile.
MaaS	Metal as a Service	Outsourced central operation of computer servers whether on-site or remotely. The advantage for SMEs is that their back-up is managed and always have access to the latest software.

4.2 Business Intelligence (BI) in SMEs

Knowledge building repertoires are one of the critical capabilities needed for the SMEs' drive towards competitive advantage (Grant, 1996). Collection of data (for example,

customers, services, products, demographics) is a significant contributor to the development of knowledge in the firm. Larger organisations have recognised the value of this data contained in databases and data warehouses and have leveraged this into actionable processes to better understand their markets, customers or products. Where SMEs operate in turbulent markets, the need to develop knowledge capabilities is more critical (Argote and Ingram, 2000). Managers need to be able to get accurate information rapidly so that opportunities are not lost, nor threats from rivals missed. Hence the marketing mantra from the companies supplying BI solutions (Sharda *et al.*, 2014).

The target market for commercial BI products remains the domain of the large companies due to their higher complexity, larger customer bases, more complex projects, and their financial resources (Guarda *et al.*, 2013). The ubiquity of data available and how it can generate new sources of value (for example Amazon, Tesco, etc.) is becoming a tool that can analyse patterns of customer behaviour as well as predict future customer preferences (George, Haas and Pentland, 2014), and more cloud-based third part solutions are becoming more readily accessible to SMEs (as discussed above).

The challenge facing the SMEs is not how to efficiently manage their data, but to harvest strategically important new data. BI should be regarded as a defined management approach and not just a technology (Guarda *et al.*, 2013). Thus, BI allows the SME to integrate information (data) for analysis, reporting, accessing key performance indicators (KPIs), marketing and so on. Accordingly, having access to historical data and harvesting new industry data, the SMEs can recognise previously unknown patterns and gain a better understanding of business processes and future market trends (Reeves and Deimler, 2009). With the availability of cloud-based solutions, Software-as-a-Service (SaaS) allows the SMEs to access technology that was previously only in the domain of the larger companies. Thus, the SMEs can: improve the quality of their information systems; gain access to modern, powerful computing applications; and, use financial resources in other areas of the company. With its origins in database management, modern BI still relies extensively on technologies that collect, extract and analyse data (Turban *et al.*, 2015).

4.3 Decision-making challenges and BI

According to Sharda *et al.* (2014), the computer technologies at the disposal of managers in organisations today can have a significant influence on the formulation of corporate strategy and hence competitiveness and performance. The critical challenge for all organisations, particularly SMEs, is how to leverage the available data and hence create value for the business (Vidgen, Shaw and Grant, 2017). Moreover, the challenges facing business are not just of a technical issue, but also of an organisational, personnel and knowledge management considerations as well. For example, how efficiently will managerial agency implement, or recognise, the data presented to them? How well will the data be aligned to the mission, vision, values and overall strategic direction of the business? Five main challenges are identified in

the literature for which organisations should overcome to be a strategically data-driven enterprise (McAfee, Brynjolfsson and Davenport, 2012). These five challenges (shown in Table 3) demonstrate that access to, and familiarity with, data analytics is not merely a matter of possessing dynamic technical capabilities (Ahenkora and Adjei, 2012; Chang, 2012). Borrowing from Vidgen, Shaw and Grant (2017), and merging the four-dimensional model of organisation change (Nerur, Mahapatra and Mangalaraj, 2005) the following table elaborates on the five main challenges facing the organisation.

Table 3: Challenges facing integration of BI in organisations

Organisational change factors	Challenge for the organisation	Supporting resources in organisations	References
People	Leadership	Leadership and direction from senior management	(Adair, 2010; Augier and Teece, 2009; Teece, 2012; Beck and Wiersema, 2013).
	Talent Management	Effective management and strategic training	(Adner and Helfat, 2003; Agarwal <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Elberse and Ferguson, 2013).
Technology	Technology	Integration and effective, strategic choice of technologies	(Elbashir, Collier and Davern, 2008; Chen, Chiang and Storey, 2012; Guarda <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Antoniadis, Tsiakiris, and Tsopogloy, 2015; Bayrak, 2015)
Culture	Decision-making	Timely, informed, agile, decisive and pragmatic decisions made for the business	(Beach and Mitchell, 1996; Argote and Ingram, 2000; Adner and Helfat, 2003; Appelbaum <i>et al.</i> 2017)
	Company culture	Fostering a sense of innovation and ethical harvesting of data usage.	(Dubey <i>et al.</i> ; 1982; Becker, 1982; Treacy and Wiersema, 1993; Achtenhagen, Melin and Naldi, 2013).

5.0 Competitive advantage for the SME

Companies that constructively manipulate and harvest data are more productive (5%) and more profitable (6%) than those that do not, according to McAfee and Brynjolfsson (2012). The discussion thus far has highlighted the need for quality decision making by managers based on quality data. While the literature recognises that the data cannot always be perfect, it must, at least, be fit for purpose (Haug and Arlbjørn, 2011). The literature also stresses the importance of pre-cleaning and pre-processing of the data thus facilitating more time for modelling and value-added analysis (Vidgen, Shaw and Grant, 2017). If third party providers can provide data in a usable form, then the SME is able to strategically align the use of data correctly with all its resources and is in a good position to gain a competitive advantage against its rivals (Vidgen, Shaw and Grant, 2017). Current theories that attempt to explain why a firm may gain a competitive advantage in the marketplace are the Resource-based Theory (RBV), and its derivative, the Dynamic Capability View (DCV). Under RBV in order to attain a competitive advantage, the firm must develop resources that are valuable to customers, rare, inimitable (not easily copied) and non-substitutable by rivals (Barney and Clark, 2007). These so-called VRIN conditions explain the type and functions of resources that attain and maintain competitive advantage (Eisenhardt and Martin, 2000). Thus, the SME that can develop its BI capabilities, leveraged through XaaS providers, is in a position to put the building blocks together towards a competitive advantage over its rivals. While this area remains underdeveloped in the literature, there are some studies that have suggested that high BI capability strengthens operation capabilities when aligned correctly with Supply Chain Management (SCM) initiatives (Chae *et al.*, 2014). Similarly, Erevelles, Fukawa and Swayne (2016) in their study of how BI transforms marketing in organisations refer to the “big data revolution” in consumer markets. This is where the unprecedented volumes of data are available with incredible variety and hyper-velocity. The firms who rigorously analysed their data more than double that of their competitors enjoyed more significant growth and increased efficiencies. The authors concluded that competitive advantage was predicated on an analytics-driven management culture.

In summary, while the literature is sparse in its treatment of BI as a microfoundation towards dynamic capabilities in SMEs, the preponderance of scholarship acknowledging the utility of BI activities creating critical capabilities that are VRIN and hence fundamental to competitive advantage is a rapidly growing construct in both Data Analytics as well as Strategic Management Theory. This review concludes with a synthesis of the evidence surrounding SMEs and the affordances of BI.

6.0 Conclusion

This paper contributes to the debate on the affordances of BI about SMEs. The discussion attempted to bring together tenets of strategic management theory focussing on the resources within the company, and the strategic advantage that a carefully managed BI approach can bring. The paper has highlighted the challenges facing the SME in gathering important market intelligence quickly and accurately. The

discussion also elaborates on the strategic importance attributed to people, technology and culture in the SME sector and suggests that it is a fertile area for future research into the nexus between BI and agility and how this builds towards dynamic capabilities.

BI and the theories of competitive advantage are both in their relative infancies in their respective fields. The evidence from the systematic literature review uncovered deficiencies and lack of empirical studies focussed on SMEs and BI. Thus, it is hard to make a definitive judgement on the affordances of BI for SMEs, because the mere fact of having access to structured data is not a guarantee of success by any means. Instead, the knowledge and expertise available to the SME as human factors are still critical. The issue also remains one of the financial constraints for the SME insofar as not being able to implement decisions based on opportunities presented from the evaluation of big data. In conclusion, the evidence suggests, despite the gap in the literature, SMEs who embrace BI even to a small extent, stand a better chance of attaining a competitive advantage over their rivals.

The economies of scale provided by third-party cloud computing suppliers also play an important role in assisting the SME to not only outperform their similarly sized rivals but to establish threshold core competencies to compete with much larger rivals. The efficiencies created in SMEs through outsourcing is building a firm base on which to compete effectively.

It would appear that BI is a paradigm shifter, and is not some fad, but a reality for all businesses, and it is here to stay. Accordingly, there are vast opportunities for further research in the area of BI in SMEs and how it can connect across different academic domains. For example, further research into decision making by SMEs and how BI can contribute to dynamic capability building is a potential game-changing area. Additionally, BI should be considered as an integral part of the forces that act on business from both a SMEs' and multinationals' perspective.

The ever-increasing volume of data available and the exponential increase in companies using big data as the basis of strategic planning is becoming more accepted. However, the empirical analysis given to SMEs regarding how they should gather, then effectively manage the data remain silent on this business paradigm. Dynamic capability theory has been heralded as the next great hope to understand how a firm can attain a competitive advantage, but yet, the theory has failed to recognise a significant capability: knowledge through data acquisition. This paper has aimed to highlight this seemingly obvious resource available to all organisations regardless of size. Data is ever present, whether it is the freely available information on government websites or the simple statistics of who is visiting the website of the SMEs.

The main argument put forth in this paper is that the real value of data to the SME depends on associations, strategic alliances and capabilities developed in the firm to take advantage of the data it gathers. It is not just a simple matter of employing an algorithm to delineate hidden patterns or predictive analytics from a dataset, but the competences of the firm as a whole to correctly interpret what they discover and

correctly operationalise their findings in such a way that their customer offering is unique and hard to imitate by their competitors.

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Measuring Social and Psychological Outcomes from Activation Labour Market Programmes in Higher Education: A Pilot Study.

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Abstract

Following the 2008 recession, Ireland experienced unemployment rates as high as 15% (McGuinness, O'Connell and Kelly, 2014). Policy responses have been through the introduction of upskilling and reskilling through activation labour market policies (ALMPs) in the higher education sector (Department of Education and Skills, 2015). The evidence to date regarding the efficacy of such interventions (e.g., Springboard+) has been concerned with blunt measurements of progression rates, labour market entry, and earnings. The present study explored social capital and social well-being among a sample of 101 participants of Springboard+ programmes at one higher education provider in Dublin. The primary objective of the pilot study is to create and test a research method informed by well validated indicators to inform a larger national study.

Keywords: unemployment; upskilling; reskilling; activation labour market policies; Springboard+; higher education; social outcomes; social capital; social policy; measurement

Introduction

Following the 2008 recession, Ireland experienced unemployment rates as high as 15% (McGuinness, O'Connell, and Kelly, 2014). Policy responses related to the upskilling and reskilling of the workforce were operationalised through the introduction of activation labour market policies (ALMPs) in the higher education sector (Department of Education and Skills: DES, 2015). The evidence to date regarding the efficacy of such interventions (e.g., Springboard+) has been concerned with blunt measurements of progression rates, labour market entry, and earnings. However, as would be generally expected of any intervention with life-long or life-wide skills and

personal development components, the "voice" of the participants was not recorded. So as to supplement existing knowledge of the efficacy of one such programme (Springboard+), the present study explored social capital and social well-being among a sample of 101 participants enrolled at one higher education provider in Dublin. The primary objective of this pilot study is to test and trial a questionnaire developed from well validated items.

Research context

From crisis spending to labour market activation programmes

So as to generate data and provide a picture of the effects of the worldwide recession on the education sector, the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) conducted the Education Today Crisis Survey 2010 (Damme and Kärkkäinen, 2011). In the survey, Ireland cited "alleviate unemployment", "meet education demands", and "prepare for future growth" as reasons for labour activation programmes or "stimulus spending" in higher education. Throughout the survey responses, "crisis related" was cited as the most prominent reason for increased spending in higher education.

What does this "crisis spending" look like in Ireland?

Initially introduced for workers who had become unemployed during the recession, the "Springboard" initiative provides part-time upskilling and reskilling within the higher education sector in Ireland (Higher Education Authority: HEA, 2016). Officially launched in 2011, Springboard represents one-fifth of the Government's "skills to work programme" initiative which includes five programmes of labour activation - the others being JobBridge, Momentum, JobPlus, and Skillnet (DES, 2015). Springboard is closely aligned to the National Skills Strategy goals of meeting future demands within certain sectors and enhancing the knowledge-based workforce. Initially offering 6,000 places in 34 public and private higher education institutions across Ireland, this opened up opportunities to cohorts of unemployed who would otherwise be unable to enter higher education. Managed by the HEA on behalf of the DES, funding is provided by the Irish government and the European Social Fund (programme for employment, inclusion and learning 2014-2020). According to the DES (2018), over €161 million has been invested in the newly rebranded "Springboard+" with over 47,000 places funded. In 2018, there are an additional 25%, compared to 2017; meaning over 8,000 places are now available for those eligible under the new criteria.

Entry to Springboard courses, unlike traditional admission requirements for higher education, is not dependant on one's academic history. Initially, the target participants were those who became unemployed and those without higher education qualifications (HEA, 2015). Eligible participants were required to be unemployed and actively seeking employment. In 2012, additional places were offered, and eligibility was extended to other cohorts of social welfare recipients - including those who were self-employed. In 2018, the criteria for inclusion has widened to include 100% funded places for "homemakers" and unemployed, and both full- and part-time employees

with 90% funding (DES, 2018). Springboard+ engages students from certificate level courses to masters level courses in a full- and part-time capacity, with courses aimed at the ICT, medical technologies, hospitality, financial, and construction sectors. During the period 2011-2016, over 40,500 funded places were filled, with the majority of applicants being over 30 years of age. Interestingly, a large number of students were re-entering higher education, with 81% already holding a level 6-10 award on the National Framework for Qualifications as they commenced their Springboard course.

The HEA (2016) reported a completion rate of 72% (n = 22,531) with 80% of these leaving the live register. A review of Springboard 2011-2016 found that 88% of the places had been taken up, with an increased uptake of online / distance courses. Building on the initial success of this labour market activation programme and keeping in line with the goals of the ICT Action Plan (DES, 2011a) and the Expert Group on Future Skills Needs (EGFSN) report in the ICT Action Plan, Springboard+ allocated extra places for ICT courses. In response to the national shortage of ICT graduates that was highlighted in the ICT Action Plan (DES, 2011a), Springboard has further expanded to include more cohorts of eligible participants. Once limited to those who were unemployed, Springboard now addresses the need to upskill / reskill so as to increase employability in areas with skills shortages. In 2017 / 2018, both full- and part-time courses are now available, opening opportunities to homemakers, self-employed as well as those already in employment and wishing to change careers. This inclusion of employed learners and homemakers supports the observation of social policy theorists - in that people are moving away from traditional decision making and upward progression in one's career to a more "sideways progression" to new sectors through up/reskilling (McArdle, Briscoe, and Hall, 2007). Overall, the number of courses in participating higher education providers - both public and private - has grown from 208 to 245 with over 8,000 places available on over 245 courses (DES, 2017, 2018).

What is the current picture of the Springboard student?

Whilst reporting on the Springboard+ programme is often based on metrics regarding, for example, participation rates, little is known about the personal, familial, and community / societal impacts of participation on Springboard+ programmes. The HEA currently reports upon data sourced from their application management system and periodic participant surveys (HEA, 2016). There are insufficient opportunities for participants to report upon their experiences in the existing form of testimonials and vague "sentiment" survey questions. Latest numbers from the 2016 report show some positive comments from participants. However it should be noted that the collated testimonials are only one to two pages in length for the period 2011 to 2016. The majority of previous participants surveyed "strongly agreed" (46%, n = 1,012) or "agreed" (46%, n = 1,018) that the course positively impacted upon their lives (HEA, 2016). It can be argued that these numbers alone - although positive, are not enough. Fundamental questions remain – for example: how has their life been positively

impacted? Have they had a second chance at higher education? Have they developed deep social networks or understanding of their experience? Has their social capital and world view positively changed?.

Although the survey is detailed in nature, the HEA themselves acknowledge within their reports that it does not allow for lived experiences. One of the recommendations of the Cassells report (Investing in National Ambition: A Strategy for Funding Higher Education: DES, 2016) is increased funding for higher education institutions to facilitate both social and economic developments. Furthermore, the Cassells report states that there must be verifiable results of the above developments (OECD, 2017).

To date, there are a plethora of progression and employment statistics from the HEA only offering short free text responses from participants (HEA, 2016). There still remains a gap in the data demonstrating the lived experiences of the Springboard students. Ireland has a long tradition of understanding the issues affecting social exclusion and the role that educational opportunities can play in reducing marginalisation amongst society's most vulnerable groups. The OECD reports considerably on social outcomes and the value of education across more than 50 countries.

However, it is not sufficient to report voiceless statistics regarding progression and employment status after completing such programmes. Such a unique cohort of students cannot be understood through quantitative measures alone. The human experience and developments after unemployment during the recession and / or the opportunity to reskill through higher education is a new experience; one which can only be understood through lived experiences. Exploring the impact of government policies through a mixed-methodological approach can contribute to the evidence on the impact of Springboard programmes for participants.

Why address concepts of well-being, social capital and lived experience?

From a European perspective, Stiglitz, Sen, and Fitoussi (2009, p. 41) argue that a progressive approach which builds on the traditional GDP measurement can “enrich” the policy process. This is then reiterated in the OECD (2011) “How’s Life?” biannual report of which the social capital interpretations feature as indicators. The interpretations of social capital conceptualized by the OECD as most appropriate to the research programme are: 1) personal relationships; 2) civic engagement; 3) trust and cooperative norms; and 4) social network support. As argued by Scrivens and Smith (2013), these four concepts are high policy priorities as they are detrimental to economic production, mental health, well-being, and civic participation.

Table 1: OECD How’s Life? Measuring Well-being indicators 2011

Individual well-being	
Quality of life	Material Conditions
Health status	Income and wealth

Work and life balance	Jobs and earnings
Education and skills	Housing
Social connections	
Civic engagement and governance	
Environmental quality	
Personal security	
Subjective well-being	
Sustainability of well-being over time	
Natural capital	Human capital
Economic capital	Social capital

From: OECD (2011). How's Life?: Measuring Well-being, OECD publishing

Following the 2008 global recession, Ireland experienced unemployment rates as high as 15% (McGuinness, O'Connell, and Kelly, 2014, p. 426). As set out by Ireland's National Skills Strategy, Ireland's social policies have responded to levels of unemployment through the introduction of upskilling and reskilling through labour activation programmes in higher education provision (DES, 2015, p. 46). Furthermore, higher education is not only recognised as an exit pathway from unemployment, but the positive contributions to socio-economic outcomes and well-being are emphasised in current policies such as National Strategy for Higher Education 2030 (DES, 2011b). The upskilling and reskilling of the unemployed within the public and private educational institutions can be seen as a progressive move towards the government's future goal of building a knowledge-based economy.

Perspectives on activation labour market programmes and well-being

While there is a scarcity of academic literature directly addressing ALMPs within the arena of higher education, there are key pieces which address well-being - or as Andersen (2008) calls it - "indirect effects" of ALMP training/government upskilling programmes. Both Andersen (2008) and Sage (2014) conducted secondary analysis of the British Household Panel Survey to answer the question of "Do ALMPs increase well-being and social capital?" In order to assess these non-economic outcomes, in both cases a fixed effects model was used. For Sage (2014), whilst there was a positive effect and overall increase of well-being among ALMP participants, no improvement was found in their levels of social capital. However, Andersen (2008) omitted the social capital indicator and reported higher well-being amongst ALMP participants in comparison to the non-participant control group. Sage (2014) acknowledges that the lack of social capital improvement may be caused by restrictions within the dataset and absence of some social capital indicators. Another limitation proposed by Andersen (2008) relates to the characteristics of individual participants and levels of enthusiasm. Other studies, such as that by Creed, Bloxsome, and Johnston (2001) approached the concept of well-being through the measurement of self-esteem and self-efficacy. Although Creed et al. (2001) reported relationships between upskilling programmes for the unemployed and well-being, this measurement alone did not align with the concept of well-being in modern social policy (OECD,

2011). One output from Creed et al. (2001) was the recommendation to uncover participant's experiences.

Using a human capital theory approach, Nordlund (2011) assessed the impact of educational training ALMPs in Sweden. Government longitudinal quantitative data was analysed to seek an understanding into who benefited the most from ALMPs. Findings suggested that participation in ALMPs positioned individuals in a more positive labour market position and acted as a stepping stone to further educational training.

As higher education is a catalyst for individual well-being and increased quality of life, Strandh (2000) adds that the transition from unemployment to higher education results in a significant increase to an individual's positive mental health. Gained "predicted status" through education is said to provide security and well-being. Education is said to be the forefront predictor in the measurement of trust, social involvement, and social capital (Helliwell and Putnam, 2007). Milligan, Moretti, and Oreopoulos (2004) have shown that higher levels of education attainment results in higher levels of social and community engagement. More recently, the OECD (2010) acknowledges that education facilitates improved mental well-being through the acquisition of social capital. The results of upskilling and reskilling through higher education is well documented in both Irish social policy and international level.

Lived experience: Analysis through Bourdieusian Perspective

The current research programme is an "a priori" planned mixed-methodological set of research studies that seeks to attain rich, in-depth data from interviews regarding the lived experience of Springboard students. The interviews occur on completion of the programme. With regards to the lived experiences of this unique cohort of "unemployed learners" and learners re-entering education to reskill / upskill, we set out an argument for a Bourdieusian approach. Considered the founding father of "social capital" (Scrivens and Smith, 2013), the work of French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu will be central to the qualitative analysis framework. In their analysis of the lived experience of Erasmus students and employability, Botas and Huisman (2013) advocated a Bourdieusian analytic approach as an appropriate tool to discover lived experiences. It is proposed to utilise this approach to explore the lived experience of the unemployed learner / Springboard student in higher education activation programmes. This will provide a deeper understanding of their participation in higher education, concerning how they make sense of their social capital accumulation, if it impacted on their Habitus, and if they experienced embourgeoisement. Harker (1984, p. 118) argues that embourgeoisement occurs when the focus on "employability" in higher education is a mechanism to shape individuals to fit the existing or expected Habitus. Although the "unemployed learner" has a unique Habitus shaping their disposition and how they describe themselves. Reay (2004) describes how higher educational experiences can build one's social capital.

Methodology

Sampling method

Purposive sampling was chosen as the participant population must satisfy the inclusion criteria: being over the age of 18 and commencing a higher education programme funded by Springboard. In order to gain access to the participants, gatekeepers in the form of support staff were presented with information sheets and a copy of the questionnaire. Once access was granted, groups of students fitting the inclusion criteria were invited to take part in the study.

Participants

A total of N = 101 eligible students participated in the study. Participants were enrolled in Springboard funded undergraduate programmes ranging from level 6 to level 8. These QQI accredited programmes were being undertaken on both a part- and full-time basis.

Measures

Demographics

A quantitative questionnaire was used to collect demographic information including level of education, labour market status, and age of commencement. The demographic questions used were adapted from EuroStat and EU-SILC indicators to allow for future European comparisons.

Social capital

The questionnaire also measured levels of social capital. Funded through the European Commission Directorate-General for Employment, the OECD has compiled a databank of 1,300 questions appropriate in the measurement of social capital. A plethora of surveys - both official and unofficial - were collected and organised under the four themes of social capital (Scrivens and Smith, 2013).

In order to construct a survey which is both culturally appropriate and transferable, questions from the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) instrument managed by Eurostat were chosen. Questions were coded under the following four themes of social capital identified by the OECD: “personal relationships”, “social network supports”, “civic engagement”, and “trust and cooperative norms” (Scrivens and Smith, 2003).

The databank was presented in an Excel format consisting of the social capital theme, variable category, question text, response text, and the name and date of the survey. The Excel databank allowed for filtering by themes to ensure all four social capital themes are included, resulting in 19 questions being identified for the survey.

The theme “personal relationships” is measured through six questions from the European Survey on Income and Living Conditions - Ad Hoc Module on Social

Participation (2006) and European Survey on Income and Living Conditions - Ad Hoc Module on Well-Being (2013). The questions are likert scale in nature and concern both non face-to-face and face-to-face social contact.

The second theme “social network supports” is measured through three questions from the European Survey on Income and Living Conditions - Ad Hoc Module on Social Participation (2006) and European Survey on Income and Living Conditions - Ad Hoc Module on Well-Being (2013). The questions are categorical in nature and are concerned with perceived support.

The third theme is “civic engagement” and is measured through six categorical questions concerning associational involvement. All six questions are from the European Survey on Income and Living Conditions - Ad Hoc Module on Social Participation (2006).

The final theme “trust and cooperative norms” consists of four likert scale questions measuring generalised trust and trust in institutions. All of the questions are from the European Survey on Income and Living Conditions - Ad Hoc Module on Well-Being (2013).

Well-being

The Scale of Positive and Negative Experience (SPANE) was chosen to measure positive and negative feelings experienced during the previous four weeks. This scale was likert in nature with response options ranging from 1 (very rarely or never) to 5 (very often or always). In order to calculate an overall balance effect score, Diener et al (2009) recommend computing total scores for both positive and negative scores and then subtracting the negative score from the positive. Scores can range from -24 (indicating most unhappy) to 24 (being most happy).

The second scale used to measure well-being was The Flourishing Scale from Diener and Biswas-Diener (2009) - an eight-item well-being scale that measures self-reported optimism, self-esteem, and purpose. Eight likert scale items ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) were computed to provide a score from 8 (lowest possible psychological strengths) to 56 (highest possible psychological strengths).

Analysis

Questionnaire responses were analysed using SPSS™ Version 24. Basic univariate analysis using frequencies and descriptive statistics were carried out, including age, level of education, labour market status, and sex of participants. The variable “labour market status” was recoded into two new variables: “employed” and “unemployed”. This allowed for independent samples t-tests to be calculated to test for differences between the two groups on their well-being scales.

Ethics

Ethical approval was granted by the Ethics Committee of the School of Education, Trinity College Dublin. All participants were reassured that participation was voluntary and the results would be completely anonymous.

Results

Demographic profile of pilot study

The average age of the Springboard student was 40 years ($SD = 9.81$), with an age range from 25 years to 65 years. There were slightly more females (53.5%, $n = 54$) than males (46.5%, $n = 47$) in the study.

The majority of participants 63% ($n = 63$) were unemployed on commencement of the Springboard programme. While there were similar levels of unemployment between the sexes (females: $n = 32$; males: $n = 31$), the female respondents attained a higher level of education previous to the commencement of Springboard. High levels of educational attainment and participants reporting employment 23.8% ($n = 24$) was indicative of the reskilling or “sideways progression” discussed by McArdle, Briscoe, and Hall (2007). The high level of previous education can also be explained by the ICT Action Plan 2014-2018 (DES, 2014) which pushes for more people to participate in ICT conversion courses. The participants in this research sample attended institutions where such conversion courses are on offer.

Well-being

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare mean scores of flourishing in employed and unemployed participants. There was a statistically significant difference between the scores for employed ($M = 47.8$, $SD = 5.7$) and unemployed ($M = 41.8$, $SD = 8.9$) participants; $t(60.7) = 3.892$, $p = 0.000$. These results indicated that employment status on commencement of ALMPs had an effect of flourishing scores.

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare mean scores of positive and negative experiences in employed and unemployed participants. No statistically significant differences were found.

Social capital

When asked about levels of satisfaction with personal relationships, scores could range from 0 (not at all satisfied) to 10 (completely satisfied). Participants in employment ($n = 24$) reported higher levels of satisfaction ($M = 7.1$, $SD = 1.8$) than their unemployed counterparts ($n = 76$: $M = 6.4$, $SD = 2.0$). When asked about their ability to ask others for help, the majority of employed (79%, $n = 19$) answered in the affirmative. Interestingly, the majority of unemployed (79%, $n = 60$) reported “yes”, followed by 9% ($n = 7$) stating “no” and 8% ($n = 6$) reporting “don’t know”. When asked to rate their trust in the police from 0 (no trust at all) to 10 (complete trust), employed participants ($n = 24$) scored $M = 5.5$, $SD = 2.5$. Unemployed participants ($n = 76$)

reported an average score of $M=5.1$, $SD=2.7$. The four measures of trust were computed into one overall trust score. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare mean scores of trust in employed and unemployed participants. No statistically significant differences were found.

Limitations and future considerations

The objective of this pilot study was to trial a questionnaire set developed from well validated items and to limit respondent fatigue. Completion time for the questionnaire booklet was quick (5 to 10 minutes to complete) and no problems were encountered. Questionnaires were presented in pencil and paper format with information for the participants to seek clarification or highlight any issues – if needed. No negative feedback or suggestions for improvement were received from the participants. This pilot study drew a sample from a higher education institution in Dublin city. For the main study, all 42 participating higher educational institutions will be invited to take part. A larger, more representative sample will greatly contribute to social policy of higher education and ALMP in Ireland and allow for full exploration of whether:

1. Participants in government ALMPs experience an increase in subjective well-being;
2. Compared to the employed, unemployed participants in government ALMPs experience higher increases in subjective well-being.

The qualitative interviews will give an in-depth insight into the lived experiences of participants. The qualitative aspect and the Bourdieusian perspective analyses will provide a unique insight into how participants make sense of their experience. This will allow for a full exploration and understanding of social capital and well-being in higher education labour activation programmes through a Bourdieusian perspective.

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Faking Good and Personality Assessments of Job applicants: A Review of the Literature

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Abstract

High stakes selection contexts often drive the provision of socially desirable responses from job applicants. This can take the form of 'faking good' and can lead to inaccurate personality assessments. This article reviews the extant research on the extent to which faking good occurs, the psychological factors that may lead to faking good by job applicants, and how faking good is measured. In particular, the review considers the role of moral hypocrisy in this regard and considers how it can be minimised.

Keywords: *Personnel management; Personality assessment; Executives--Recruitment*

Introduction

Since the early 1990's research has shown that in work and organisational settings the dimensions of personality help to explain individual differences in behaviours (Barrick, Mount, and Judge, 2001; Ones, Dilchert, Viswesvaran, and Judge, 2007; Salgado, 2003). The 'Big Five' dimensions have today become synonymous with the topic of personality (Hogan, 2005). This model of personality has its origins in a factor analytic research approach to understanding personality (Digman, 1990). The Big Five dimensions or, alternatively, the Five Factor Model (FFM) of personality have achieved widespread acceptance as a satisfactory explanatory model of the structure of personality and individual differences (Barrick, Mount, and Judge, 2001). The five broad dimensions, or factors, of Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness have been shown to be replicable across different demographic, ethnic, and cultural groupings (McCrae and Terracciano, 2005; Salgado, Moscovio, and Lado, 2003). According to Salgado (2016), personality inventories are utilised more than biodata, assessment center, and situational interviews in personnel selection. However, concern about the accuracy of self-report personality measures has long been an issue for psychologists (Cronbach and Meehl, 1955). The issue of 'faking good' on self-report personality measures by job applicants is a major concern, according to some researchers (Jeong, Christiansen, Robie, Kung, and Kinney, 2017; Kiefer and Benit, 2016; Roulin and Bourdage, 2017)

In this article the impact of socially desirable responding in the form of faking good by job applicants on the accuracy of personality measures is reviewed. Following this, the role of socially desirable responding in the form of moral hypocrisy as a behavioural manifestation of faking good is considered, along with how research into the role of objective self-awareness can help in dealing with the occurrence of applicant faking good. Finally, how socially desirable responding can also impact on measures of impression management that are used to detect faking good is examined.

Personality and Job Performance

Personality assessment using the self-report measures of the Big Five is now a well-established practice in the field of applied industrial/organisational (I/O), or occupational psychology (Barrick, Mount, and Judge, 2001; Hogan, 2005; Hough and Oswald, 2008; Kiefer and Benit, 2016; Niessen, Meijer, and Tendeiro, 2017; Roberts, Kuncel, Shiner, Caspi, and Goldberg, 2007). Meta-analytic evidence (Barrick and Mount, 1991; Salgado, 2003) suggests that some of the Big Five dimensions are related to overall job performance in virtually all jobs, whereas other dimensions are related to performance in a more limited number of jobs. Conscientiousness has been empirically shown to be a valid predictor of job performance across performance measures in all occupations studied (Salgado, 2003). Neuroticism has also been found to be a generalisable predictor when overall work performance was the criterion, but its relationship to specific performance criteria and occupations was less consistent than Conscientiousness (Barrick, Mount, and Judge, 2001). Extraversion has been found to be related to job performance in occupations where interactions with others form a significant portion of the job such as jobs in the sales and marketing area (Barrick et al., 2001). Agreeableness is a useful predictor of service orientation and teamwork, because it has been demonstrated to have high predictive validity in jobs and work settings that involve considerable interpersonal interaction, particularly when the interaction involves helping, cooperating and nurturing others (Mount, Barrick, and Stewart, 1998). Extraversion and Openness to Experience appear to be related to training proficiency and creativity (Barrick et al., 2001, Salgado, 2005).

Ones, Dilchert, Viswesvaran, and Judge (2007) conducted a detailed review of the most comprehensive meta-analyses that have examined the relationships between the Big Five and the following variables: (a) performance criteria (e.g., overall job performance, objective and task performance, contextual performance, and avoidance of counterproductive behaviours), (b) leadership criteria (emergence, effectiveness, and transformational leadership), (c) other criteria such as team performance and entrepreneurship, and (d) work motivation and attitudes. They showed that the accumulated body of evidence supports the inference that the criterion-related validities of personality measures are substantial. The Big Five personality variables, as a set, do indeed predict important organisational behaviours such as job performance, leadership, and even work attitudes and motivation. The effect sizes for most of these criteria are moderate to strong (Salgado, 2005). Judge, Bono, Ilies, and Gerhardt (2002) have shown that leadership was related to the Big Five dimensions

of personality. Extraversion was found to be the most important trait of leaders and effective leadership. After Extraversion, Conscientiousness and Openness to Experience were the strongest and most consistent correlates of leadership.

Another area of relevance to work and organisational settings in which the study of personality has been fruitful is in the area of career progression and success (Roberts, Kuncel, Shiner, Caspi, and Goldberg, 2007). There are two dimensions to this aspect of an individual employee's life, namely, job satisfaction (intrinsic) and aspects such as salary and position in the organizational hierarchy (extrinsic). Four of the Big Five dimensions have been shown to relate to either extrinsic or intrinsic career success, with Conscientiousness and Extraversion being associated with slightly higher levels of extrinsic and intrinsic career success whilst Neuroticism and Agreeableness are associated with slightly lower levels of career success (Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, and Barrick, 1999). These insights are of use when it comes to career counselling of employees. The effect sizes are small because of the role that moderators, such as family status or industry characteristics, play in determining career outcomes. There are also many contingencies that might alter the relationship between personality and career outcomes (Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller, 2007).

Accuracy in Personality Measurement

Organisations that use personality measures in the selection and assessment of managers, and which retain these employees, are likely to outperform their competitors who do not select on the basis of personality (Hogan, Hogan, and Kaiser, 2010; Oh, Kim, and Van Iddekinge, 2015). These benefits of personality assessment, however, only arise if the individual's true score on a personality measure is accurately assessed, thus being indicative of 'construct validity'. 'High stakes' contexts occur when the assessment can play a determining role in deciding who will gain access to an employment opportunity (Sackett, Schmitt, Ellingson, and Kabin, 2001; Ellingson, Heggstad, and Makarius, 2012). The reward available is, to some extent, dependent on the outcome of the assessment (Wise and Demars, 2005). On the other hand, 'low stakes' assessment situations are those in which participants are assessed in settings that do not have a potential for a similar reward. Research linking personality and job performance, using job incumbents as participants, is in this category. In defending the use of personality measures in applied contexts such as high stakes employee selection situations, Hogan (2005) stated "the problem is that business people have trouble getting good advice from academic psychology. This, in turn, explains the widespread interest in bogus measures of personality such as the Myers–Briggs Type Indicator and Goleman's Emotional Competence Inventory" (p. 334).

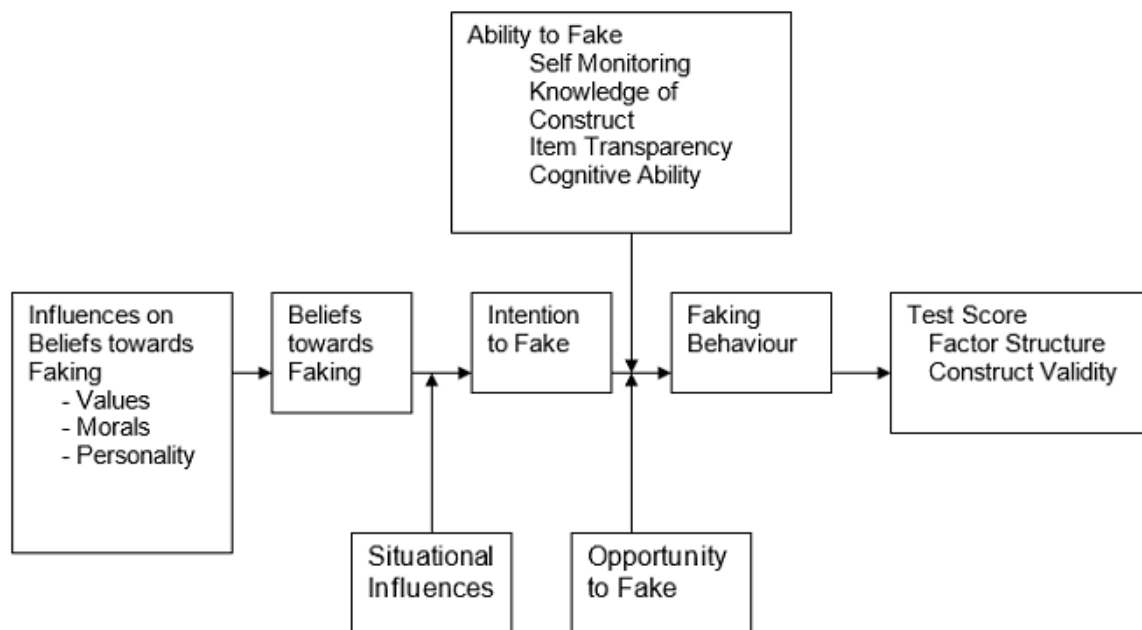
The accurate assessment of personality in selection contexts is an important theoretical question (Ellingson, 2012; Ployhart, Schmitt, and Tippins, 2017), with critical consequences in applied settings (Griffith and Converse, 2012). Objectively scored psychometric measures, such as cognitive ability tests, differ from personality measures which rely on self-reported data. The items in ability measures are

objectively scored, whereas there is the possibility of inaccuracy due to faking good by the individual being assessed in self-report personality measures.

An individual's test score has meaning only on the basis that it provides a measureable link with the individual's behaviour in a particular setting of interest (Lance, Dawson, Birkelbach, and Hoffman, 2010). However, the question of whether individuals respond honestly to the items in personality measures, or whether they engage in what is usually referred to either as 'faking good' or 'impression management' is a hotly contested topic (Ellingson, 2012). Some researchers maintain that faking good is a serious problem because of inaccuracy resulting from faking good (Griffith and Converse, 2012; Jeong et al., 2017; Morgeson, Campion, Dipboye, Hollenbeck, Murphy, and Schmitt, 2007). Other researchers argue that, even if faking good were to occur, it would not matter because studies have shown that the occurrence does not affect the criterion-related validity of self-report personality measures (Ones, Viswesvaran, and Reiss, 1996). A few researchers maintain that faking is not an issue in high stakes personality assessments (Hogan, Barrett, and Hogan, 2007). These opposing viewpoints raise issues pertaining to core psychometrics that question the construct validity of personality measures. This is because they raise doubts about the accuracy of the inferences made about an individual based on her or his score on a personality measure in a personality assessment context, particularly those that are described as 'high stakes'. The construct validity of personality measures in selection situations is a fundamental measurement issue with respect to actual inferences that are made about the personality traits of job candidates.

Figure 1 contains a suggested nomological network (McFarland and Ryan, 2000) for the various factors that affect a test taker's observed score on a personality measure. Knowledge of the nomological network is essential for an understanding of the construct validity of a psychological measure (Cronbach and Meehl, 1955; Messick, 1995). If the observed score on such measures is not aligned with the individual's true score on a putative latent construct of each of the dimensions of personality, then the observed score is not a valid measure and is as open to the same criticism as that levelled by Hogan (2005) at the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator or Goleman's Emotional Competence Inventory. Both of these measures lack construct validity and have poor psychometric properties, apart from the MSC EI measure (Bess and Harvey, 2002; Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso, (2008).

Figure 1 - Nomological Network for Test Scores on a Personality Measure



The importance of accurate personality assessment of job applicants lies in its value in aiding a better understanding of human behaviour in work and organisational settings both at an individual and aggregated level. Personality predicts job performance, but it is not the only predictor (Hogan, Hogan, and Roberts, 1996). A meta-analysis of personality and overall assessment centre ratings (OAR's) conducted by Collins et al. (2003) found that, although cognitive ability alone predicted much of the variance in OAR's, the addition of personality traits to the model significantly increased the variance accounted for. In fact, they showed that in certain contexts, the combination of a set of personality traits and cognitive ability can predict nearly all of the variance in performance ratings.

Socially Desirable Responding

Socially desirable responding is typically defined as the tendency to give positive self-descriptions (Ziegler, MacCann, and Roberts, 2012), but it can also manifest itself in clinical settings as a tendency to give negative self-descriptions (Perinelli and Gremigni, 2016; Salgado, 2016; Sollman and Berry, 2011). Paulhus (1984) showed that the person being assessed may either be consciously engaging in a deliberate strategy of misrepresentation to make an impression on those who might eventually see his or her personality profile, or the misrepresentation could occur at an unconscious level and be motivated by a latent need for self-enhancement and ego maintenance.

Socially desirable responding can therefore present a problem when accuracy in the assessment of personality is a concern, and, from a construct validity perspective, it must be taken into account (Salgado, 2016). This problem with self-report measures is an old one, and the link with behaviour was pointed out a long time ago by La Piere (1934) in his classic paper on the relationship between attitude and behaviour in which he stated, “Yet it would seem far more worthwhile to make a shrewd guess regarding that which is essential than to accurately measure that which is likely to prove quite irrelevant” (p. 237). In spite of La Piere’s admonition, accurate measurement can still be a problem in the personality assessments of job applicants. Socially desirable responding is more likely to occur in situations where there is a desirable outcome at stake, such as in high stakes selection contexts (Griffith, Chmielowski, and Yoshita, 2007), that can affect the rank order of individual job candidates (Morgeson et al., 2007). This was one of the reasons that Campbell and Fiske (1959) advocated the use of their multi-trait, multi-method (MTMM) approach to determining psychometric test accuracy. They were concerned with “the adequacy of tests as measures of constructs, rather than the adequacy of a construct as determined by the confirmation of theoretically predicted associations with measures of other constructs” (p. 100). Socially desirable responding in the form of applicant faking good should therefore be a major concern with regard to the measurement of true scores in personality psychology (Backstrom, Björklund, and Larsson, 2009; Bangerter, Roulin, and König, 2012; Chan, 2009; Morgeson et al., 2007). For example, the transparency of the item content in an omnibus personality measure is one measurement issue that can lead to an occurrence of this problem. Because of item transparency, test takers can develop reasonably accurate hypotheses about what trait an item is tapping into (Schmit and Ryan, 1993).

Today, there appears to be a dominant consensus view about faking in the literature, at least in occupational settings, that:

1. Faking can and does occur (Birkeland, Manson, Kisamore, Brannick, and Smith, 2006; Griffith and Converse, 2012; Landers, Sackett, and Tuzinski, 2011; Markus, 2006, Salgado, 2016)
2. It does not affect the criterion-related reliability of personality measures with respect to research, at the aggregate level, on job performance (Hogan et al. 2007; Li and Bagger 2006; Ones et al. 1996), although Salgado (2016) disputes this. This is because this research relies on samples of job incumbents.
3. It is more likely to occur in ‘high stakes’ situations such as recruitment where there is a desirable outcome at stake - getting a job (Ellingson, 2012; Griffith, Chmielowski, and Yoshita, 2007).
4. It can have a negative impact on the rank ordering of individual job applicants when personality measures are used in selection contexts (Griffith and Converse, 2012; Hollenbeck, 2009).

Estimates from extant research as to the extent of the occurrence of faking good vary, as well as the extent to which each of the Big Five is prone to being faked. For example, Hogan et al. (2007) are of the view that ‘all (applicants) faking all the time’

(p.1280), meaning that the issue of faking good is a non-issue in their view. This strong view has been challenged by several researchers (Sackett, 2012). Research findings on the link between job performance and personality traits using job incumbents (those in employment), is not affected by faking good (Griffith and Converse, 2012). Arthur, Glaze, Villado, and Taylor (2010) demonstrated that, in the aggregate, all of the Big Five dimensions of personality are prone to faking good among job applicants. They also found that, although most test takers' scores were stable, fairly sizeable percentages of the test takers displayed evidence of higher scores as job applicants, compared to their scores later on when they were job incumbents. According to Ziegler et al. (2012),

Faking represents a response set aimed at providing a portrayal of the self that helps a person to achieve personal goals. Faking occurs when this response set is activated by situational demands and person characteristics to produce systematic differences in test scores that are not due to the attribute of interest (p. 8).

As such, it is a form of 'moral hypocrisy'. There is evidence from research (Batson, 2008) that there are two psychological processes involved in socially desirable responding manifested in the form of faking good. These are moral hypocrisy and objective self-awareness (Duval and Lalwani, 1999).

Moral hypocrisy

In two landmark series of experimental psychology studies, Batson and colleagues (Batson, Kobrynowicz, Dinnerstein, Kempf, and Wilson, 1997; Batson Thompson, Seufferling, Whitney, and Strongman, 1999) introduced the concept of moral hypocrisy which they defined as follows: "*moral hypocrisy*: Morality is extolled - even enacted - not with an eye to producing a good and right outcome but in order to appear moral yet still benefit oneself" (p. 1335). People who sincerely value morality, and who firmly believe that they should not put their own rights and interests ahead of the parallel rights and interests of others, can act in ways that seem to show a blatant disregard for the moral principles they hold dear (Batson et al., 1999). The difference between moral disengagement and moral hypocrisy is to be found in the second part of Batson et al.'s (1997) definition. Unlike moral hypocrisy, those who engage in moral disengagement are not necessarily attempting to appear moral while simultaneously engaging in behaviour that is morally lacking. Moral disengagement therefore occurs when individuals deliberately disengage from self-censorship. When moral hypocrisy occurs there is a tangible benefit gained by the individual.

Batson, et al. (1997) presented participants with a moral dilemma. Participants were required to assign themselves and another fictitious participant, to either of two tasks that are different (Batson, 2008). Participants were led to believe that the other (fictitious) participant would not know that they – the actual subjects of the experiment - were allowed to assign the task. One task allowed the participant the chance to earn a raffle ticket and had positive consequences in that it was an enjoyable task. The other task had no chance to earn a raffle ticket and was described in the briefing of

participants as dull and boring. Most participants – (up to 80%) – assigned themselves to the more interesting and rewarding task. Yet only 10% of participants believed that assigning the dull and boring task to the other (fictitious) participant was the moral thing to do.

There are strong parallels between Batson et al.'s (1997, 1999) experiments and the applied situation faced by individual job applicants (Ellingson et al., 2012; Fan et al., 2012; Fischbacher and Föllmi-Heusi, 2013). Completing self-report personality measures in a selection situation is a win/lose situation with an applicant who fakes good possibly winning if the applicant with the 'best' true scores does not fake good or lie. Therefore, the opportunity for moral hypocrisy is present in faking good situations. The job applicant can deliberately lie which is immoral behaviour regardless of the euphemistic labelling of the lying as faking good or impression management. The results of the Batson et al.'s series of experiments provide support from experimental psychology for the level of faking good that Griffith and Converse (2012) maintain are the norm in applied settings – 30% of applicants fake good with a margin of error of + or – 10%.

Batson, et al. (1999) conducted a further experiment to examine whether moral standards being made salient, prior to the opportunity to behave, would actually affect the behaviour of the participants. They tested four experimental conditions. Awareness of moral standards could be either high or low. The salience of moral standards could also be either high or low. This resulted in a 2x2 experiment i.e. 4 possible experimental conditions. They found that participants in the low-standard-salience/high-self-awareness condition responded very differently to those in the high-standard-salience/high-self-awareness condition. In the latter condition, the majority of participants agreed that the most moral way to assign the tasks was to give the positive consequences task to the other participant, whereas in the low-standard-salience/high-self-awareness condition, only a small minority agreed with this. This shows that it is not unreasonable to expect that in the context of high stakes personnel selection, faking good, a form of moral hypocrisy, can be greatly reduced by following a procedure that mimics the procedures that Batson et al. (1997) followed in their experiments (Ellingson et al., 2012; Fan et al., 2012). In recent years, a number of other researchers, including Mazar, Amir, and Ariely (2008) and Shu, Gino, and Bazerman (2011) have expanded on the work of Batson and colleagues and have found similar results.

The importance of moral hypocrisy in faking good is of relevance when the validity of a personality measure is being discussed (Fahey, 2017). It should be borne in mind that aggregated anonymous personality assessments are used for the purposes of establishing the concurrent and/or predictive criterion-related validity of the Big Five dimensions of personality. As mentioned earlier, criterionrelated validation studies usually use job incumbents for their research. This differs with respect to the aspect of construct validity of the same Big Five measures that applies when they are used for the purposes of selecting the 'winner' in high stake job selection situations (Embretson, 1983; Messick, 1995; Sackett, 2012). This aspect of construct validity is

described by Messick as the ‘consequential’ aspect. There is an economic payoff to be gained in the latter situation – either a promotion with higher status and remuneration, a change of employer to a more putatively desirable one, entry into the workforce, etc. All of these desired outcomes for the applicant have a potential payoff attached that is frequently monetary.

It is arguable that the upper limit of 40% from Griffith and Converse’s research is supported by the research on moral hypocrisy (Mazar et al., 2008; Shu et al., 2011). The extant research has shown that lying, cheating, or moral disengagement are heterogeneous phenomena that are situationally dependent (Figure 1). In any given situation where ambiguity is present, moral hypocrisy can occur even though some individuals don’t lie or cheat at all, while some others do lie or cheat to the maximum extent possible, and the remainder may lie or cheat to a smaller extent. Executive selection is a form of high stakes selection in which the outcome is frequently that of selecting a preferred candidate from a short list or subset of candidates. In essence, the selection decision rests on a rank ordering, formal or otherwise, of the short-listed candidates. If faking good occurs with some participants in spite of the effectiveness of procedural precautions taken to prevent it, and if it can be measured, the construct validity of the personality measures can still be questioned. This is because of the consequential aspect (Messick, 1995). Even though the success criteria for these types of positions can be difficult to define (Highhouse, 1998; 2002), if the selection criterion or criteria includes personality dimensions then the rank order of candidates can easily change. If even one of the candidates deliberately engages in faking good, the rank order can change when compared to a ranking based on all of the candidates’ true scores on these dimensions (Komar, Brown, Komar, and Robie, 2008; Rosse, Stecher, Miller, and Levin, 1998). The consequences of a failure to achieve the objective of accuracy in personality measurement in high stakes employee selection contexts, due to moral hypocrisy in the form of faking good, can be severe in situations such as high stakes selection contexts because of rank order effects. A disproportionate likelihood of those who fake good being selected, which can easily arise from unfairness in testing, has been found consistently in research examining the effect of faking on the rank-order of those selected (Ellingson et al., 2001; Hough, 1998; Komar et al., 2008).

Objective self-awareness

For objective self-awareness to occur, an individual’s attention has to be directed inward, and the individual’s consciousness must then be focused on himself or herself. Batson et al. (1999) found that by manipulating objective self-awareness it was possible to eliminate moral hypocrisy. The coin toss condition in the Batson et al. (1997, 1999) series of experiments allowed for ambiguity in that participants were able to pretend that the task assignment decision depended on the outcome of a coin toss. All participants had to do in this experiment was to say that they had used the coin toss outcome, which was not independently verified, in making their choice. This ambiguity allowed participants to appear to behave in a moral manner while not being prepared to pay the cost of so doing. The result of the elimination of the coin toss

option resulted in participants in the low-standard-salience/high-self-awareness condition responding very differently to those in the high-standard-salience/high-self-awareness condition. In the latter condition, the majority of participants agreed that the most moral way to assign the tasks was to give the positive consequences task to the other participant, whereas in the low-standard-salience/high-self-awareness condition only a small minority agreed with this. The elimination of the coin toss option removed ambiguity from the experiment which in turn reduced the incidence of moral hypocrisy.

This finding shows that it is not unreasonable to expect that in the context of applied high stakes personnel selection, faking good, a form of moral hypocrisy, can be greatly reduced by following a procedure that mimics the procedures that Batson et al. followed in their experiments. Therefore, the importance of the Batson et al. (1997) and Batson et al. (1999) experiments, lies primarily in the fact that their research findings arguably support the use of a procedural measure that makes moral standards salient for the participants. The statement *“Most participants feel that giving both people an equal chance – by, for example, flipping a coin – is the fairest way to assign themselves and the other participant to the tasks”* was used in the Batson et al. (1997) research to make moral standards salient for participants. In addition, the Batson et al. (1999) experiments arguably showed that a combination of making moral standards salient together with heightened self-awareness eliminated moral hypocrisy. In a later series of experiments, moral hypocrisy in the form of dishonesty was eliminated when the experimenter’s objective scoring of the answers to questions on a test was compared with the participant’s self-scoring of the answers to the test questions (Mazar et al., 2008).

Duval and Wicklund’s theory of self-awareness (Duval and Lalwani, 1999) posits that focussing one’s attention on the self induces a state of objective self-awareness and this leads to an awareness of the discrepancies between the ideal and actual self (Higgins, 1987). For objective self-awareness to manifest itself, the individual engages in introspection and self-evaluation while, at same time, ignoring endogenous environmental factors (Silvia and Duval, 2001). Self-awareness can be experimentally induced by exposing participants to self-focusing stimuli (Morin, 2011). The important aspect of ‘objective self-awareness’ theory in understanding the phenomenon of faking good is the degree to which a person’s attention is focused upon a salient within-self discrepancy (e.g. perceived self-evaluated discrepancy between actual and ideal or ought self in high stakes personality assessment). Provided that attention cannot be directed elsewhere, and not on moral values or standards because of low saliency, there will be efforts to reduce that discrepancy between the actual and ideal or ought self by faking good (Pryor, Gibbons, Wicklund, Fazio, and Hood, 1977). An individual completing a self-report personality measure is focussed on the self, by definition. Based on Batson et al.’s (1999) research, this focus on, and real time awareness of, the discrepancies between the actual and ideal self in a setting such as that of a high

stakes selection situation was shown to be conducive to a state of moral hypocrisy among participants in the a low moral standards saliency context .

The low-standard-salience/high-self-awareness condition is commonplace in life, according to Batson et al. (1999), a circumstance they described as 'frightening'. Their concern arises from the fact that people are frequently asked to make moral decisions in circumstances in which the relevant moral standards are not stated in advance, or when others are not watching, or when their actions are not challenged, or when they do not actually feel accountable for their actions, and so on. Therefore, according to Batson et al. (1999), many everyday moral decisions occur in low-standard-salience/high-self-awareness situations. High stakes employee selection contexts would be a good example of such moral decision making situations. This confirms the relevance and importance of the Batson, et al., experimental findings to the issue of applicant faking good, (1997, 1999). Individuals who fake good, when completing self-report personality measures in high stakes selection situations, could and probably would feel that they acted morally if questioned after completing the questionnaire, even though they actually acted in a manner that served their self-interest. Individuals who are candidates for jobs are acting from a self-interest perspective. They are seeking gains such as better employment and career opportunities, increased income, or some other such long and short term economic benefit. In addition, they are in competition with others for the positions on offer. To at least minimise moral hypocrisy in high stakes selection contexts the assessment situation should be one that provides for both high self-awareness and high moral salience.

There have been a number of studies by other researchers into the question of moral hypocrisy and objective self-awareness (Mazar, Amir, and Ariely, 2008; Shu, Gino, and Bazerman, 2011; Shu, Mazar, Gino, Ariely, and Bazerman, 2012). Mazar, et al. (2008) investigated the extent to which people who think highly of themselves in terms of honesty make use of various mechanisms that allow them to engage in dishonest behaviour while retaining positive views of themselves. Even though participants knew that they were over-claiming their actions it did not affect their self-concept in terms of honesty. By making moral codes salient, cheating was eliminated. Shu et al. (2011) found that having participants read an honour code reduced cheating by half in the Mazar, et al., (2008) experimental design. When participants read and signed the honour code, cheating was eliminated. Behavioural economists have also investigated lying and honesty in a range of experimental settings. Fischbacher and Föllmi-Heusi (2013) developed an experimental design that makes it possible to detect lies when participants face no threat of being caught individually. Their research showed that some participants lied to the fullest extent possible, while some were fully honest. Other participants also lied, but not to the maximum possible extent (Fischbacher and Heusi, Pruckner and Sausgruber, 2013). This research also shows that individuals cheat and lie in permissive situations where there is an opportunity for self-interest gain, just as the Batson et al. (1997, 1999) experiments demonstrated. Once people begin to behave dishonestly by cheating, they disengage morally. On the other hand, it is relatively easy to prevent this moral disengagement and moral hypocrisy by simple

environmental nudges. However, even with assessment conditions of high self-awareness and high moral salience, applicant faking good may still occur. For this reason the assessment procedures need to include a measure that is capable of detecting faking good. Typically, this is done through the use of impression management measures that are sometimes referred to as lie scales.

Lie and related scales

Lie scales are self-report measures that are sometimes used to try to detect and measure socially desirable responding in personality assessments. According to MacCann et al. (2012), these scales are frequently used in applied settings such as personality assessments. The construct validity of these measures has been hotly debated for many years (Block, 2010; Burns and Christiansen, 2011; Connelly and Chang, 2016; Costa and McCrae, 1992; Dilchert and Ones, 2012; MacCann, et al., 2012; Paulhus, 1984). In fact, the use of lie scales of any form to detect faking in self-report measures has been questioned by some researchers, some of whom even go so far as to recommend against using lie scales as a method for detecting faking good (MacCann et al., 2012). There are two categories of such measures in use – unidimensional lie scales which assume that there is a single latent factor underlying the lie scale, and scales based on two dimensions (Paulhus, 1984). The unidimensional scales that are in use can be either stand-alone measures, or, they may be embedded in the personality measure.

In 1930, Hartshorne and May developed a lie scale to detect and help deal with socially desirable responding. High scores on the lie scale were assumed to be indicative of a dishonest character (Paulhus, 2002). Later on, in clinical settings, the widely used omnibus Minnesota Multiphasic Inventory (MMPI) included an embedded socially desirable responding scale, the MMPI Lie Scale, designed to identify individuals deliberately dissembling their clinical symptoms (Hathaway and McKinler, 1989). The Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPQ) also contained a lie scale (Eysenck, 1968). Additionally, two widely used stand-alone socially desirable responding detection scales are also in use (Paulhus, 2002), namely, the Marlowe Crowne SD Scale (MCSD) and the Edwards SD Scale (ESD). These latter two measures contained items claiming improbable virtues and denying common human frailties. The items used in these measures are those with self-descriptions that were not just positive, but improbably positive. Typical items include the following - “I always try to practice what I preach” from the MCSD, and “No one cares much what happens to you” from the ESD (Shaver, Brennan, Robinson, Shaver, and Wrightsman, 1991). A number of the omnibus personality measures in use today such as for example Eysenck’s EPQ and the 16PF (Conn and Rieke, 1994) have the lie scale embedded in the personality measure (Ellingson et al., 2001). These embedded measures have been the most widely employed applied technique to deal with applicant faking (Barrick and Mount,

1996; Holden, 2008; Hough, 1998; Hough, Ones, and Viswesvaran, 1998; Kurtz, Tarquini, and Lobst, 2008).

It is claimed that the scores on these measures have been used by some researchers and practitioners to partial out the variance in personality responses associated with faking in an attempt to obtain more accurate estimates of the construct validity of personality tests (Smith and Ellingson, 2002). The scores on the personality measure are adjusted using the lie scale scores (Dilchert and Ones, 2012). However, this approach has little empirical support as a valid technique for eliminating common method variance (CMV) due to faking (Dilchert and Ones, 2012; MacCann et al., 2012). Moreover, the unidimensional nature of lie scales was questioned by a number of researchers as far back as the 1960's, which led to Paulhus examining the factor structure of the lie scales in use (Paulhus, 2002).

The factor analysis studies of Paulhus in the 1980's of the various socially desirable responding measures that were in use at that time found that there were two, rather than one, socially desirable responding factors. These he referred to as self-deception enhancement and impression management, respectively (Paulhus, 1998). Self-deceptive enhancement (SDE) refers to an unconscious positive bias in item responses. It might occur when individuals complete the self-report measures with the aim of protecting positive self-esteem. In contrast, impression management (IM) refers to the conscious dissimulation of item responses with the aim of making a favourable impression on others (Paulhus, 2002). Sackett's (2012) multiple component analysis of systematic variance in responding to items in a self-report measure is consistent with this latent two factor structure of socially desirable responding of Paulhus (1984). Sackett (2012) differentiated between what he termed 'erroneous self-perception' and 'situationally specific intention' (p. 331) distortion. The former is an automatic response mode whereas the latter is a controlled response mode. In the automatic response mode the test taker has a tendency to automatically respond to items in terms of her or his best self. Faking good is deliberate (Griffith and Converse, 2012) and is related to IM unlike SDE, whereas item response distortion arising from SDE is not deliberate (Ellingson, 2012; Lönnqvist, Irlenbusch, and Walkowitz, 2014).

Moral hypocrites value morality and can firmly believe that they should not put their own rights and interests ahead of the parallel rights and interests of others (Mazar et al., 2008). Yet, in spite of this, they can act in ways that seem to show a blatant disregard for the moral principles they hold dear (Batson et al., 1997). Faking good is a response set to questions in a self-report personality measure that is intended to provide a false portrayal of the self that helps the individual achieve personal goals and, as such, is a form of moral hypocrisy (Ziegler et al., 2012). Faking good and impression management are forms of socially desirable responding that are not always easy to detect. This form of social desirability responding is a prominent concern in applied, high-stakes, assessments that use personality traits (Fahey, 2017). Some of the inferences made based on an individual candidate's scores on a personality test may still not be valid in spite of measures used in the assessment process to prevent

faking good, a manifestation of moral hypocrisy, by job candidates from occurring. Lie scales can be a useful tool in identifying such ‘fakers’, provided they are accurate and valid measures (Connelly and Chang, 2017). Connelly and Chang emphasised that understanding and measuring the negative influence of exaggerated responding should remain a focal concern for personality and applied psychologists.

As a result of his research, Paulhus (1984, 1998) developed a forty item measure – the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR) - to measure the two factors of socially desirable responding. All of the forty items are affirmation statements, and there are equal numbers of attribution and denial items for each of the two 20-item sub scales measuring Self-Deceptive Enhancement (SDE) and Impression Management (IM). The BIDR is the most widely used standalone socially desirable responding measure in both research and applied settings (Ellingson, Heggstad, and Makarius, 2012). The IM scale of the BIDR has been widely used in the study of the effect of faking good on personality measures in occupational settings (Ellingson et al., 2012; Fan et al. 2012). This scale has also been used, as a method for measuring impression management, in research into the hierarchical structure of personality (DeYoung, Peterson, and Higgins, 2002; Ellingson, 2012; Fan et al., 2012).

Arguably, Paulhus’s (1984) distinction between the two dimensions of socially desirable responding is the more construct valid measure of impression management because of the volitional nature of IM compared with SDE. The other measures of socially desirable responding, such as the unidimensional lie scales, do not distinguish between these two dimensions, (Lönqvist et al., 2014; Sackett, 2012). The findings of Lönqvist et al. (2014) support the contention that the BIDR-IM scale does indeed assess the tendency to consciously, rather than subconsciously, give inflated self-descriptions to an audience. The extant research would also suggest that the BIDR-IM scale measures faking good because it is a form of moral hypocrisy manifested as intentional distortion similar to that observed in the research studies of Mazar, Amir, and Ariely (2008), and those of Shu, Gino, and Bazerman (2011).

Item transparency in impression management measures

Procedural controls, according to Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff (2012), need to be in place in order to deal with the problem of item transparency, which can lead to faking good because of the clear-cut nature of the items being grouped together. The items in the BIDR-IM scale are, deliberately, both overt and clear cut. The research findings, reviewed earlier, concerning moral hypocrisy would suggest that this effect can also be manifested in impression management measures in the context of the assessments of participants in high stakes selection contexts. This presents a construct validity concern (Embretson, 2007) in using impression management measures in high stakes selection situations – presenting the twenty items together as a group to job applicants in order to detect ‘fakers’ in selection situations is a concern arising from the overt and clear-cut nature of the items in the self-report measures (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Based on the research of McFarland, Ryan and Ellis (2002),

into the effect of random item placement compared to item grouping in self-report questionnaires, job applicants are likely to engage in faking good. It is argued that they would be likely to recognize the objective of the IM items if they were presented as a single group of 20 items, as is the case with the BIDR measure. The psychometric properties of the personality measure used by McFarland et al. (2002) were found to be better when the items that measure the same construct were randomly distributed throughout the test. This suggests that, because the BIDR-IM scale is a self-report measure, it too would be subject to CMV resulting from socially desirable responding in the same manner, as self-report measures personality is prone to in high stakes selection contexts. The more readily the construct being assessed can be identified, from a reading of the items, the more likely it is for socially desirable responding to occur (McFarland et al., 2002). To deal with these concerns, rather than grouping them together, the 20 IM items could be randomly included in a 'bespoke' questionnaire containing distractor items. The distractor items selected should not be related to impression management. Rosse, Stecher, Miller, and Levin (1998) used a similar approach when using the IM scale of the BIDR in their research. This bespoke nature of the modified BIDR-IM scale, or similar measures, will arguably help to minimise a socially desirable responding effect from contaminating the accuracy of the IM measure used. The research reviewed suggests that the objective of minimising faking good in high stakes personality assessments can be achieved by making moral standards salient in the assessment procedure combined with the inherent self-awareness effect that comes from completing a self-report measure. In addition, the detection of job applicants who still fake good can be achieved by using an impression management measure that does not group the items in the measure together, as a procedural measure for dealing with the problem of item transparency.

Conclusion

The extant research reviewed dealing with the use of personality measures in the assessment of job applicants, in high stakes contexts, clearly indicates that faking good on personality measures is a real problem when it comes to the applied context of high stakes employee selection. Resolving this issue is of major practical importance in such a context. According to Drasgow, Stark, Chernyshenko, Nye, Hulin, and White (2012, p. 2) "intentional distortion can severely undermine the utility of measures for personnel selection". The use of procedural controls in personality assessments, which make moral standards salient as well as bringing about a state of objective self-awareness, will act to prevent moral hypocrisy in a high stakes employee selection setting. Thus, it should be possible to minimise its occurrence, thereby leading to more accurate personality assessments of job candidates and better employee selection outcomes, particularly in high stakes contexts. However, even with procedural precautions, it will still be necessary to use an impression management measure, similar to the bespoke measure described earlier. This approach should help to ensure that those who persist in faking good, in spite of the procedural measures taken to eliminate moral hypocrisy, are detected.

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An Investigation of the Differences that Exist between Generations in Relation to Supporting Dark Tourism in Northern Ireland

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Abstract

In dark tourism research there is a scarcity of literature that discusses Northern Ireland as a dark tourism destination. This research study was undertaken to investigate the difference in the level of support for dark tourism in Northern Ireland between the generations who lived through the Troubles and those who heard about them. This study employed a qualitative research method based on the completion of focus groups consisting of Protestants and Catholics from different generations. This allowed the authors to gather the views of different Northern Ireland residents' groups. The research found that the views of the younger generation (aged 18-35) and the middle-aged generation (36-55) are similar. These generations believe that the Troubles should be utilised for the purpose of dark tourism as this will benefit Northern Ireland financially and socially. In contrast, the older generation (aged 56-75+) believes that the Troubles are too recent to be exploited for dark tourism development. This is in line with the literature on the topic that was consulted as part of this research.

Keywords: Dark tourism; Northern Ireland; Different generations; Viewpoints; The Troubles

Introduction

Dark tourism involves travel to sites associated with death, disaster and destruction (Sharpley and Stone, 2009). Although the phenomenon has historic roots, i.e. battlefields and cemeteries have been drawing in tourists for years, dark tourism is a relatively modern concept in scholarly literature (Timothy and Boyd, 2002; Cohen, 2011). Sharpley (2005) states that 'dark tourism literature remains eclectic and theoretically fragile, raising more questions than it answers' (p.216). In the context of

Northern Ireland, dark tourism refers to the thirty years of civil unrest colloquially termed the 'Troubles'. Due to the growth in the number of tourists visiting dark sites (Seaton, 2009), and the growth of academic interest, the authors decided to undertake research on dark tourism in Northern Ireland. A consistent theme that arises within dark tourism literature is that of tourist motivations for visiting a dark tourism site. Lennon and Foley (2000) suggest several main motivators that drive dark tourists, namely remembrance, education or entertainment. In Northern Ireland, visitors are inspired to visit sites of bombings, tragedies, and political memorabilia such as Loyalist and Republican wall murals, which are all categorised as dark tourism. However, there are those who oppose dark tourism; Strange and Kempa (2003) explain how the growth of dark tourism and the curious connection between the sad and the bad has generated frequent ethical debates about mixing leisure with tragedy (Rojek, 1993; Tunbridge and Ashworth, 1996). As the Troubles ended within the last twenty years, some residents of Northern Ireland believe that it is too soon to use these sites to boost dark tourism. Thus, the central aim of this research study was to investigate the difference in the level of support for dark tourism in Northern Ireland between the generations who lived through the Troubles and those who heard about them. To achieve this aim, three objectives were identified: firstly, to investigate the views on dark tourism held by the generations who grew up experiencing the Troubles; secondly, to investigate the views on dark tourism of the younger generation, who grew up in the aftermath of the Troubles; and lastly, to explore how these views can impact on the development of dark tourism in Northern Ireland..

Literature Review

Sites associated with death and disasters are becoming a prevalent aspect in contemporary tourism. Tourists can visit sites associated with genocide such as Auschwitz, natural disasters such as New Orleans (after hurricane Katrina), and mass deaths such as Ground Zero in New York City (Stone, 2006). Visiting sites associated with death has become known as 'dark tourism'. Dark tourism can be difficult to define as it covers a wide spectrum of sites; the phenomenon has historical roots; however, the literature on the topic is still relatively new and scarce (White and Frew, 2013). Preece and Price (2005) share this view and explain how 'dark tourism is a relatively new area of research, unrecognized by scholars until the mid-1990's, and many aspects of dark tourism still require further investigation to reveal the intricacies of the phenomenon' (p.191). Various scholarly definitions of dark tourism are available; Stone (2006) states that dark tourism involves travelling to sites associated with 'death, suffering or the seemingly macabre' (p.146). Furthermore, Tarlow (2005) emphasises that dark tourism sites are places where a tragedy or historically noteworthy death has occurred, which continue to influence our lives. Importantly, a main core theme of dark tourism is travelling to sites associated with death.

Dark tourism has seen considerable growth in the last two decades with increased visitor numbers to dark sites and increased demand for this tourism niche (Seaton, 2009). Various aspects may have facilitated this growth. The media transmits images

of disasters throughout the world almost as they happen, this way creating a bond with viewers, who then want to travel to these sites as they feel a connection to the event (Stone, 2010). The movement away from the typical sun, sea and sand holidays towards experiential tourism is another reason for the increased interest in dark tourism. *Despite being a niche activity, dark travel attracts tourists, and in some destinations these dark sites are the sole purpose of one's visit.* Thus, capitalising on dark tourism can increase tourist numbers.

Northern Ireland is a destination with a turbulent past and, as a result, has many potential dark tourism sites. These sites are located throughout the Province as some regions suffered more than others (Hewstone *et al.*, 2004). The Troubles is the colloquial term for the thirty-year turbulent period that started in the late 1960s and ended in 1998 with the signing of the Belfast Good Friday Agreement. The conflict between the Catholic/Nationalists and the Protestant/Unionists of Northern Ireland cost almost 3,700 lives and caused a severe divide in the country. This segregation continues to staunch the peace process. Segregation sustains conflict by creating an environment of suspicion and ignorance (Gallagher, 1995; Cairns and Hewstone, 2002; Hewstone *et al.*, 2004). The police force remained at the forefront of the conflict, attempting to enforce the British law; consequently, they became a major target for the IRA. The police force, known as the Royal Ulster Constabulary (RUC) was viewed as a 'Loyalist paramilitary police force' by the Nationalist paramilitaries (Feldman, 1991, p.277).

Since 1998 there have been minimal, sporadic incidents of conflict, however as the Troubles are so recent, there is a lot of controversy around the idea of capitalising on Northern Ireland's past for financial gain (McDowell, 2008). Tarlow (2005) explains how dark tourism is an economic generator, which may transform past tragedies into economic productivity. Causevic and Lynch (2008) explain how Northern Ireland has received relatively little attention by scholars so far in terms of dark tourism research. Apart from a small niche market, dark tourism is not a main motivator for visiting Northern Ireland, yet once in the country, most tourists will pay a visit to dark tourism sites. Boyd (2000) emphasises this and states that there will always be a market for visitors who want to see such landmarks that reflect a turbulent past, so therefore Northern Ireland would do well to consider the importance of maintaining certain symbols, icons, buildings, and places to reflect and commemorate the past. When understanding dark tourism, it is important to look at tourists' motivations for visiting dark sites.

Motivations for Visiting Dark Tourism Sites

As literature about dark tourism increases, scholars are trying to understand the motivations behind travelling to dark tourism sites. Seaton (1999) provides categories related to dark tourism, based on one's motivations. These include travelling to watch death, travelling to sites after death has occurred, travelling to internment sites and memorials, and finally travelling to synthetic sites at which evidence of the death or disaster has been collected and displayed. Lennon and Foley (2000) state that tourists

travel to dark sites for three main motivations: remembrance, education or entertainment.

Visiting dark tourism sites for remembrance allows tourists to feel connected to a death or disaster and it is an opportunity to respect the dead. By creating a physical memorial where tourists can visit, and remember the death or disaster, such as the reflection pools in Washington D.C., this form of dark tourism allows tourists to feel connected to the past. Memorials are built to appeal to, not only the current generation, but future generations as well; the themes and architecture have to appeal to a wide audience whilst being sympathetic and respectful. Another example of visiting dark tourism sites for remembrance is when tourists visit graveyards or internment sites, such as Arlington Graveyard in Washington D.C. When researching motivations for dark tourism, it is important to acknowledge that these motivations constantly overlap depending on the dark tourism site. For example, tourists most likely visit St. Louis Graveyard in New Orleans for remembrance, but some may visit for religious motivations, architectural reasons or educational reasons.

Education is a strong motivator for visiting a dark tourism site; humans have a natural curiosity in death and disaster. Stone and Sharpley (2008) share this view and explain that death is an 'essential feature of the human condition, requiring individuals to develop a mechanism to cope with their ultimate demise' (p. 579). Educating oneself through visiting the various morbid and macabre sites reduces some of the fears of death. Additionally, most dark tourism sites help educate the current generations about historic events, and in a way, prevent these tragedies from reoccurring. For example, the Titanic Museum in Belfast shows the series of mistakes and incidents which led to the Titanic being such a disaster, from the severely low number of lifeboats to ignoring the iceberg warnings. Moreover, numerous international visitors as well as students studying Politics and Peace and Reconciliation Studies take 'living history' taxi and walking tours around the murals of Belfast and Derry/Londonderry to learn about the Troubles as a result of having heard about the Province's civil conflict on the news for many years (Simone-Charteris and Boyd, 2010). Stone and Sharpley (2008), however, explain that at most sites, the boundaries between the educational message and the commercialisation of the sites has become increasingly blurred. Many dark tourism sites are criticised as they may be considered insensitive towards tragedies.

Entertainment is another main motivator identified by Lennon and Foley (2000); some visitors see the visit to a dark site as a leisure activity. Gaols and prisons are an increasingly popular subcategory of dark tourism. For instance, visitors to Belfast can take guided tours of Crumlin Road Gaol; parts of which are very light-hearted and entertaining with stories about famous prisoners and their escape attempts. Other visitors visit dark sites to satisfy their curiosity. Although this is not strictly for their entertainment, the visit is inspired by some fascination towards a tragic event. The media play an important role in this regard, as they thrive when publicising disasters. Lennon and Foley (2000) suggest that one main example of the media publicising disaster tourism is the sinking of the Titanic, when news companies worldwide filmed survivors landing in the USA, and the stories of survivors were wired around the world.

In addition, on 9/11, news of the terror attacks dominated homes worldwide and most watched live as the towers collapsed. By streaming these stories into the homes of consumers, the media allow them to feel connected to the events; this connection leads to curiosity and tourists visiting dark tourism sites to satisfy their fascination.

It is difficult to pinpoint the motivations of tourists visiting dark sites, because as mentioned before, these motivations tend to overlap and intertwine. Tourists may be visiting these sites for reasons other than indulging in a leisure activity. It is unrealistic to assume that classifying the various motivations is simple (Wight, 2006).

Opposition to Dark Tourism

The overriding theme in dark tourism is the close association with death. As death is a sensitive topic, dark tourism can be controversial and there are numerous moral and ethical predicaments that arise with regard to exploiting tragic history for tourism (Lennon, 2005; Stone, 2007; Sharpley and Stone, 2009). Consequently, there are various factors, which generate a resistance in individuals to dark tourism. These include commercialisation, ethical issues and the tragic event being too recent. Some authors in particular, are strongly opposed to dark tourism; Avis (2007, cited in Sharpley and Stone, 2009, p.57), for example, states that governments need to abolish this 'sick kind of tourism' fearing that wars and misery may be created 'for potential dark tourist benefits'.

As previously mentioned, the media plays a huge role when it comes to dark tourism as it contributes to the popularization of sites; this could result in over-commercialisation of dark tourism sites and these sites becoming a spectacle. If large amounts of grieving tourists arrive to a dark site turning death into entertainment, this could be considered unethical and insincere. West (2004) dismisses the emotional hysteria of many tourists as manufactured emotions. The media appeals to these narcissistic types of tourists by creating sensational exposés around dubiously verified stories; this creates a moral frenzy around dark tourism (Seaton and Lennon, 2004). In short, the media creates mass hysteria around a dark tourism site and tourists attach themselves to these sites, whether they have a real connection to them or not. These sites are then turned into commercialised tourist attractions, which could be considered unethical. Furthermore, Rojek (1993) coined the term 'black spots' when referring to the commercial aspects of dark tourism, and stated that these are 'developments of grave sites and sites where celebrities or large numbers of people have met with sudden and violent deaths' (p.85). This is detrimental to dark tourism, as the sites are no longer a place of remembrance and are now a place where all moral respect has been disregarded due to the commercialisation of this site.

Several studies have suggested that dark tourism sites can provide significant and memorable experiences, however, at the same time, new anxieties and ethical dilemmas can arise (Ashworth and Hartmann, 2005; Wilson, 2008; Sharpley and Stone, 2009). Therefore, it is important to know the extent to which it is acceptable to market a tragedy (Kang *et al.*, 2012). Some believe that in certain cases the death or tragedy may be too recent to use for dark tourism purposes. This may be the most

prominent issue when looking at dark tourism in Northern Ireland. There is a significant reluctance among the public sector to market Northern Ireland as a hub for dark tourism sites (Simone-Charteris and Boyd, 2011). Many believe that as the Troubles are still relatively recent, using sites for dark tourism purposes intensifies sectarianism and generates division among the communities (Crooke, 2001). However, dark tourism within Northern Ireland can be considered as an approach to remember the past whilst educating the future generations.

Generational differences

Having considered the ethical issues surrounding dark tourism and the different motivations that inspire visitors to visit dark sites, it is important to consider whether the predisposition and perceptions of people change from generation to generation. Wight (2006) explains that different groups of tourists can be identified when looking at dark tourism sites: the first group are 'survivors'; these individuals have raw emotions towards the dark tourism sites as their memories are vivid and undiluted. The older generations in Northern Ireland have lived through the entire thirty-year period of the Troubles; Crooke (2001) explains how the Troubles are undoubtedly a major part of Northern Irish history, and that some generations have known nothing else. It is unlikely to find an individual in this age range who was not directly or indirectly affected by the turmoil, mostly through the loss of a family member or friend (Cairns and Darby, 1998; Hewstone *et al.*, 2004). Consequently, not enough time may have passed for the older generations to accept the development of dark tourism sites. If these generations visit dark tourism sites, their main motivations will be remembrance and memorialisation.

In contrast, the second group identified by Wight (2006) who the author refers to as 'leisure' tourists, is represented by the younger generations in Northern Ireland; they grew up in the aftermath of the Troubles and therefore may be more accepting of the development of dark tourism. They will most likely see dark tourism sites as an educational opportunity, and an opportunity for political reflection, along with other war and conflict sites (Strange and Kempa, 2003). Smith (1998) explains that war and conflict are so deeply embedded in human memory that memorabilia of warfare creates the largest category of tourist attraction in the world. Furthermore, Stone (2010) suggests that dark sites offer the opportunity to document history and provide political interpretations of past events.

For years the Troubles have been an emotive topic in a sensitive environment for many residents of Northern Ireland and, as the past is an intimate part of the present, this sensitivity remains today (Brewer, 1990; Tam *et al.*, 2007) which only intensifies the curiosity of the younger generations. Stone (2010) believes that it is the different kinds of memory that generations have in relation to dark tourism that are important. First generation memory refers to the memory of those who witnessed and experienced events and second-generation memories are the memories passed down from one's parents. Walter (2009) agrees with Stone's (2010) view and adds that those who lived through a tragic event are reliving their memories by visiting dark tourism sites. It is the next generation, those who did not live through the event, who create

second hand remembrance. For these generations visiting dark tourism sites is less about remembrance, and more about educating themselves about history (Walter, 2009). Developing dark tourism sites to educate future generations can act as a reminder of the conflict and prevent the Troubles reoccurring. Bloomfield (1998) shares this view and states that 'above all, we have to persuade our children how costly and counter-productive it would be to pursue the animosities of the past' (p.23).

As concerns the Troubles in Northern Ireland, those who lived through the conflict have first generation memories. The generations who only heard about the Troubles from their parents have second hand memories and this will also be the case for future generations. It follows that those who experienced the Troubles might not be ready for dark tourism sites to be developed in Northern Ireland as the issue is still too sensitive for them. Enright's (1991) theory, however, states that the older the generation is, the more likely they are to forgive and move forward (Hewstone *et al.*, 2004). There is minimal scholarly literature on the different views of dark tourism based on generational differences and dark tourism in Northern Ireland, and the Troubles remain a delicate subject for many individuals.

Rationale

The development of dark tourism generates much debate and remains a controversial subject, with many being opposed to the increase in the phenomenon stating that dark tourism or 'grief tourism' (Trotta, 2006, cited in White and Frew, 2013, p. 63) is narcissistic and a way for tourists to display false emotions. Other scholars suggest that dark tourism is insensitive and unethical as dark tourism sites may be developed too soon after the events occur. This may be the case in Northern Ireland and is the reason why the authors undertook a study to assess the views on dark tourism held by different generations in the Province and examine how these views may affect the growth of dark tourism.

Method Section

Sample and procedure

For this study, the researchers conducted focus group research with six groups, each comprising six people ($n = 6$); with a total of thirty-six participants ($n = 36$). The focus groups were religion and age balanced (see Table 1). Participants were recruited from amongst the university population at Ulster University. An internal electronic information and sign-up sheet was distributed amongst staff and students at the university to recruit participants and explain the purpose of the research.

Table 1: Breakdown of focus groups by religious identity and age

Religious group	Age	Generation type
Protestants	18–35	Young
Protestants	36–55	Middle-Aged
Protestants	56–75+	Older
Catholics	18–35	Young
Catholics	36–55	Middle-Aged
Catholics	56–75+	Older

Each focus group took place within an interview room, where participants could interact without distraction. The authors then gave a series of open-ended questions and allowed the focus group participants to discuss. The focus groups discussions were recorded and transcribed verbatim, in preparation for valid interpretation.

Focus group questions

Questions were formulated to realize the aims and objectives of the research. These questions covered participants' experiences with the Troubles, their understanding of dark tourism and their attitudes towards dark tourism in the context of Northern Ireland.

Experiences with the Troubles: Participants were asked to discuss several questions. Firstly, they were asked about their 'experiences of the Troubles' and if they thought 'that the Troubles were a thing of the past'.

Understanding dark tourism: After they were posed with the question 'Have you ever heard of dark tourism?' Post response, participants were provided with a definition of dark tourism along with an example of this form of niche tourism within the context of Northern Ireland. At this point, all participants would have an understanding of the term and its meaning within a Northern Ireland context.

Attitudes towards dark tourism in Northern Ireland: Several questions were asked to participants to ascertain their attitudes, feelings and opinions around dark tourism in Northern Ireland. Questions such as 'what is your view on the tours that visitors can take of the Maze prison or of the political tours of the Shankill and Falls Roads?', 'In your opinion, is it too soon to use the Troubles to attract dark tourists?' and 'Do you think that once more time has passed by, it will be more acceptable to promote dark tourism?' were asked to participants. Further questions were posed to participants to understand their views regarding whether dark tourism could disrupt the peace process or facilitate healing between Catholic and Protestant communities. Lastly, participants were asked if 'dark tourism benefits the economy and, therefore, the Northern Irish people.'

Results and Discussion

The participants' experiences of the Troubles

The first question was aimed at understanding how the Troubles affected the individuals in the focus groups, and whether belonging to a specific generation and religious background affected the participants' experiences. Most participants from the focus groups comprising of the younger generation, both Protestant and Catholic, stated that they had very little experience of the Troubles themselves. For example, one participant stated the following: 'I feel I have no experience of the Troubles, it was before my time...' (Protestant, 18–35). Some, however, stated that they had some experience of the conflict as illustrated by the following participant:

'I haven't really experienced the Troubles, there has been some bother in the likes of my town, but I think that's not really, that's more to gain a reaction than trying to start something again' (Catholic, 18-35).

The Troubles refer to a thirty-year time frame from the late 1960s to 1998, when the Belfast Good Friday Agreement was signed (McDowell, 2008). When the Agreement was signed, some participants of the younger generation were only four years old, so it is not surprising that they did not remember the Troubles very well and are less affected by them. The chronological distance between the younger generation, both Protestant and Catholic, and the Troubles might affect their predisposition towards dark tourism. If the participants had experienced traumatic events first-hand, their attitudes towards the dark history of Northern Ireland might have been more negative.

In contrast, the middle-aged participants affirmed that their lives were impacted by the conflict, either directly or indirectly. Some Protestant interviewees said that they worked in association with the police force or belonged to the force. For instance, a participant said:

'I was a member of the security forces and served in the most bombed police station in Europe for seven years' (Protestant, 36–55).

One participant's brother was a victim of an attack. This participant stated:

'I have a brother who was blown up by the IRA... he still to this day has problems from it' (Protestant, 36–55).

It is unsurprising that the participants involved in the police force were more affected by the Troubles. In his studies, Feldman discusses the massive police involvement during the Troubles, explaining that they were a major target for the IRA. The Royal Ulster Constabulary (RUC) at the time was viewed as a 'Loyalist paramilitary police force' (Feldman, 1991, p. 277) and therefore was a major part of the turmoil. Other middle-aged participants, however, were not impacted directly by the conflict; they remember the Troubles, the attacks, the police, and Ulster Defence Regiment's (UDR)

searches, however, they stated that the conflict was not a key part of their lives. One participant stated:

'I remember the odd bomb, bomb in Tempo police station, bomb in Fivemiletown, heard them but never had anything to do with us' (Catholic 36-55).

In respect to the older generation, they all stated that, in one way or another, they were impacted directly by the Troubles. Many focus group participants shared stories outlining their experience of the Troubles, most of which involved death and destruction, and highlighted the fear that these participants experienced. One participant stated the following:

'I was in the B- specials, aye I remember plenty of it, there was [name], he was in the UDR, lived with old [name] on the corner just opposite my Uncle's, he was in the UDR and his car was parked outside our house and they blew it up, the front door came into the kitchen' (Protestant, 56-75+)

Another older generation participant stated:

'Where I worked, it was shot into, there was three people shot, then some time later, the fella that worked with me, I let him out the door that night, he was going home, and he was shot dead' (Catholic, 56 -75+).

This supports the literature stating that during the Troubles most families were either directly or indirectly affected, mostly through the loss of a family member or friend (Cairns and Darby, 1998; Hewstone *et al.*, 2004).

It is evident that the experience of the Troubles varies throughout generations. The authors expected to find that the younger generation had minimal experience of the Troubles. It is surprising, however, that some individuals from the middle-aged generation did not experience the Troubles directly. This means that the impact of the Troubles on the residents of Northern Ireland was affected by where people lived. Hewstone *et al.* (2004) share this view and state that some regions in Northern Ireland suffered worse than others. Stone (2006) explains that dark tourism involves travelling to sites associated with 'death, suffering or the seemingly macabre' (p.146); from the various stories and first-hand accounts, it is obvious that Northern Ireland has many such sites that satisfy the increasing demand for dark tourism.

The Troubles - a thing of the past: Most of the participants from the younger generation believe that the conflict is over but that the Troubles are still a major part of the older generations' lives. One participant said:

‘... the actual war itself is part of the past... but for the generations above us, I definitely think it’s something they still think about every day and it would still be quite a sensitive subject’ (Catholic, 18–35).

This supports the literature which states that in the past the Troubles were an emotive topic in a sensitive environment for many residents. Since the past is an intimate part of the present, this sensitivity remains today (Brewer, 1990; Tam *et al.*, 2007).

In contrast, the consensus among the middle-aged and the older generations from both religious backgrounds is that the Troubles are not a thing of the past; the conflicts are sparse now but there is still an underlying element that continues to cause trouble. One participant stated that:

‘No, it’s not a thing of the past at all, it’s a thing of the past on paper, but it’s not a thing of the past in real life, sure it’s still going on, there’s still bombs being found and people being shot, so no’ (Protestant, 36–55).

Another participant explained that:

‘... it sickens me, all of them on the news spouting about the peace, the peace! There’s no such thing as peace, and there hasn’t been, not from either side’ (Protestant, 56–75+).

Segregation is another topic that was mentioned often by the middle-aged and older generation groups during the discussions. Participants stated that segregation is everywhere, within education and politics, and that this divide prevents the communities from moving forward. A participant said: ‘...with regards to education, there’s still that segregation...’ (Catholic, 36–55).

While another one stated:

‘... I’m yet to hear one politician in the last three months saying that they’re standing up for the working class people... it’s either I’m standing for Protestants or I’m standing for Catholics’ (Catholic, 56–75+).

The topic of segregation often emerges in literature, a crucial aspect of the Troubles is the degree in which the two communities were separated, and this segregation continues to staunch the peace process. Segregation sustains conflict by creating an environment of suspicion and ignorance (Gallagher, 1995; Cairns and Hewstone, 2002; Hewstone *et al.*, 2004).

Although the Good Friday Agreement was signed over 18 years ago, and the conflict has considerably calmed down, none of the participants believes the Troubles to be completely over. Segregation is still common, and there continues to be divide

amongst communities. This finding supports Crooke's view (2001) that the Troubles are still a recent occurrence, and therefore using sites for dark tourism benefits may intensify sectarianism and amplify the divide that the focus group participants referred to.

Attitudes towards using the Troubles to boost dark tourism

The participants were asked to share their feelings about using the Troubles to boost tourism in Northern Ireland through sites such as the Maze Prison and the political murals on the Falls and Shankill Roads in Belfast. To begin with, most of the participants had not heard of dark tourism. Of the 36 participants, only 3 had a previous knowledge of what dark tourism is.

The findings revealed that the different generations have very different views in this regard. The participants from the younger generation stated that they believe that using the Troubles to boost tourism would be beneficial as they can learn about their history. One participant said:

'I know for myself, I didn't grow up with it, so I'm very interested in it, interested in my history... I do think it would be something that not only would attract international visitors but also local, because like, again our generation didn't grow up with it' (Catholic, 18–35).

This finding supports Boyd's (2000) view that there will always be a market for visitors who want to see such landmarks that reflect a turbulent past.

Some participants from the middle-aged generation said that it would all depend on the type of attraction. They stated that using the Maze Prison and the political murals on the Falls and Shankill Roads would be beneficial to tourism, however visiting sites where atrocities happened would not be right as they are too personal and too recent. One participant said:

'Well I think it would be alright boosting tourism if it's properly managed and if it's not doing any harm bringing tourism into the country, with the likes of the Maze, but I don't think it's right, using the sites of big atrocities, the likes of the monuments and stuff like that, I don't think that's just right' (Protestant, 36–55).

However, other participants from the middle-aged generation believe that dark tourism is a major part of their lives. One participant said:

'...it's a part of your history, it's a part of our history, there's no point hiding from it, and if there's benefits to be got from it then work away' (Catholic, 36–55).

As mentioned, the Troubles remain a sensitive topic (Brewer, 1990; Tam *et al.*, 2007). However, others see the potential for using the Troubles to boost tourism. This is in line with Crooke's (2001) research, which explains how the Troubles are undoubtedly a major part of Northern Irish history, and that some generations have known nothing else. Yet the Troubles get scant recognition in exhibitions and Northern Ireland's tourist attractions.

These opinions are opposed to those of the older generations who believed that Northern Ireland has more to offer than dark tourism. One participant said:

'No, they shouldn't use it, they have other [attractions], Fermanagh has lovely lakes and mountains and walks, use them. They shouldn't be glorifying the Troubles' (Protestant, 56–75+).

Another participant said:

'I think it's a wee bit sad if that's what they have to do... I think there's nicer things to focus on in Northern Ireland than the Troubles' (Catholic, 56–75+).

The findings show that each generation feels differently in relation to using dark sites for tourism purposes. Walter (2009) explains that the individuals who experience an event are the first generation; therefore, using dark sites as tourism attractions forces the older generations to relive memories that they might have removed or do not want to think about. The findings reveal that the older generation is more resistant to dark tourism and sometimes even holds less than favourable attitudes. Importantly, one participant, for example, had strong opinions about how the Troubles began, stating:

'The Fenians started it, with all their civil rights parades, not half enough of them were shot that day' (Protestant, 56–75+).

One possible reason for the strong opinions of some participants is that they knew what Northern Ireland was like before the Troubles, and they gradually saw their country deteriorate.

Is it too soon to use the Troubles, or will it be more acceptable when more time has passed? The overall opinion of the younger generation and the middle-aged generation is that it is not too soon to use the Troubles to boost tourism and that enough time has passed for it to be acceptable. For instance, a participant said:

'I think we've fuffed about enough, soon they'll be fighting over petty things, if they just use these sites for dark tourism and see money coming in, and benefiting the economy then maybe they'll realise it's time to move on' (Catholic, 36–55).

Another participant said:

‘... if it’s not done now the way the country is going there will be a lot of it gone, you know the likes of the murals will be gone, I’d rather see a bit of history up there than some random drawing, no matter what side it is’ (Protestant, 36-55).

This supports Boyd’s (2000) view; according to him, Northern Ireland would do well to consider the importance of maintaining certain symbols, icons, buildings, and places to reflect and commemorate the past. In contrast, participants from the older generation all felt as though it is too soon to use the Troubles to boost dark tourism and the overall consensus is that more time needs to pass by before it is acceptable.

One participant said:

‘I think it’s a bit early yet, at this stage, Troubles are only over the last twenty years, I don’t think it’s right yet, it’s not history yet, it’s still an everyday occurrence in some places’ (Catholic, 56–75+).

This conflicts with Enright’s (1991) theory that the older generation are more likely to forgive and move forward than young adults and the younger generations (Hewstone *et al.*, 2004). The study found that the younger generation who had little experience of the Troubles and the middle-aged generations who had varied experience are ready to move on and think that boosting dark tourism can be beneficial for Northern Ireland. They add that there is a sense of urgency with regards to boosting dark tourism in Northern Ireland. In contrast the older generation feel as though the Troubles are still too recent, and that Northern Ireland has more to offer.

Dark tourism disrupting the peace process or contributing to the healing process? All participants from the younger and middle-aged generations stated that, if managed properly and handled carefully, dark tourism will not disrupt the peace process. One participant stated:

‘as long as you are respectful and considerate of the area then I don’t see why there should be issues using sites like the Shankill and the Falls Roads’ (Protestant, 18–35).

One participant even stated that if managed effectively, dark tourism will enhance the peace process. According to the participant:

‘I think if there was proper facilities there for dark tourism it would probably enhance the peace process. You know, people from certain areas and people that want to start trouble will get less support when folks see the benefits and money and stuff coming in to the areas’ (Protestant, 36–55).

A theme that emerged often during the discussions is that the government will be the biggest issue at this point. One participant said:

‘... the politicians want it, to disrupt the peace, they’re playing political football, if something will annoy one side, the other side will latch on to it and vice versa ... unfortunately the government playing a game to torture each other will disrupt peace ever happening, and probably from the dark tourism sites from ever happening’ (Catholic, 36–55).

In Northern Ireland there are strong links between dark tourism and political tourism. Strange and Kempa (2003) state that dark tourism sites provide opportunities for political reflection. A consistent theme that emerged throughout the focus groups, along with the mistrust of the government, is the importance of passing down accurate narratives to the younger generations. One participant stated that:

‘I know my ones won’t learn about the Troubles from the government, they’ll hear about it from me, they’ll not get the government’s story they’ll get my story, they’ll get the truth’ (Protestant, 36 –55).

According to Stone (2010), dark tourism sites offer the opportunity to document history and provide political interpretations of past events. Hence, in Northern Ireland, dark tourism provides the opportunity to record the Troubles so they can act as a reminder of what should never happen again. In support for the creation of memorials for the victims of the Troubles, Bloomfield (1998) states that ‘above all, we have to persuade our children how costly and counter-productive it would be to pursue the animosities of the past’ (p.23).

However, consensus among the older generations was that for now, the Troubles should be left alone. One participant stated that:

‘The ones still talking about it all, on the television and on shows, it doesn’t do any good I think, it makes people on either side more bigoted as to what did happen’ (Catholic, 56–75+).

McDowell’s (2008) research advocates this position and explains that many believe that the Troubles are still too recent and therefore there is a lot of controversy around the idea of capitalising on Northern Ireland’s past for financial gain.

Dark tourism benefiting the economy: The participants were asked if they believe that dark tourism could benefit the economy and therefore the Northern Irish people. All participants agreed that yes, if dark tourism was to be developed it would benefit the economy:

‘Definitely, especially where most of the dark tourism would be, the likes of Shankill Road and Free Derry corner are generally deprived areas of the cities. So it’ll be good to bring money into there...’ (Catholic, 36–55).

There are numerous benefits associated with dark tourism including economic benefits. Tarlow (2005) explains how dark tourism is an economic generator which may transform past tragedies into economic productivity.

Conclusion

This research study was undertaken to investigate the difference in the level of support for dark tourism in Northern Ireland between the generations who lived through the Troubles and those who heard about them. Through qualitative data, which was obtained through carrying out six focus groups, the authors attempted to investigate this aim, and three main objectives.

The first objective was to investigate the views on dark tourism held by the generations who grew up experiencing the Troubles. Those who grew up experiencing the Troubles can be categorised into two generations, the middle-aged generation, consisting of those aged 36 – 55 and the older generation, consisting of those aged 56 – 75+. The responses to the questions provided by the two older generations were different. The middle-aged generation was very supportive of dark tourism in Northern Ireland. They believe that the benefits associated with boosting dark tourism may strengthen the peace process and facilitate the healing process. They also believe that enough time has passed for it to be acceptable to use the Troubles to boost dark tourism. In contrast, the older generation believes that Northern Ireland has more to offer tourists than its troubled history. Participants from the older generation state that the Troubles are still too recent and are not yet history as they still impact lives today.

The second objective was to investigate the views on dark tourism of the younger generation, who grew up in the aftermath of the Troubles. Interestingly, the younger generation and the middle-aged generation held similar viewpoints. They both agree that Northern Ireland is prepared for dark tourism, and that if the country continues to paint over murals and hide from the past, soon the dark history of Northern Ireland will be buried.

The final objective was to examine how these views can potentially affect the development of dark tourism in Northern Ireland. The findings show that the older generation are unsupportive of the development of dark tourism in Northern Ireland. Consequently, this could have a negative effect on the development and promotion of this tourism niche in the Province. Another key finding is that the majority of the

participants feels that the government is deterring the development of dark tourism. In short, the research found that participants from the younger generation felt that the Troubles should be utilised to boost tourism in Northern Ireland. This opinion was shared by those participants from the middle-aged generation, who believe that the Troubles should be utilised for dark tourism to educate future generations. In contrast the older generation believe that the Troubles are still too recent and that Northern Ireland has more to offer.

Though an opportunistic sample approach could be seen as a limitation to this study, this was overcome by meeting the criteria of age and religion, which were the main selection parameters. Future research could employ a quantitative methodological approach to investigate in more depth governmental support of dark tourism in Northern Ireland. As this qualitative approach provides the insights of both the generational and religious backgrounds, a survey approach would also enable a comparative analysis between these groupings.

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Education Service Quality, Value and Satisfaction on Student Customer Intentions and Behaviour

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Abstract

Traditional avenues of accreditation, module review and teaching evaluations are not the only ways to assess education service quality and related issues. In order to evaluate the education service provided by a private university in Ireland, this investigation utilized an extension of Cronin, Brady and Hult's (2000) model examining the effects of quality, value and customer satisfaction on customer intentions and behaviour. The model predicts that positive perceptions of quality, value and satisfaction in relation to the education service encounter will lead to positive word of mouth, and future intention to use the service again. The Arts undergraduate student sample size was 260. The perception of a high price for the education service provided did not translate to high service value, and service quality was only shown to have an indirect effect on satisfaction, word of mouth behaviour and intentions to return to the university. Despite a slight majority stating that the service quality was above average, and the majority stating they were satisfied overall, only a minority indicated that they would use the service again. The underlying reasons for and implications from these findings and others are discussed.

Keywords: Service quality; student satisfaction; retention; word-of-mouth

Introduction

With the proliferation of increasing economic stresses, online education platforms including Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs), and global competition, higher education institutions face growing new threats and a potentially tumultuous future. As competition increases, there is a greater pressure for universities to re-examine traditional commercial management perspectives in academia and consider working more like a private enterprise rather than a bureaucratic organization. Although, the publicly funded institutions provide the majority of third level education provision in

Ireland, private higher education (PHE) institutions are a growing element of that provision, with fifteen PHE institutions represented by the Higher Education Colleges Association (HECA). Thus, the growing proliferation of PHE institutions in Ireland (the Irish institution selected for the present study is a PHE institution), suggests the greater need to be responsive to the needs of student service users (Tomlinson, 2017).

If an academic institution is to be more competitive, then logic would dictate that for the university to survive and grow, basic marketing concepts need to be implemented. Thus, marketing techniques are being applied regularly by a growing number of universities to achieve competitive superiority (Temple and Shattock, 2007; Wilkins, Shams and Huisman, 2013; Han, 2014). Current students are often a good marketing tool as they have similar characteristics to the prospective students and can be completely up to date in relation to what to expect about the offerings available at the university (Rudd and Mills, 2008). The challenge being that universities must consider the student from a commercial perspective, and not just an academic one. In an extension of a service marketing model (Cronin, Brady and Holt, 2000; See Figure 1), adding word of mouth recommendations, the present study examines the direct and indirect effects of student perceptions of sacrifice (effort, price and time), service quality performance, satisfaction and service value on education service related future intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations.

Perceived Education Service Quality and Student Satisfaction

Perceived service quality can be described as a consumer's satisfaction with how well a service meets their expectations (Kelley, Donnelly, and Skinner, 1990; Hill, 1995; Sirvanci, 1996; Swan, Bowers, and Grover, 2002; Munteanu et al., 2010; Mark, 2013). When service delivery expectations are not met, institutions can run into potential problems. A possible scenario might be that the institution is not providing a service that matches the customers' expectations (Zeithaml, Bitner and Gremler, 2006). In higher education, this could translate into a potential gap between the student's expectations vs. perceptions and the service delivered vs. those promised by the university, leading to customer dissatisfaction in relation to service quality levels. Thus, dissatisfaction occurs because of a disconfirmation of expectations. As the foundations of service quality and satisfaction are based on the disconfirmation theory (Lacobucci, Grayson and Omstorm, 1994), many marketers have used the terms interchangeably despite research highlighting the distinctiveness of the constructs (Sureshchandar, Rajendran and Anantharaman, 2002).

The importance of distinguishing satisfaction and quality was illustrated by Cronin and Taylor (1992), when they pointed out service providers need to find out what their priorities should be when choosing their approach to delivery of quality. However, the academic service provider's priority can be to deliver satisfied student customers who will then have a favourable view of education service quality, or they can prioritize the provision of a high-quality education service as an avenue to student satisfaction (Cronin and Taylor, 1992). Arguments put forward by Lazibat, Baković and Dužević (2014), Hoisington and Naumann (2003), Lee, Lee and Yoo (2000), Spreng and

MacKoy (1996), Cronin and Taylor (1992), amongst others, suggest that service quality perceptions lead to satisfaction, in contrast with the argument that student satisfaction is an antecedent to quality (Bolton and Drew, 1991; Bitner, 1990; Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1988). The model tested in the current study takes the former view that good service quality leads to positive levels of student satisfaction.

H1 Perceptions of good service quality will have a significant positive impact on satisfaction.

The proposition that quality, when implemented effectively, does not cost anything was coined by Crosby (1979). The reason for this proposition was that organizations incur greater costs because of the deliverance of poor quality, while an improvement to general levels of quality would pay for itself through the reduction of costs incurred because of substandard quality (Eagle and Brennan, 2007). Eagle and Brennan (2007) also noted that a possible loss-of-reputation cost would occur if a student feels that they have been mistreated, breeding dissatisfaction with the education service provided, and as a result, encouraging the spread of negative word of mouth about the university. Failure to retain and expand a customer base is a serious limitation of any business; including private firms, universities and any institution that provides education services. As a result, the university could miss out on repeat student customers and the benefits of positive word of mouth recommendations (Nell and Cant, 2014). Thus, it is imperative to close the gaps between the promised service and the actual service delivered where necessary, through having the right service quality designs and standards. Universities should therefore, assess quality, not only through the traditional avenues of accreditation and module review, but also through the evaluation of factors that students feel are important in terms of their educational service quality provision (Oldfield and Baron, 2000). Service quality has a critical impact on competitiveness (Lewis, 1989), as poor service quality can adversely affect the re-purchase intentions of consumers if customer expectations are not met by adequate delivery or standards of the service (Ghobadian, Speller and Jones, 1994). In a higher education sense, re-purchase intentions would be returning to the university to undertake other courses (Marzo-Navarro, Pedraja-Iglesias and Rivera-Torres, 2005; Mavondo, Tsarenko and Gabbott, 2004; Schertzer and Schertzer, 2004). Quality shortfalls can lead to possible loss-of-reputation costs, including negative word of mouth about the university (Eagle and Brennan, 2007). In contrast, service quality positive perceptions can also attract new students through the spread of positive word of mouth (Voss, Gruber and Szmigin, 2007).

H2 Perceptions of good service quality will have a significant positive impact on behavioural intentions towards the university.

H3 Perceptions of good service quality will have a significant positive impact on number of word-of-mouth recommendations.

Service Quality has been measured using the SERVQUAL scale, but Cronin and Taylor (1992; 1994) went as far as to argue for the discarding of the expectancy component of the SERVQUAL scale, which then led to the construction of the SERVPERF scale, which had the advantage of being half the length of the SERVQUAL scale. The validity of using SERVPERF was supported by existing marketing literature thinking that the sole use of performance perceptions can reflect service quality (Parasurama, Zeithaml and Berry, 1994; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1996). The SERVPERF scale was used to measure service quality performance in the present study.

In relation to satisfaction's overall role, Cronin and Taylor (1992) found that satisfaction is more influential in its effects on future intentions in relation to the service compared to service quality. Cronin and Taylor (1992) explained this finding by suggesting that customers may not purchase the best quality service, as availability, convenience or price positively influence satisfaction while having no impact on service quality perceptions. Another advantage of acquiring student satisfaction ratings in relation to facilities, courses and various education services is that this enhances student participation in the education experience (Nasser, Khoury and Abouchedid, 2008). Thus, as McCollough and Gremler (1999) concluded, examination of student satisfaction gives valuable insight into ways to improve the education experience by improving service areas where there are shortfalls. The scenario tested in this investigation is that satisfied students report favourable future intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations in relation to the higher education service.

H4 High levels of student satisfaction will have a significant positive impact on behavioural intentions towards the university.

H5 High levels of student satisfaction will have a significant positive impact on number of word-of-mouth recommendations.

Sacrifice and Service Value

Consistent with previous research, sacrifice is conceptualized as what the customer sacrifices in order to receive a service (Cronin, Brady and Hult, 2000). Rudd and Mills (2008) identified that high prices set by universities limit the number of potential possible students who could afford these courses. Not limited to money, other sacrifices such as time and effort are components of sacrifice (Cronin et al., 1997). Ledden, Kalafatis and Samouel (2007, p.966) specifically related sacrifice with

perceived value by stating “value perceptions are the result of a cognitive trade-off between benefits and sacrifices”.

H6 There will be a significant relationship between sacrifice and service value.

In the present study, service value is conceptualized using Zeithaml's definition, “... perceived value is the consumers' overall assessment of the utility of a product based on the perceptions of what is received and what is given” (1988, p. 14). The literature widely accepts this idea that value is perceived by the customer rather than objectively constructed by the seller (Setijono and Dahlgaard, 2007; Day and Crask, 2000; Woodruff, 1997). Value reflects the utility of the service by the customer; previously Cronin, Brady and Hult (2000) found that a perception of good service value had a positive impact on behavioural intentions towards the organization and satisfaction. This suggests that student customers who perceive higher value in regards to the education service provided are more likely to express greater satisfaction towards the university and also have higher levels of engagement with their university programme, leading to more positive recommendations to other prospective students. In the current investigation the impact of service value will be expanded to looking at its effect on number of word-of-mouth recommendations. Of course, it can also be argued that if a service is seen as having a high level of quality it will be also be valued (Lee, Hsieh and Cheng, 2016; Athanassopoulos, 2000; Chenet, Tynan and Money, 1999; Clow and Beisel, 1995; Fornell et al., 1996; Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; Roest and Pieters, 1997; Spreng, Mackenzie and Olshavsky, 1996; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1996).

H7 Perceptions of good service quality will have a significant positive impact on service value.

H8 Perceptions of good service value will have a significant positive impact on behavioural intentions towards the university.

H9 Perceptions of good service value will have a significant positive impact on number of word-of-mouth recommendations.

H10 Perceptions of good service value will have a significant positive impact on satisfaction.

Behavioural Intentions and Word-of-Mouth Recommendations

Behavioural intention is one of the final outcome variables in this model. Of course, increasing customer retention is a major component in relation to the power of a service provider to be profitable (Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1996). Specifically, favourable behavioural intentions are correlated with a service provider's power to persuade customers to "1) say positive things about them, 2) recommend them to other consumers, 3) remain loyal to them (i.e., repurchase from them), 4) spend more with the institution, and 5) pay price premiums" (Cronin, Brady and Hult, 2000, pp. 204-205). Thus behavioural intentions are included as an indicator of customer retention, and the probability of gaining positive word of mouth.

The extension of this model (Cronin, Brady and Hult, 2000) entails the inclusion of actual behaviour in relation to repeat student custom and actual recommendations of the education service to others. As per Cronin, Brady and Hult's (2000) study, the overall prediction of this investigation is that positive perceptions of quality, value and satisfaction in relation to the service encounter will lead to favourable outcomes. The outcomes in this investigation are positive word of mouth, and future intention to use the service again. In addition, this research will examine the partial consensus from marketing literature (e.g. Lee, Hsieh and Cheng, 2016; Athanassopoulos, 2000; Chenet, Tynan, and Money, 1999; Clow and Beisel, 1995; Fornell et al., 1996; Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; Roest and Pieters, 1997; Spreng, Mackenzie, and Olshavsky, 1996; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1996) that favourable attitudes towards service quality lead to high levels of value attached to the service, which in turn leads to improved satisfaction levels. In an extension of this area of service marketing research, this investigation will also examine the indirect effects of service quality, sacrifice and service value on positive future intentions and likelihood of positive word-of-mouth in relation to education services offered.

- H11 Positive perceptions in relation to service quality will have a significant positive indirect effect on satisfaction.*
- H12 Positive perceptions in relation to (a) service quality, (b) sacrifice and (c) service value will have significant positive indirect effects on behavioural intentions towards the university.*
- H13 Positive perceptions in relation to (a) service quality, (b) sacrifice and (c) service value will have significant positive indirect effects on the number of word-of-mouth recommendations.*

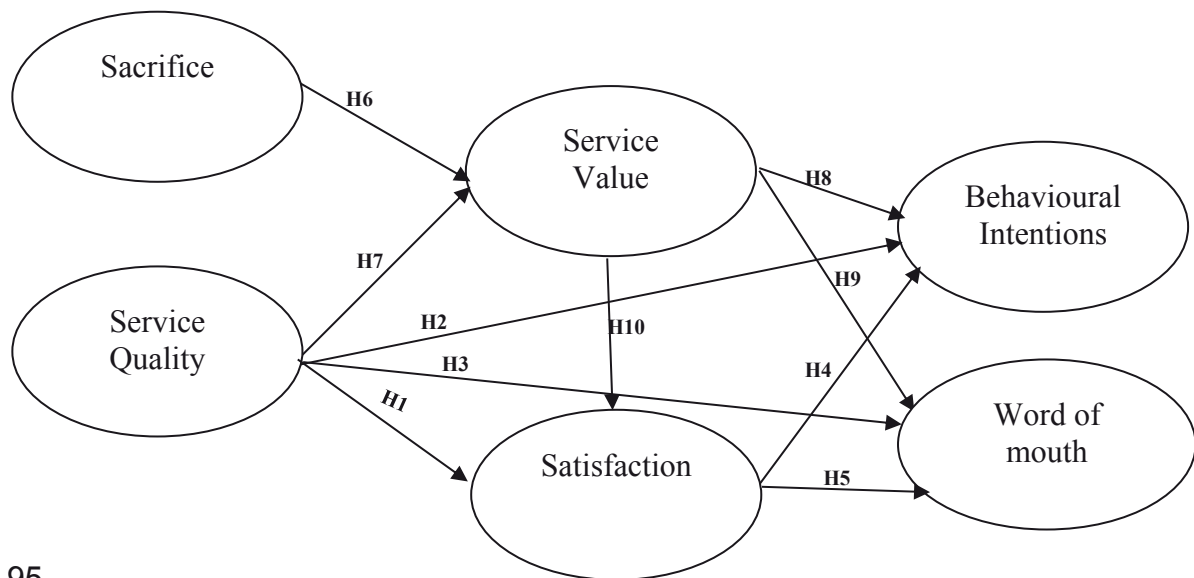
Demographic Factors and the Conceptual Model

As well as educational service quality factors, various student characteristics could have an influence on student satisfaction. For example, it has been found that part-time students have lower satisfaction levels than full-time students, with possible reasons being limited time for a part-time student to fully appreciate all the university facilities (Moro-Egido and Panades, 2010), greater imbalance between the competing demands of work and university, more personal and family challenges (Sears et al., 2017), compared to full-time students. The amount of time spent within the university may also affect satisfaction, with first and final year students seeing key elements of education service provision differently (Oldfield and Baron, 2000). For example, strengths or weaknesses of various education services may become clearer the longer a student attends the university. Soutar and Turner (2002) grouped students into the important market segments of international student, mature student and school leaver segments. Soutar and Turner (2002) argued that these types of student had different motivations when choosing higher education courses and different expectations of education service provision. The present study compares the responses of mature (part-time), school leaver (full-time), first and final year students in relation to the education service quality components and inter-relationships tested in the main theoretical model. The validity of the model in relation to the whole sample is also examined.

H14 The conceptual model and its components will yield significantly different results for the mode of study and year groupings.

H15 The conceptual model will yield a valid description, a good fit, of the relationships found between the constructs for the study sample.

Figure 1: Student intentions and word of mouth behaviour conceptual model



In summary, the conceptual model (See Figure 1) predicts significant relationships between sacrifice and service value (**H6**), service quality with service value (**H7**), behavioural intentions (**H2**), word of mouth (**H3**), and satisfaction (**H1**), while also suggesting significant relationships between service value and, satisfaction (**H10**), behavioural intentions (**H8**) and word of mouth (**H9**). The conceptual model also predicts a significant link between satisfaction and behavioural intentions (**H4**) and, word of mouth (**H5**), while also taking into account indirect relationships between service quality and satisfaction (**H11**) and, service quality, sacrifice, and service value, with behavioural intentions (**H12**), and word of mouth (**H13**). As well as testing the model's validity (**H15**), the current study examines the model and its components across mode of study and year student groupings (**H14**).

Method

Participants

In order to facilitate the use of Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) statistical analyses, and to provide a representative sample of students, stratified random sampling was used. That is, students were randomly chosen from Arts classes within the private university to control for stratified variations in length of time studying, gender and mode of study (Full-time or Part-time). The final Arts student total sample size was 260 with 43.8% of the sample being full-time students, 56.2% part-time, and the majority of the sample was female (70.4%). The majority of the students were undertaking psychology courses (83.1% undertaking the degree and 4.6% the diploma), with the rest of the students undertaking undergraduate courses in Counselling (1.5%), Social Science (8.5%) and Social Studies (2.3%), which approximately represents the actual proportions of students taking specific Arts courses at the private university at that time. The amount of time the students had been studying was also taken into account with students included from year 1 (22.4%), year 2 (42.3%), year 3 (29.6%) and year 4 (5.7%) of their respective courses. The sample size met Barrett's (2007) minimum criteria, more than 200 participants, for facilitation of an in-depth examination of the model and its features.

Research Design and Procedure

A quantitative cross-sectional descriptive study design was used. That is, self-report quantitative survey responses were collected at one time-point only. Although this research investigation is not an experiment where true causal effects could be inferred due to the manipulation of an independent variable(s), the multivariate model testing approach (SEM) used in this research allows a researcher to infer causal relationships as this approach is driven by the theoretical model to be tested (Hoyle, 1995). That

is, SEM allows the researcher to test complex hypotheses that may include direct and indirect effects, within one pre-specified theoretical model (Hoyle, 1995).

Materials

The questionnaire entailed use of a seven point Likert scale with the choices ranging from very low to very high, strongly disagree to strongly agree, or very poor to very good, depending on the wording of the items used. Based on Cronin, Brady and Hult's (2000) model, three items relating to fees, time and effort, were used in the current study to denote sacrifice. However, the sacrifice items did not reach an acceptable level, above 0.7 as argued by Nunnally (1978), with an internal consistency reliability ($\alpha = .64$), so only the item relating to fees is included in the model to measure sacrifice.

A further ten items measuring service quality performance in relation to employee reliability, timeliness, competency, approachability, politeness, language, trustworthiness, efforts and, facilities that are clean and free from danger were included in the questionnaire ($\alpha = .88$). Two items were included to measure service value, with specifically one item stating, "Compared to what I have to give up (i.e. money, time and effort), the overall ability of this college to satisfy my wants and needs is" ($\alpha = .83$). A further two items related to student satisfaction with one example being, "My choice to select this education service was a wise one" ($\alpha = .85$). Intentions were addressed in relation to three specific outcomes, using the college again, likelihood of recommending the college to others, and specifically, "If I had to do it over again, the probability that I would still choose is" ($\alpha = .87$). The extension of this model (Cronin, Brady and Hult, 2000) entails the inclusion of actual behaviour in relation to repeat custom and actual recommendations of the service to others. Whether the participant had recommended the college's services to others, and if so, how many times had they recommended the service to others were the last two questions on the quantitative student survey. Demographic questions relating to gender, age, study mode and year of degree were also included.

Results

In terms of the effects of demographic factors (**H14**), to some extent the hypothesis stating that the research model components will yield significantly different results for mode of study groupings is supported as there are significant differences in mean scores, as denoted by asterisks in Table 1, between full-time and part-time students in relation to feelings about *service quality performance*, *overall service quality* and number of *word of mouth* recommendations made. In the cases of feelings about service quality performance full-time students rated these areas significantly more highly on average compared to the part-time students, while the part-time students made significantly more recommendations of the service to others, on average.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics and t-test mode of study grouping comparisons for model constructs

	Mean		SD		Minimum		Maximum		Possible Range
	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	
Sacrifice: Fees	5.79	5.71	1.17	1.03	1	1	7	7	1 to 7
Service quality performance**	55.75	52.50	7.96	8.78	34	20	70	70	10 to 70
Service value	9.16	8.94	2.70	2.53	2	3	14	14	2 to 14
Satisfaction	9.65	9.88	2.88	2.71	4	3	14	14	2 to 14
Behavioural Intentions	12.43	13.48	4.77	4.24	3	3	21	21	3 to 21
Word of mouth*	1.18	2.07	2.59	3.61	0	0	20	20	N/A

Note: F=Full-time, P=Part-time. A higher score indicates that participants feel there is a high level in relation to the particular construct. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, 2 tailed

Across all the groupings, mode of study and year groupings, *sacrifice: fees* were seen as slightly high. Taking into account the possible ranges, the total ratings in relation to *service quality performance*, *service value*, *satisfaction* and *behavioural intentions* were over half the way, on average, towards the highest possible ratings. Thus students could be said to be moderately satisfied, on average, with *service quality performance*, *service value*, *satisfaction*, and moderate *behavioural intentions* in relation to three specific outcomes, using the college again, likelihood of recommending the college to others, and specifically, if they had to do it over again, the probability that they would still choose the college, so there is definite room for improvement. The standard deviation and minimum scores indicate that some students were very dissatisfied with the higher education services provided.

Continuing in terms of the effects of demographic factors (**H14**), to some extent the hypothesis stating that the research model components will yield significantly different results for year groupings was also supported as there are significant differences across the years (1, 2, 3 and 4) in relation to feelings about *service quality performance* (See Table 2). There was a definite trend for feelings towards *service quality performance* (S q pf) to become more negative the longer the student attended the private university, that is, the mean *service quality performance* scores for each year

group steadily decrease from year 1 through to year 4. There are also declines in relation to *service value* (Serv val), *satisfaction* (Satisfact), *behavioural intentions* (Intentions) and *word of mouth* (WOM) recommendations the longer the students attended the university, although these are not significant. A relatively large standard deviation in relation to year 4 groupings' *service quality performance* (S q pf) ratings suggests that there are some major variations in ratings in relation to this construct.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics and t-test year grouping comparisons for model constructs

	Mean				SD				Minimum				Maximum			
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
<u>Sac:Fees</u>	5.78	5.77	5.73	5.86	1.22	0.92	1.26	0.86	2	3	1	4	7	7	7	7
<u>S q pf***</u>	58.43	54.52	51.13	47.57	7.62	6.63	8.88	12.81	34	38	23	20	70	70	68	61
<u>Serv val</u>	9.77	8.97	8.82	8.07	2.75	2.48	2.61	2.50	2	3	3	4	14	14	14	12
<u>Satisfact</u>	10.39	9.92	9.31	9.29	2.45	2.67	3.01	2.67	4	3	3	4	14	14	14	13
<u>Intentions</u>	13.68	13.37	12.40	12.07	4.84	4.21	4.46	4.38	3	3	3	3	21	21	21	17
<u>WOM</u>	1.25	1.75	1.87	0.93	3.16	3.07	3.80	1.49	0	0	0	0	20	20	20	5

Note: F=Full-time, P=Part-time. A higher score indicates that participants feel there is a high level in relation to the particular construct. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, 2 tailed. See Table 1 for the possible ranges. Sac: Fees= Sacrifice: Fees; S q pf= Service Quality Performance; Serv val= Service value; Satisfact= Satisfaction, WOM= word of mouth

Testing of student future intentions and behaviour model (H1 to H13 and H15)

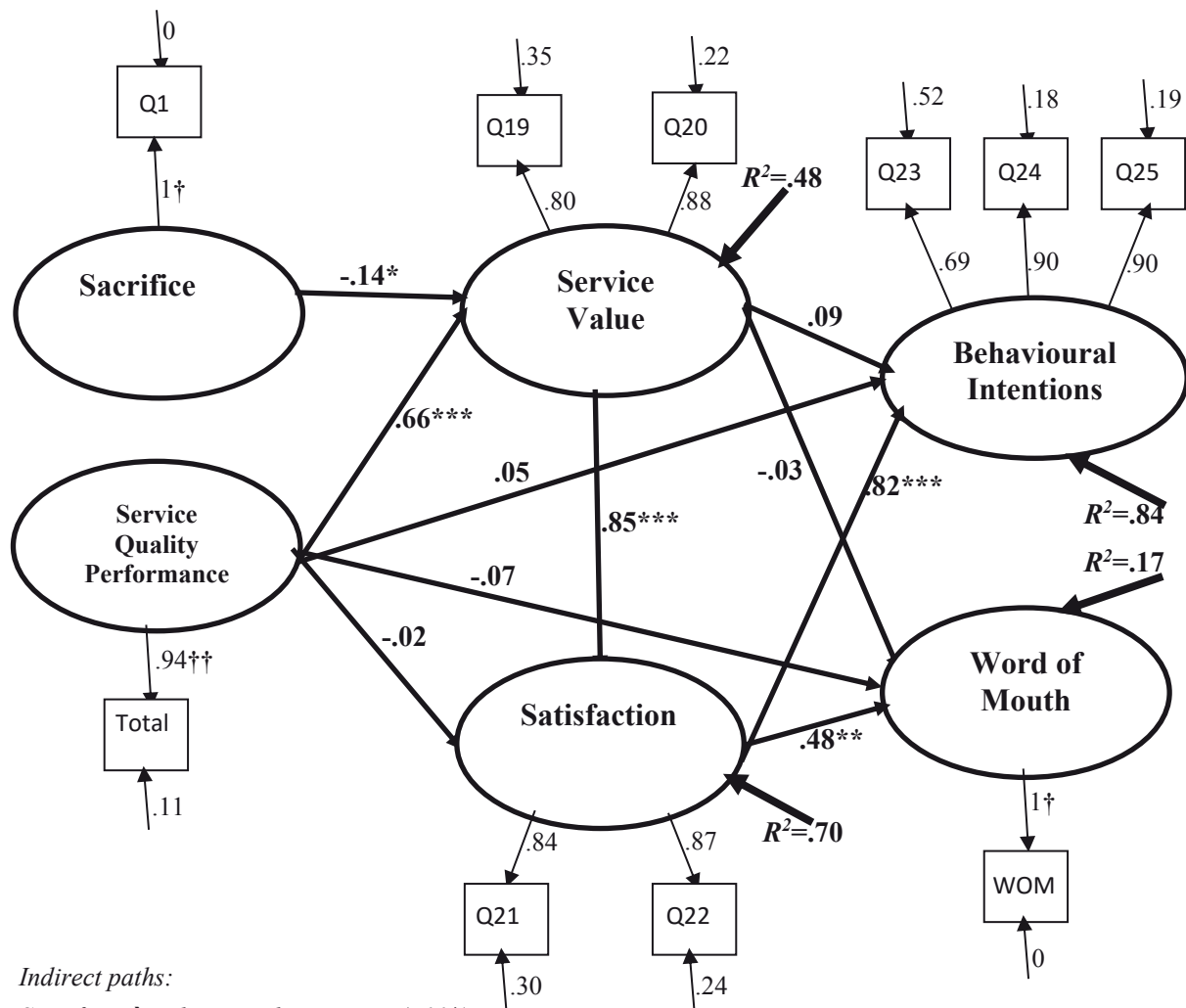
The Structural Equation Modeling analysis was conducted using the LISREL 8.7 program. The observed variables (shown as squares) indicated that item level indicators were acceptable representations of their respective latent variables (shown as circles) and the fit indices (Hu and Bentler, 1999) indicate that support was found for the acceptability of the model (see Figure 2) as a good description of the relationships between the selected variables ($X^2(27) = 42.01$, $p < 0.05$; RMSEA = 0.05; SRMR = 0.02; CFI = 0.99; IFI = 0.99). This supports the fifteenth hypothesis (**H15**) as the model does yield a valid description of the relationships found between the constructs for the study sample.

The amount of variance explained in the endogenous variables (*Service value*, *satisfaction*, *behavioural intentions* and *word of mouth* recommendations) varied from 84% (*Behavioural Intentions* $R^2 = 0.84$) to the lowest variance explained in relation to *word of mouth* recommendations (17%: $R^2 = 0.17$). In relation to *satisfaction*, 70% (R^2

= 0.70) of variation in responses to this concept was explained by the exogenous predictor variables associated with it (*Service value* and *service quality performance*), and 48% ($R^2 = 0.48$) of variation in *service value* responses was explained by *service quality performance* and *sacrifice*. The significant levels of variation explained in *satisfaction*, *service value* and *behavioural intentions*, further support the validity of the model (**H15**).

As for the direct effects in the model (See the values shown on the bolded lines in Figure 2 and the Standardized Parameter Estimates in Table 3) there was support for a number of model-related hypotheses. There were significant positive and strong direct effects between *service quality performance* and *service value* (**H7**) ($\gamma_{12} = .66$, $p < .001$), *service value* and *satisfaction* (**H10**) ($\beta_{21} = .85$, $p < .001$), *satisfaction* and *word of mouth* recommendations (**H5**) ($\beta_{42} = .48$, $p < .01$), and between *satisfaction* and *behavioural intentions* (**H4**) ($\beta_{32} = .82$, $p < .001$). This means that perceptions of good *service quality* leads to students valuing the service more (*Service value*) (**H7**), valuing the service more (*Service value*) relates to greater *satisfaction* levels (**H10**), greater *satisfaction* leads to more *word of mouth* recommendations (**H5**) and greater likelihood of the student intending (*Behavioural intentions*) to return to the university (**H4**). In addition, *sacrifice* (Sac: Fees) had a significant weak negative direct effect on *service value* (**H6**) ($\gamma_{11} = .14$, $p < .05$). That is, the higher the students' felt the fees were the more likely they did not value the service as much, but this relationship was weak. However, a number of model-related hypotheses were not supported. There were no significant direct effects between *service quality performance* and *behavioural intentions* (**H2**) ($\gamma_{32} = .05$, $p > .05$), *service quality performance* and *word of mouth* recommendations (**H3**) ($\gamma_{42} = -.07$, $p > .05$), *service quality performance* and *satisfaction* (**H1**) ($\gamma_{22} = -.02$, $p > .05$), *service value* and *behavioural intentions* (**H8**) ($\beta_{31} = .09$, $p > .05$), and between *service value* and *word of mouth* recommendations (**H9**) ($\beta_{41} = -.03$, $p > .05$).

Figure 2: Students' intentions and behaviour structural equation model



Indirect paths:

Sacrifice → Behavioural Intentions ($-.11^*$)

Sacrifice → Behavioural Intentions ($-.05^*$)

Service Q → Behavioural Intentions ($.50^{***}$)

Note: $^*p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.01$, $^{***}p < 0.001$. † Error variance set as zero. †† Error variance fixed to $(1 - \alpha)s^2$

Table 3: Tests of Hypothesized Relationships

Path	Standardized Parameter Estimate	t Values	Conclusions
Direct effects			
H1: Service Quality Performance → Satisfaction	-.02	-0.18	H1 not supported
H2: Service Quality Performance → Behav. Intentions	.05	0.67	H2 not supported
H3: Service Quality Performance → Word of Mouth	-.07	-0.74	H3 not supported
H4: Satisfaction → Behavioural Intentions	.82	6.10***	H4 supported
H5: Satisfaction → Word of Mouth	.48	3.01**	H5 supported
H6: Sacrifice → Service Value	-.14	-2.45*	H6 supported
H7: Service Quality Performance → Service Value	.66	8.87***	H7 supported
H8: Service Value → Behavioural Intentions	.09	0.66	H8 not supported
H9: Service Value → Word of Mouth	-.03	-0.19	H9 not supported
H10: Service Value → Satisfaction	.85	8.15***	H10 supported
Indirect effects			
H11: Service Quality Performance → Satisfaction	.56	6.32***	H11 supported
H12a: Service Quality Performance → Behav. Intentions	.50	5.91***	H12a supported

H12b: Sacrifice → Behavioural Intentions	-.11	-2.37*	H12b not supported
H12c: Service Value → Behavioural Intentions	.69	7.15***	H12c supported
H13a: Service Quality Performance → Word of Mouth	.24	3.10**	H13a supported
H13b: Sacrifice → Word of Mouth	-.05	-2.03*	H13b not supported
H13c: Service Value → Word of Mouth	.40	3.42**	H13c supported

The indirect paths (See Figure 2 and Table 3) provide support for the predictions that positive perceptions in relation to *service quality*, *sacrifice* and *service value* will have significant positive indirect effects on *behavioural intentions* (**H12a**, **H12b** and **H12c**) and *word of mouth* recommendations (**H13a**, **H13b** and **H13c**). For example, *service quality* had a strong significant positive indirect effect through *service value* and *satisfaction* to *behavioural intentions* (.50, $p < .001$). *Service value* also had strong significant positive indirect effects on *behavioural intentions* (0.69, $p < .001$) and *word of mouth* recommendations (0.40, $p < .01$) through *satisfaction*. *Service quality performance* also had a strong significant positive indirect effect on *satisfaction* (**H11**) through *service value* (.56, $p < .001$). These indirect paths illustrate the importance of *service value* and *satisfaction* as mediators in relation to behavioural intentions and *word of mouth* recommendations. For example, *service quality performance* does not have any direct effects on *behavioural intentions* and *word of mouth* recommendations, but does have significant indirect effects on these constructs through *service value* and *satisfaction*. Higher levels of perceived *service value* and *satisfaction* encourage repeat custom (*behavioural intentions*) and positive *word of mouth*.

In order to test the equivalence of the model for the full-time and part-time student groupings within the overall sample (**H14**), a multi-group analysis was conducted. A comparison between the *no restrictions* model (Model tested simultaneously on both groupings with latent means and regression paths varying freely) and the *fully restricted* model (latent means and regression paths restricted to be equal across mode of study groupings) indicated no significant difference, S-B χ^2 (19) = 19.48, $p > 0.05$. This indicated that there was no significant difference between full-time and part-time student samples in relation to latent means and regression paths within the model

tested. This does not support the fourteenth hypothesis (**H14**) that the model will yield significantly different results for the mode of study groupings.

Discussion

In the present study, student customers' expectations towards teaching, administration, facilities, IT and word of mouth recommendations for others to attend the college were examined using an extended Cronin, Brady and Hult's (2000) service quality model. The overall model provided a good explanation of the relationships between the variables (**H15**) and also explained a significant amount of variation in satisfaction (**H1**, **H10** and **H11**) and future college re-engagement behavioural intentions responses (**H2**, **H4**, **H8** and **H12**) but not the number word of mouth student customer recommendations (**H3**, **H5**, **H9** and **H13**), which supports the validity of Cronin, Brady and Hult's (2000) model but calls into question the usefulness of the extended model.

More specifically, consistent with Cronin, Brady and Hult's (2000) study, this research explored the role of sacrifice, fees paid by students, would have a significant impact on service value perceptions (**H6**). Indeed, the higher the students felt the fees were, the less they valued the service. This negative impact on value then had a further negative effect on satisfaction with the education service and behavioural intentions to re-engage with continued study at the college and word of mouth recommendations to others (**H12** and **H13**). These motivations stemmed from the fact that most of the student sample felt that the fees were too high; thus exemplifying that overpricing can have dire consequences. According to Rudd and Mills (2008), charging too high a price can drain the pool of too many prospective students.

Service quality has also been shown to have a critical impact on competitiveness (Lewis, 1989). A number of studies (Cronin, Brady and Hult, 2000; Ghobadian, Speller and Jones, 1994; Marzo-Navarro, Pedraja-Iglesias and Rivera-Torres, 2005; Mavondo, Tsarenko and Gabbott, 2004) have illustrated the positive impact of service quality on satisfaction, re-purchase behavioural intentions and the spread of positive word of mouth (**H1**, **H2** and **H3**). However, the current investigation contradicts these studies, as service quality had no direct impacts on college re-engagement behavioural intentions, word of mouth recommendations and satisfaction. Perceptions of good service quality performance did have a significant positive impact on service value (**H7**). This supports research studies that argued if a service is seen as having a high level of quality it will also be valued (Lee, Hsieh and Cheng, 2016; Athanassopoulos, 2000; Chenet, Tynan and Money, 1999; Clow and Beisel, 1995; Fornell et al., 1996; Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; Roest and Pieters, 1997; Spreng and MacKoy, 1996; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1996).

Of course, this does not mean that service quality has little impact on word of mouth recommendations and college re-engagement behavioural intentions. The current investigation found, through its impact on service value, that service quality had a

significant indirect effect on college re-engagement behavioural intentions and word of mouth recommendations to others (**H12** and **H13**). More specifically, this research finding supports the partial consensus from marketing literature (e.g. Cronin, Brady and Hult, 2000; Ghobadian, Speller and Jones, 1994; Marzo-Navarro, Pedraja-Iglesias and Rivera-Torres, 2005; Mavondo, Tsarenko and Gabbott, 2004) that favourable attitudes towards service quality performance lead to high levels of value attached to the service, which in turn leads to improved satisfaction levels (**H11**). The present study then also found the more favourable the student customer felt about their experience at the college the more likely they would re-engage with the college and recommend it to others as a place of study (**H4** and **H5**).

Evidence from this research investigation confirms the distinctiveness of service quality performance and satisfaction, supporting Sureshchandar, Rajendran and Anantharaman's (2002) findings. Although there was no significant direct impact of service quality performance on satisfaction (**H1**), it still can be concluded that service quality has an indirect influence on satisfaction through its positive impact on service value, and subsequently, service value's positive impact on satisfaction (**H11**). This finding partially supports arguments put forward by Lazibat, Baković and Dužević (2014), Hoisington and Naumann (2003), Lee, Lee and Yoo (2000), Spreng and MacKoy (1996) and, Cronin and Taylor (1992). In addition, this research also confirms Cronin and Taylor's (1992) findings that satisfaction is more influential in its effects on future re-engagement behavioural intentions in relation to the education service compared to service quality performance. Cronin and Taylor (1992) went on to explain this finding by suggesting that customers may not purchase the best quality service, as availability, convenience or price positively influence satisfaction while having no impact on service quality performance perceptions.

Regarding the role of key student demographics (**H14**), there were significant differences between full-time and part-time students in relation to feelings about service quality performance, overall service quality and number of recommendations made. In the cases of feelings about service quality performance full-time students rated these areas significantly more highly (**H14**). This supports research (e.g. Soutar and Turner, 2002) that suggested differences in expectations of education provision according to school leaver and mature student groups. One reason for the difference in expectations could be the fact that a part-time student cannot fully appreciate all the facilities that the full-time students have more time to access (Moro-Egido and Panades, 2010). Of course, there can be various other reasons for the part-time students' more negative evaluations of the education service quality performance, including the greater imbalance between the competing demands of work and college that they experience, and the more personal and family challenges (Sears et al., 2017) they undergo, compared to full-time students. Despite this, the part-time students made significantly more recommendations of the service to others (**H14**), including work colleagues. However, there were no significant differences between full-time and part-time students in relation to perceptions relating to fees, service value, satisfaction

and behavioural intentions, plus the overall model did not yield significantly different results for the mode of study groupings (**H14**).

There was a definite trend for feelings towards service quality performance to become more negative the longer the students attended the university (**H14**). There were also declines in relation to service value, satisfaction, college re-engagement behavioural intentions and word of mouth recommendations the longer the students attended the university, although these were not significant (**H14**). This supports Oldfield and Baron's (2000) findings that first and final year students saw key elements of education service provision differently.

Implications for Marketing Education

The negative impact of pricing on service value and negative knock-on effects on satisfaction, repeat student customer intentions and word of mouth suggest the perception of expense can taint the students' view of the education service in general. Thus a fair pricing system may give universities a competitive edge within the higher private education sector in Ireland, by not only attracting new students to the education service, but also by ensuring more satisfied students attending the courses who then spread positive word of mouth. This is an imperative within the private education sector in Ireland as the growing proliferation of private higher education institutions in Ireland competing against the dominant publicly-funded universities, suggests the greater need for private institutions to be responsive to the needs of student service users (Tomlinson, 2017), in order to make them stand out from the crowd.

There is no doubt that this service marketing approach can highlight the aspects of the service that the university provides that students are satisfied with. For example, in the present study, this included the quality of teaching and administration. However, this study also highlights that tangible evidence like facilities and IT should not be underestimated. Due to the complexity of higher education, students are not normally knowledgeable enough about it to accurately assess it (Driscoll and Wicks, 1998), so they rely more on the tangibles to draw conclusions about overall quality (Hoffman and Kretoivics, 2004).

In the current investigation mode of study and the length of time within the university were significant factors. Part-time students appreciated the education service provided less than the full-time students, which could have been due to the lack of time they had to access the facilities provided or other pressing issues in relation to the tension between work and university life, or more personal and family challenges, that adversely affected their views of the service. This highlights the need to tailor educational offerings in a way that can be appreciated by those with other competing concerns outside the university as well as less access to the physical facilities provided in a university environment. Weaknesses of the various education services provided may have become clearer the longer the student attended the university so this

suggests the continued need to monitor student views, and act on any issues disclosed, throughout their educational experience.

Despite a slight majority in present study sample stating that the service quality was above average, and the majority of the sample stating they were satisfied overall, only a minority indicated that they would use the service again. This may mean that the university's postgraduate offerings were not enticing enough for the student cohort sampled. A sizeable proportion of prospective students can be the university's current students so this cohort should not be forgotten when new courses are considered.

There is a continual need for development and enhancement of an education service provision that matches the student customers' expectations. The findings of this research study highlight the utility of Cronin, Brady and Hult's (2000) model in examining student customers' expectations.

Limitations and Future Directions

In relation to the present study, high price as a positive influence can be ruled out but availability and convenience could well be factors; the university examined in the current research is conveniently situated in the centre of a city. Regarding availability, despite the growing private education sector it can be argued that only a limited number of Arts courses are available in Ireland. These factors should be addressed in any future research using Cronin, Brady and Hult's (2000) model in the education arena.

This research has put forward the argument that length of time within a university may expose its weaknesses from a student perspective so continued monitoring of student opinion is essential. However, there could be various other explanations for greater levels of student dissatisfaction; for example, to put it bluntly, familiarity may breed contempt. To gain greater insight into student views of their university, the reasons for their feelings towards the education service provision require examination. The strongest approach to this would be longitudinally following the same students through their university life. In addition, although this study argues that students are not normally knowledgeable enough about the subject-related educational provision to assess it (Driscoll and Wicks, 1998), and so they rely more on the tangibles to draw conclusions about overall quality (Hoffman and Kretoivics, 2004), a future study could examine student perspectives on education provision while taking into account their views on the intangibles like core subject content and career information relating to the taught programme, Sears et al. (2017) did this with a similar sample to the current study, comprising of undergraduate psychology students in Canada.

The present study did not gather staff perspectives, which would have provided an alternative insight to the service marketing satisfaction model examined. Indicated by the positive ratings of service quality performance from the majority of students in the current study, there is no doubting that frontline lecturing and administrative staff

continued to interact with students in a professional manner. However, reducing the likelihood any staff emotional labour, due to the need to hide negative emotions and frustrations, can further enhance staff professionalism. Constanti and Gibbs (2004) argue that the distribution of power is unequal with the academic staff having greater level of emotional labour because they have to facilitate student satisfaction and profits of the management.

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Copycat Fast Casual Restaurants: Consumer Response of Dublin Professionals 25 - 39

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Abstract

The fast casual market in Ireland is growing at a rate three times that of other restaurant categories. It is especially popular with young professionals aged 25-39, representing more than one third of their food spend. Many Dublin restaurateurs have taken this opportunity to capitalise on the success of existing restaurant brands and open “copycat” eateries within the capital. These restaurants appropriate concepts, menus and trade dress from leader brands outside Ireland, often to commercial success. By using a mixed quantitative and qualitative approach, this research aims to explore Irish consumer perception and patronage of five Dublin copycat restaurants and negotiate the results of this with consumers’ evaluation of authenticity. Two hundred and twenty-seven questionnaire responses were evaluated and phenomenologically assessed through in-depth interviews to try to explain the socioeconomic and cultural factors of these results. Findings indicate a generally positive acceptance towards copycatting in Ireland, while still evaluating the “original” restaurant as better in most categories. In this context, a moderate similarity approach appears to work best when the leader brand is not present. Respondents did not have an overall negative view of copycats, and even fewer reported a desire to stop visiting such restaurants once informed about them. Interviews investigated the regulatory, economic and cultural underpinnings for this, suggesting consumer response is dictated by contextual factors that are unique to the Irish commercial landscape.

Keywords: fast casual, casual dining, copycat branding, Irish cuisine, food marketing

Introduction

Fast casual eateries are experiencing a boom in Dublin, particularly within the young professional market segment. Dubliners aged less than 39 years spend more money at fast casual restaurants than on groceries, and the market segment is growing three times faster than other restaurant types (Bord Bia, 2015). As a burgeoning category,

fast casuals contain a specific set of consumer expectations. Because of their recent definition, however, fast casual research is markedly underdeveloped.

The *Franchise Times* places fast casuals between casual dining and quick service, with higher check averages (€7 - 15), an adult demographic, “upscale decor”, and pay-at-the-counter service (2008). This list is non-exhaustive but helped create parameters for defining the Dublin copycats included in this study.

Research has suggested that fast casual restaurants cultivate their loyalty mainly through trust and value, with trust being of more importance than value (Chang, 2013). This speaks to the power of a great branding strategy as a way to cut corners on other restaurant attributes. Further, trust cultivated by prominent leader brands could explain how copycats are able to “ride coattails” into similar success. Because trust and authenticity are often linked, it will be important to see whether consumers evaluate the two similarly. Previous research by Kuo-Chien Chang (2013) suggests adding innovative features to a restaurant’s overall branding strategy can aid in the perception of trust and authenticity. This technique does not appear to be fully utilised by copycats in Dublin, so new research could show its usefulness in this context. Bufquin, Partlow and DiPietro’s (2015) study found while food, service and atmosphere were important for urban restaurant patrons, social and health concerns were not. Another key finding noted the largest disparity between the importance of good quality food and resulting satisfaction, meaning customers desired better food than they received in this category.

There does not appear to be an extant review of copycat restaurants, nor of copycat branding’s relationship with Irish consumers. Copycats are better documented in the fast-moving consumer goods sector, with over 50% of grocery store brands estimated to copy a leader brand’s appearance (Morton and Zetzmeyer, 2004). Femke van Horen’s variance analysis study suggests, in FMCG, moderate similarity copies perform better than high similarity when a leader brand is available (2010). However, when a leader is absent, the higher similarity will win. This research also found for consumers, a “buying” mindset prefers a high similarity copy, while a “judging” mindset has the opposite effect. This speaks to a consumer’s flexible judgment capabilities, depending on the purchase context they are currently in. In studies where both product packaging and quality are considered, consumers punish the copycat whose quality belies its appearance (Campbell and Kirmani, 2000). Intentional deceit is a major source of dissatisfaction for consumers; Dublin’s fast casual copycats possess a crucial advantage of existing where their leader brand is not in the consumer’s “choice set.” This means many consumers have not tried the leader brand offerings, and therefore cannot directly compare the two. This research aims to discover if copycat restaurants are reviewed better because of this.

The competitive edge provided by original leader brands is short-lived and unpredictable (Lieberman and Montgomery, 1988). Copycats present a disadvantage to leaders, as it proves impossible to bar them from entering the market - particularly in food service. In published reports of copycat restaurants, venues in Boston and New York were “named and shamed” by news outlets yet remained opened and

operational. Few restaurateurs bring menus, recipes or trade dress to a patent or trademark office, and rarely mandate non-disclosure agreements for recipes (Hamersley, 2015). Even when these measures are taken, it is the restaurant owner's responsibility to pursue legal action - an expensive and tedious endeavour, made more difficult when considering international borders (Hamersley, 2015). This would appear to contribute to the influx of copycats that operate solely on the Irish isle, isolated from leader brands.

To the researcher's knowledge, there are no news articles discussing Irish copycat restaurants - save, ironically, the case of restaurateur Niall Fortune, owner of Irish restaurant chain Eddie Rocket's. In 2013, Fortune successfully barred a franchisee from using his restaurant's tagline, colors and signature jukeboxes for their restaurant Rockin' Joes (Deegan, 2013). What is not mentioned in the article is that Eddie Rocket's own features were appropriated from American chain Johnny Rocket's in the 1980s - effectively making Eddie Rockets a copycat itself. The absence of discussion on this topic in Ireland is stark considering how many copycat restaurants exist. This appears to reinforce restaurant copycatting as a normalised practice in the country.



Figure 1: Johnny Rockets Interior, New Jersey



Figure 2: Eddie Rockets Interior, Dublin



Figure 3: Logo Comparison

Rather than positioning authenticity as a top-down ethos, many brands manipulate token authentic elements to appeal to consumers (Gilmore and Pine, 2007). One such example comes from American smoothie shop Jamba Juice, who grow wheatgrass in-store to symbolise a “commitment to real nutrition” (2007). When performing research for this paper, it was found that Jamba Juice used the art of cartoonist David Rees in marketing campaigns without attribution later that year. This kind of tokenised authenticity raises the question of committing to authentic practices on a variable basis. It raises an important question of how consumer perception changes in the face of contradictory brand tactics such as these.

Any cuisine displaced from its country of origin will be a modification, formatted to fit another culture. This perspective will be explored when speaking with Irish culinary experts. There is an historical link between authenticity and ‘Irishness’ which may explain how residents interpret these concepts. Irish authenticity was traced by Neil O’Boyle in research into what defines an “Irish” advertisement (2009). One question raised was the concept of Irishness itself, which O’Boyle concludes is more uncertain

than ever. O'Boyle warns that becoming entrapped in "authentic narratives" can alienate a brand from reaching new audiences. If culture is defined as "the way we do things" as one marketer described, Ireland's culture is certainly changing - but into what? O'Boyle states the solution to this problem must be "to avoid the petrification of tradition, as well as the multinational Los Angelisation of society" (2009). A city's restaurant landscape undoubtedly contributes to this cultural debate, and copycat restaurant evaluation could provide a pertinent cross-section of that perspective.

Food authenticity is top of mind in Irish food marketing, noted as a consumer trend to watch by Kim Hogan of the Irish Food Board (2017). A stroll around their headquarters in Dublin reflects a similar sentiment. Their 2017 reception area showcased street-facing displays centred on authentic ideals. Icons of culinary provenance - wooden fruit boxes and hand-painted signs - dress the windows, as well as photographs of organic farms, seeming to define the personality of the nation's food economy. When speaking to experts, it will be valuable to see if such representation matches their personal experience.

Copycat research highlights the malleability of consumer behavior and judgment. All the while, restaurateurs experience little protection against copycats - even more so in Ireland than the US. This research field would value from fresh insight, as research suggests benefits and drawbacks to the copycat method. Precisely how to "copy well" is something this research aims to elucidate. In a city that has played cosmopolitan catch-up since the 1980s, Dublin copycat restaurants appear to fill consumer needs in a time-sensitive, high-demand environment. Understanding what works best in this context is crucial to succeeding in an increasingly competitive commercial landscape.

Methodology

This research sought to answer the question: How do Dublin professionals 25 - 39 perceive and patronise copycat fast casuals, and how does this relate to their valuation of authenticity? It was determined that the most comprehensive way to answer this query was via a mixed methods research approach. While existing works have relied on either a qualitative or quantitative approach towards restaurant evaluation and copycat branding, few have incorporated both styles. Combining methodologies will not only provide a baseline perspective but will elucidate the sociocultural motivations behind its responses.

A stratified sampling frame was developed using two cluster groups. These clusters came from two Dublin food businesses: the fast casual restaurant Token, and Dublin delivery service Lunch Team. Both mailing lists included a significant amount of the target population (full-time employed persons between 25 and 39) and were in some form related to the fast casual samples in the survey. 272 vetted responses formed the base of this data. Of this, 123 responses came from an email list for Token, while 159 came from Lunch Team. These responses allowed for a 6% margin of error with a 95% confidence level. The average age of participants was 31.

Analysis of consumer responses required rigorous use of models to reflect trends and test hypotheses, including OLS regressions, cross-tabulation graphs, and expression of interquartile data. The central framework for this study was the DinEX model developed by Antun *et al.* in 2010. The DinEX is a detailed scale of over 20 restaurant attributes, which the researcher found untenable when asking consumers to evaluate up to six samples. Evaluations of food, service, and atmosphere were kept for this study, and health and social valuations were removed to accommodate factors of trustworthiness, authenticity and good value. The DinEX's 4-point rating scale remained, as did their two-factor questioning of both 1) importance and 2) satisfaction.

Six restaurants were evaluated - five copycats, and one "control" non-copycat to compare results. The restaurant Token was deemed an "original" control because the author assisted in its development and could therefore confirm it did not include copycat branding methods. The copycats (Eddie Rocket's, Eathos, Pitt Bros., Boojum, and Chopped) were chosen as each restaurant had discussion about its copycat status online, and shared objective similarities with brand leaders. Not each restaurant functions as a carbon copy of a leader brand; some have differentiated by adopting new logos or trade dress. A variety of appropriation levels was hoped to elucidate why some copycats perform better than others.

Qualitative investigation sought to answer the why beneath the quantitative results and was performed via in-depth interviews with industry experts. Each expert was selected on a case-by-case basis. Two of the interview candidates were selected for their current experience with Dublin fast casual entrepreneurship. It was thought they could provide a firsthand account into contemporary consumer tastes, as well as insight into the logistics of opening a Dublin food business. The other two interview candidates were selected for their academic background in Irish food studies, paired with their previous career experience in the industry. These interviews were anticipated to provide a more historical tracing of Irish culinary trends and patterns over time.

Table 1: List of Interviewees

Interview A	Interview B	Interview C	Interview D
Professor of Cookery and Irish Culinary History, Former Career Chef	Professor of Food Studies, Former Food & Hospitality Manager	Non-copycat Dublin restaurant owner, Businessman	Non-copycat Dublin restaurant owner, Chef

Results

The perception of Dublin copycats by consumers may be categorised as “good.” The 6 evaluated attributes ranked near to each other in the good range, with slight variance among interquartiles. In terms of patronage rates, copycats appeared popular. Sixty eight percent of respondents had visited at least 3 of the 5 fast casuals before, and only 20% of consumers held a negative view of the overall practice. The consumer’s relationship to authenticity, as anticipated, raised many questions. While consumers identified the original restaurant as more authentic than the copycats, overall assessment of copycat authenticity remained good. Only in the most overt cases of copycatting was a restaurant rated as “Fair” in this attribute (Eddie Rockets, Mdn 2).

Key Findings:

- Authenticity ranked lowest in terms of importance in restaurant attributes, and consumers generally rated copycats highly in terms of authenticity satisfaction. However, consumers reported a full Likert point difference between the importance and assessment of Food Quality in copycats, indicating this is an area for improvement for such restaurants.
- The original restaurant Token scored a full Likert point higher than the best performing copycat (moderate similarity Boojum) and earned a median ‘Excellent’ score in four distinct categories: Authenticity, Food Quality, Style and Trustworthiness.
- Considering the success of the moderately similar and the original restaurant in the survey, it would indeed appear innovative and unique menu items assist with a restaurant’s appeal. The moderately similar copycat performed better than a high similarity copycat even though leader brands were not present for the study. Further, a consumer’s past experience with a leader brand did not affect their assessment of a copycat.

An appreciation for original details was reiterated by the Irish consumers’ preference for a moderate similarity approach, which integrated some original qualities into an already successful service concept. This feeds into a broader question of the modern Irish self-concept, as investigated by O’Boyle (2009). Fears of Dublin adopting a mono-cultural position to become like other cities appear frequently, from protests over Starbucks’ city centre permeation (Paul, 2017) to ongoing debates on building height restrictions (O’Sullivan, 2016). This may explain why a differentiation approach works better than carbon copies for Dublin restaurant brands.

Another interesting factor in the copycat evaluation comes from observing the two survey clusters. Responses coming from the Token email list (the original restaurant) indicated a stronger negative response to copycatting. 35% of its consumers disapproved, compared to 16% of delivery service email respondents. This disparity brings up an interesting distinction between consumer judgment and preference. It appears an overt relationship with an “original” brand leads to a stronger judgment against copycatting. Interestingly, while the two clusters’ approval of copycatting differed, their individual assessments of each restaurant failed to show much disparity.

Therefore, the impetus remains on the perception of authenticity and originality, rather than any tangible indicators of a behavioral shift.

In-depth interviews backed up this sentiment. Interviewee A described the modern consumer as one who expects choice and self-identifies as “discerning,” yet alongside this self-conception is a lack of awareness of what actually happens inside restaurant kitchens. They attributed importance to a perception of quality and authenticity, rather than any tangible reality. Likewise, Interviewee B believed the food preferences of the demographic were highly influenced by the aesthetics of social media culture. This content, he posits, contributes to a consumer’s love for food storytelling, but does not perform the heavy lifting required to inspire a real dedication to or knowledge of food provenance. However, both agreed that the fast casual food category is popular within the demographic and remains successful despite these shortcomings.

All interviewees acknowledged the perceived importance of food authenticity - not just to consumers, but from the Irish Food Board’s chosen food messaging. However, they also shared a certain distaste for the term, as well as expressing doubts for any way of consumers quantifying it:

“I don’t like the word authentic because I don’t think there is such a thing.” - Interviewee B

“Quality is valued highly by consumers, but it’s just a perception. Authenticity stops at the counter.” - Interviewee A

Interviewee B went so as far to say they don’t believe authenticity is truly possible in a fast casual category, let alone in copycats. He attributes this to the fundamental nature of fast casual operations, citing examples of visiting fast casuals and asking to speak with the chef, only to find many fast casuals did not have staff who self-defined as such. To a career chef (Interviewee B), this lack of culinary experimentation, management or quality control effectively limits the fast casual’s ability to produce an authentic product at all, regardless of its branding origins. Interviewee D, a chef behind a local sustainable breakfast hub, agrees that authenticity “doesn’t really matter” to Irish consumers. It’s a choice his restaurant has made because it is something he believes in, but he acknowledges his consumers don’t actually know the source of his ingredients and is likely a case of perception that earns their patronage.

“At the moment the buzzwords are all about ‘local, sustainable.’ As a food historian, I say ‘Here we go again.’” - Interviewee B

The cyclical nature of food trends was also addressed in the interviews. A historian of Irish food, Interviewee B states the current trend of authenticity and provenance is more likely a trend than a radical psychological shift. Embracing the locality of food, he states, first appeared as a trend in the nouvelle cuisine movement of the 1970s and has re-entered the discussion of Irish food culture many times. While he believes

“nothing is new,” he does see some form of innovation in fast casuals, in that many provide “something that is uniquely rich” - a signature high-calorie menu item that separates their menu from competitors. He notes it is difficult to get restaurant funding for a concept that has not been tested in Ireland, which puts a damper on restaurants’ ability to innovate. Yet, Interviewee A found that the life cycle of Dublin food trends remains faster than ever and supplying some form of “exotic non-homogenous fare” is vital to capturing public interest. Further, it appears consumers with an overt relationship to an “authentic and original” brand lead to a stronger judgment against the act of copycatting. For this consumer segment, highlighting a brand’s authentic and innovative qualities could be an effective approach to gaining a more positive perception. Gilmore and Pine’s (2007) suggestion of adding smaller authentic or innovative elements, like a weekly special, may be sufficient middle ground between copycatting and innovative branding based on the data received.

Legislation was cited as a potential trouble area for restaurateurs looking to open a food business. This “red tape nightmare” (Interviewee A) could help explain the prevalence of copycat restaurants in Dublin, as copycats are often owned by serial entrepreneurs with experience in quick, efficient restaurant openings. Interviewee A believes that the Vintners’ Association, the publican advocacy group, is the main impediment to a better restaurant culture in Dublin; “not quite cartel, but close”. The ability for a restaurant to sell alcohol under a full license in Ireland is exceedingly difficult, as pub licenses are made available on a fixed-number, bidding basis rather than case-by-case application. Interviewee A cites a similar license in the UK being available for less than 1,000 GBP, while Irish equivalent bids start at 100,000 EUR. Original restaurant owner Interviewee C reports his restaurant opening was pushed back six months in order to obtain and finance the transfer of a full pub license, a timeline that can be prohibitively expensive when accounting for operational costs like city centre leaseholds. This can discourage restaurants from pursuing the license at all, which hospitality expert Interviewee A finds vital to a “complete” dining experience. This has led most Irish consumers to divide their evening between restaurant and pub, which may explain the popularity of a “quick in, quick out” fast casual offer.

This “punitive” legislation (Interviewee A) towards restaurants selling alcohol appears to be a contributing factor to the copycat phenomenon in Ireland. For serial entrepreneurs who prioritise expediency and the bottom line, it appears more logical to open a fast casual that can fit into a portion of a consumer’s leisure time rather than try to retain customers for an entire evening. Many original/leader restaurant brands from outside Ireland are aware of Irish regulations and choose to not expand into the market for this reason (Interviewee A). Brands will sometimes provide the ability to franchise their offering, but this is not always the case. Knowing leaders are reluctant to enter the market, yet aware that Irish consumers are receptive to fast casuals, a space opens for copycat restaurants to fill.

The legislation barring restaurants to alcohol licensing appears directly related to the popularity of drink culture in Ireland. The Vintner’s Association is reported as having a

longstanding advantage through its lobbying efforts (Interviewee B), and the government's prioritisation of pubs is treated as de facto for the restaurant industry.

"Foreigners don't open Irish restaurants. They open Irish pubs." – Interviewee A

As a leisure activity, drinking often takes precedence over food consumption in Ireland. "I love the pub," says Interviewee D, "and I think part of why we're drawn to fast casuals is we can fit it in between the pubs on a night out." It appears culturally in Ireland, food functions as a practical necessity, while drinking is a socialising pleasure. While the overall interest in food is increasing in Dublin as the city grows, a lingering preference for pub over restaurant may explain the Irish consumers' general satisfaction with copycats.

One positive contribution found in multiple interviews is the fast casual's accessibility to a wide range of consumers. Their price point makes them more democratic than the "white tablecloth" dining that long dominated the Irish restaurant market (Interviewee B). Many experts view this as a benefit, as it brought the young demographic "out of the pub" and interested in food culture more than before. Fast casual owners, Interviewee D and Interviewee C, see this casualisation of the dining experience as a generally beneficial trend - it gives consumers the ability to experiment with foods that were previously inaccessible. However, the demand to provide diversity and value in a casual environment may inhibit the full potential for quality innovation in Dublin's restaurant market. As seen in the next theme, there are additional factors that prevent many from entering the market at all.

Interviewees D and C posit that from a consumer standpoint, the economic state of young Dublin professionals may contribute to the prioritisation of value in the restaurant survey (Mdn 4 - Very Important). While salaries have increased by less than 5% in most sectors in the past year, the cost of renting in Dublin has risen by 15% (CSO, 2011). This naturally leads to less disposable income for consumers. When combined with a general priority of pubs over restaurants as an evening experience, the importance of good value elevates further.

In the case of Dublin copycats, a disparity exists between the consumers' priority of food quality and resulting satisfaction, which some interviewees attributed to the nature of fast casual operations. Such restaurants rarely hire chefs to train cooks, finesse recipes, or source better-quality ingredients, all of which could help improve their Food Quality ranking. The exception to the fast casuals in this survey is Token, who employs a full-time chef who both introduces specials and continually trains employees. Token scored a "4 - Excellent" in Food Quality during the survey and won Dublin Restaurant of the Year at the Irish Food Awards in 2017, indicating a positive consumer response from this approach. The prioritisation of Food Quality may have the ripple effect of improving other attribute categories, such as Authenticity & Trustworthiness. While authenticity may not be worthwhile to focus on arbitrarily, there

appear to be advantages to taking a food quality focus where authenticity is an intrinsic component.

Qualitative insights are grounded in the internal structure of Dublin's restaurant legislation and culture, which reflect how consumers engage and maintain relationships with copycats. The same authenticity response - namely, that it functions as perceptual "lip service" rather than cornerstone of assessment (Interviewee A) - remained consistent across the quantitative and qualitative findings.

It is evident that there are cultural and economic reasons for the copycat phenomenon in Ireland, and that the consumers' responses fit inside these environmental factors.

Generally speaking, it appears consumers desired better food quality than they received in Dublin copycat fast casuals. Innovative or authentic details helped a restaurant's appeal, with the moderately similar restaurant performing best of the copycats. This indicates a Dublin consumers' desire for differentiation, while not completely discouraging the copycat practice.

Indeed, past experience with a copycat did not impact assessment, and valuations of authenticity often did not seem to correlate with copycat status. As bolstered by both survey and interviews, authenticity in the broader ideological sense was not considered an important concept. This suggests an open interpretation into its application for consumers.

While the original restaurant was met with high consumer ratings, its startup costs were increased due to punitive legislative and financial processes that revealed themselves in interviews. These factors ultimately suggest a prioritisation of the pub industry in the capital to the detriment of budding restaurateurs. This seems to permit copycat restaurateurs with large starting capital to enter a space where international leader brands or independent business owners cannot or do not fill.

Recommendations

While a copycat offering can in many ways be labelled objectively, assessment of its authenticity is far more fluid. If a restaurant copies another brand's menu and food operations, but then prioritises food provenance and local sourcing, these effects may even out their assessment by consumers. In many of the discussions, the consumer's core issue appears to be a devalued dining experience rather than copycatting itself. As seen in the consumer survey results, if a fast casual is to engage in copycatting, they must match or improve its quality to gain acceptance.

Based on the qualitative interviews, it appears the punitive relationship between restaurants and governmental bodies places restrictions on a more diverse fast casual landscape. Loosened regulation on full alcohol licenses, as well as measures towards further municipal rent control would be a welcome addition for the Dublin restaurateurs interviewed for the study. As proposed by Interviewee B, creation of an official union for Irish chefs could also be useful, as it would potentially curtail the migratory drain which sees many chefs leave Ireland for better training and higher wages. While there

is no clear way to prevent copycat restaurants from entering a market, providing easier routes for independent entrepreneurs in the restaurant sector could add quality and variety to Dublin's culinary landscape.

Conclusion

This study focused on the Irish fast casual industry and the position of copycat brands within the market. The fast casual sector is a rapidly growing dining category in Dublin which contributes not only to the economy, but the cultural fabric of the capital. One key conclusion showed that regarding copycat restaurants, patrons desired a better-quality experience than what was received – particularly when compared to the “authentic” restaurant. What the study was unable to prove, however, was a direct benefit of authenticity for authenticity's sake within Dublin restaurant branding. In moments where authenticity had a direct impact on a guest's restaurant experience – for instance, through higher quality ingredients – the benefits of authenticity became evident. However, other spaces emerged that painted authenticity's importance with broader brushstrokes. For instance, it did not appear from interviews that consumers had much idea of the true nature of the ingredients they were being served or who was preparing it, nor did consumers report outright distaste for the idea of copycatting in general. Rather, an integration of token authentic elements seemed to satisfy when it was applied in a meaningful way for consumers.

Another key takeaway from this study stemmed from the socioeconomic and legislative barriers faced by restaurant business owners in Dublin. Such factors have likely led to the spread of sub-optimal copycat restaurants. While the fast casual restaurant industry has grown in recent years, the scene has become increasingly competitive and expensive for entrepreneurs to join. This has led to an increased presence of large restaurant groups laying claim to multiple food brands and businesses, some containing copycats. The large starting capital of such groups enables them to perform serial restaurant openings at a time-sensitive rate. With economic barriers like a lack of funding for innovative concepts (Interviewee D), high municipal rents, and cost-prohibitive alcohol licenses, access to the Dublin restaurant industry has created a narrow and challenging funnel for entrepreneurs to pass through. Increased attention to this oligopolistic trend would likely allow for more creative and bespoke restaurant concepts to emerge, and a more “authentic where it matters” restaurant landscape in the city.

This study focused on fast casual restaurants and the position of copycat brands in the market. The fast casual industry plays an increasingly vital role in the Irish culinary landscape and provides a large amount of revenue to the State from both tourists and Irish residents. One key conclusion from this research is that the quality expectations of Irish residents are not currently being met.

This research was performed with the intention of understanding the Irish consumer's relationship to authenticity within a restaurant branding context. Such interest was borne from the researcher's experience developing the video game arcade restaurant Token. Token opened in Dublin in July 2017 after nearly two years of research and

development. It was a financial and commercial success upon opening and seemed to reinforce a previously untapped demand for the kind of nostalgia experience this restaurant concept provides.

Towards the end of the research, the author learned a new fast casual restaurant was set to open in Cork. It went from conception to launch in under three months, funded and owned by a large Irish entertainment group. From this new restaurant's menu design and arcade game selection, down to the small canvas bags used to hold their "signature tokens," some similarities struck the researcher as familiar. The restaurant's name differed, yet oddly, was shared with an arcade in Canada. This revelation personally confirmed the researcher's belief in the perennial, inevitable nature of restaurant copycatting in Ireland. It served as an apt metaphor for the unpredictability of being a leader brand, and to the researcher, justified a market investigation into this practice.

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A Preliminary Scoping Review Study of the Progress of Social Media Adoption as an Educational Tool by Academics in Higher Education.

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Abstract

This paper presents a preliminary scoping review exploring the evidence landscape regarding academic staff experiences and perceptions of social media adoption as an educational tool in higher education. The goal of this paper is to examine 10 empirical studies of social media adoption in teaching and learning by academics in preparation for a proposal for a systematic literature review. Consequently, this scoping study assisted in the development of a review protocol which established the inclusion and exclusion criteria for conducting this systematic review at a future date. This paper will present the first stage of carrying out a systematic review: planning the review and presenting the results of the scoping study. The findings of this scoping study revealed that academics are slow in adopting social media within teaching and academics that have adopted the use of social media do so primarily for sharing relevant information and resources easily with students rather than for teaching purposes. Overall, the adoption of social media as an educational tool is faced with many challenges, such as cultural resistance, pedagogical issues, lack of institutional support and time investment. The results also indicate that teaching styles, demographic factors, privacy issues and previous experience can influence academic staff's decision to adopt social media for teaching purposes.

Keywords: Social Media, Teaching and Learning, Higher Education

Introduction

The popularity of social networking among millennials, which includes students, has increased dramatically in the past few years because of the advances in Web 2.0 tools and technologies which offer a more convenient and effective way to communicate and interact among social groups (Nkhoma, Cong, Au, Lam, Richardson, Smith and El-Den, 2015). Social Networking Sites (SNSs) such as Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, Wiki, Blogs, and online games, have been widely used for information gathering and dissemination, collaborative learning and online social and professional connections (Cao, Ajjan and Hong, 2013). However, the use of SNSs within higher education is still very new and there is much to be researched in order to develop a better understanding of its use as an academic tool (Prescott, 2014). Much of the research on SNSs has concentrated on student experiences using specific branded social media tools: Twitter (Evans, 2014, Junco, Elavsky & Heiberger, 2013 and Junco, Heiberger & Loken, 2011), Facebook (Nkhoma et al., 2015) and YouTube (Jung and Lee, 2015).

A small number of studies have presented some evidence of the use of social media by academics for personal, professional and teaching purposes (Cao, et al., 2013; Manca and Ranieri, 2016a; Manca and Ranieri, 2016b; Manca and Ranieri, 2013). Therefore, the potential adoption of social media as an educational tool has received attention and interest. Despite this increasing interest, there is a lack of research investigating why or why not academics are adopting social media for teaching (Cao, et al., 2013; Prescott, 2014; Sobaih, Moustafa, Ghandforoush, and Khan, 2016; Manca and Ranieri, 2016a).

This paper sets out a novel approach to literature reviews within the educational research literature. It provides a proposal review based on a preliminary scoping study. A scoping review is necessary to assess the relevance and size of the literature and to delimit the subject area (Tranfield, Denyer and Smart, 2003). Findings of this review are presented in the result section of this paper. The methodology section explains the methods and processes used in the first stage of planning for the systematic literature review.

Social media within education

Social media can be defined as “a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, and that allow the creation and exchange of User Generated Content” (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010, p.61). It is a term that is broadly used and often described by example or not described at all. The

task of defining social media is made more challenging by the fact that it is constantly in a state of change (Tess, 2013). In the educational research literature, some authors use ‘social media’ interchangeably with ‘social web’ (Waycott, Sheard, Thompson, and Clerehan, 2013), or ‘social media applications’ (Cao et al., 2013). The term most commonly used is ‘social networking sites’ (SNSs) (Manca and Ranieri, 2013; Manca and Ranieri, 2016a; Manca and Ranieri, 2016b; Tess, 2013; Prescott, 2014; Scott, 2013).

Despite the terminological differences, ‘social media’ refers to a variety of applications which enable the creation, sharing, discussing and commenting on digital content (Manca and Ranieri, 2016b). These applications can be classified into more specific categories: collaborative projects (wikis), blogs, content communities (e.g. YouTube/Vimeo), social networking sites (e.g. Facebook), virtual game worlds, and virtual social worlds (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). Combining all dimensions of social media leads to a classification that can be visualised in Table 1.

Table 1: Classification of SNSs (Social Networking Sites)

Social/personal SNS	Professional or academic SNS	Content writing and delivery SNS	Collaborative projects SNS
Twitter	LinkedIn	Blogs	Wikis
Facebook	Research Gate	Podcasts	Forums
Instagram	Academia.edu	YouTube/Vimeo	
		SlideShare	

Adapted from Manca and Raineri (2016b), Cao et al. (2013) and Kaplan and Haenlein (2010)

Manca and Raineri (2016a) found a range of uses for SNSs including: personal use for connecting with family and friends; Teaching use as part of a course you are teaching (researching a topic, including in a lecture, as part of a student assignment, etc.); and (non-teaching) professional use for connecting with colleagues and staying up to date on areas of professional interest. According to Manca and Ranieri (2016b), even if faculty members have access to information technologies both at home and on campus, they mainly use these technologies for personal purposes and not for teaching purposes in their courses.

In order to meaningfully incorporate social media into teaching, it is imperative to establish what has been done successfully and what can be further improved. However, no up to date empirical review has been conducted in regard to this subject in recent years. The experiences and perceptions of academics' use of social media in higher education is underrepresented in the literature. So far, no systematic literature review has been conducted to provide a critical review of academics' adoption challenges. Most reviews to date mainly focus on exploring students' experiences and perceptions of social media use (Manca and Ranieri, 2013; Tess, 2013; Manca and Ranieri, 2016c).

Previous reviews of social media in educational contexts

For the corpus of empirical studies, only peer-reviewed journal articles were included. However, review articles of social media use were also read. The information within these review articles was used as part of the background information that informed this study.

Three relevant prior reviews of social media in educational contexts are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: Characteristics of the systematic literature reviews

Year	Study	Journal	Articles Reviewed	Keywords	Databases	Papers Published	Papers focus
2013	Manca and Ranieri <i>Is it a tool suitable for learning? A critical review of the literature on Facebook as a technology-enhanced learning environment</i>	Journal of Computer Assisted Learning Rank 23	23	Facebook	ERIC, ERC Web of Science, Scopus	2011-2012	Students and staff focused. Specifically investigating Facebook.

2013	Tess <i>The role of social media in higher education classes (real and virtual) – A literature review</i>	Computers in Human Behavior 3*	24	Facebook, Higher Education, Social Media, Social Media in Education, Myspace, LinkedIn, Web 2.0, Social Networking Sites and Blogs	Web of Science, EBSCO host, ERIC	2008-2012	Student and staff focused. Social Media and its role in higher education. Facebook, LinkedIn, Myspace, and Blogs.
2016	Manca and Ranieri (2016c) Is Facebook still a suitable technology-enhanced learning environment? An updated critical review of the literature from 2012 to 2015.	Journal of Computer Assisted Learning Rank 23	147	Facebook	ERIC, ERC Web of Science, Scopus	2012-2015	Student and staff focused. Specifically investigating Facebook.

Of the 24 empirical studies related to the adoption of social media as an educational tool, examined by Tess (2013) only 3 focused specifically on academics, with the rest focused on student's perceptions. His findings show that academics are slow in adopting social media as an educational tool and those who have adopted SNSs in an academic environment are in an experimental stage of its implementation. The reason for this may be that social media adoption is a choice made by the academic staff rather than the institution. Hence it may more of a trial that lends itself to action research and, ultimately, to more questions.

Manca and Ranieri (2013) reviewed 23 empirical studies on the use of Facebook as an educational tool. All of these studies were published between 2011 and 2012 and

only 3 studies were focused on academics. The results showed both that pedagogical uses of Facebook have only been moderately implemented in educational contexts and that there are many barriers preventing full adoption of Facebook as an educational tool. These barriers include; implicit institutional, teacher and student pedagogies, and cultural issues. In cases where Facebook was used in educational contexts, it was mainly used as a substitute for other Learning Management Systems (LMSs), relying on the familiarity of students with Facebook. When compared to a virtual learning environment, Facebook seemed to be used for delivering content and supporting interactions between students and student-educators. This suggested that social media does not necessarily encourage students to take part in formal education.

In 2016, Manca and Ranieri reviewed Facebook again but this time as a technology enhanced learning tool. All papers in this review were published between 2012 and 2015. This review confirmed again that Facebook is still mostly used as an open alternative to traditional LMSs, although some different academic tasks are now also displayed using Facebook, such as; posting assignments, content delivery, feedback provision, promoting social interaction, collaboration and peer learning according to the principles of socio-constructivist and connectivism frameworks. Almost half of the studies in this review reported pedagogical reasons to use Facebook as an educational tool for formal use in formal settings, or to use Facebook as a supportive and interactive tool for learning in informal uses. The interest in the pedagogical dimension assessed Facebook as an environment that facilitates the interaction between formal education and real life. Facebook links personal experiences and institutional knowledge and enables the connection of course materials to timely real-world examples by supporting self-directed learning.

Methodology

The present study

This scoping review is a preliminary study to assist the development of a systematic literature review, with the aim of understanding social media adoption challenges by academics in higher education in the last five years from 2013 to 2017. This scoping study is the first stage of a systematic literature review. The process of systematic review involves three stages: Stage I: planning the review; Stage II: conducting the review; and Stage III: reporting and dissemination. This paper addresses the different phases of Stage I.

Systematic reviews are literature reviews that closely follow a set of scientific methods that aim to limit bias, mainly by attempting to identify, appraise and synthesize all relevant studies in order to answer a particular question. It could be compared to a

survey – however in this case it involves a survey of the literature, rather than people (Petticrew and Roberts, 2006).

“Systematic reviews in medicine, psychology, and education tend to focus on efficacy of interventions. For example, whether a specific curriculum increases student standardized math test scores. However, reviews in these disciplines also explore causal effects, determine cost effectiveness, and generate theories” (Borrego, Foster and Froyd, 2014; p.48).

Systematic reviews originated in the field of medicine during the 1980s and in the UK in the early 1990s two centres were established to prepare and maintain systematic reviews of the effects of health care interventions – the UK Cochrane Centre in 1993, and the NHS Centre for Reviews and Dissemination in 1994 (Petticrew and Roberts, 2006). The number of systematic reviews published in medicine, psychology, and education has dramatically increased in the past decade (Borrego, Foster and Froyd, 2014). The education sector has sought rigor in its approach to selecting relevant literature to review. As a consequence three organisations have made good progress in creating reviews and developing methods for Systematic Literature Reviews (SLRs): The Campbell Collaboration, the Cochrane Collaboration and the Centre for Evidence-informed Policy and Practice in Education (EPPI-Centre) (Gough, Oliver and Thomas, 2017).

Cochrane Collaboration has developed a rigorous approach to the preparation of systematic reviews with a structured review model which includes a handbook: Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions (last updated March 2011). Preparing a Cochrane review is a complex process and requires making many judgements which may increase the risk of bias in the review process. For instances, review authors' prior knowledge of the results of a study may influence the definition of a systematic review question. Therefore, it is important that the methods used are established and documented at the very beginning of the review. Protocols for Cochrane reviews prior to knowledge of the available studies reduces the impact of biases and promotes transparency of methods and processes (Higgins and Green, 2008).

For this research, ten empirical studies were identified as eligible publications for the preparation of conducting the systematic literature review. The findings of this scoping review are displayed in three different categories: a) social media usage, b) factors that influence social media adoption for teaching, c) challenges in using social media for teaching.

The systematic literature review process

The authors of this review followed the Systematic Literature review stages suggested by Tranfield, et al. (2003), adapted from The Cochrane Collaboration's Cochrane Reviewers' Handbook and the National Health Service Dissemination (2001). He provided three stages in conducting a literature review; Stage I: planning the review, Stage II: conducting the review, and Stage III: reporting and dissemination.

Stage I–Planning the review

Phase 0 - Identification for the need for a review

Petticrew and Roberts (2006) suggested a systematic literature review is an appropriate method for the following situations:

1. When research shows clear uncertainty about the effectiveness of a policy for adoption of guidelines and procedures by policy makers. Evidence for this is shown in; Rambe and Nel (2015), Sobaih, et al. (2016) and Cao, et al. (2013).
2. When there is a wide range of research on the area, but key research questions remain unanswered. This claim is supported by research from Manca and Ranieri (2016a and 2016b).

The researcher needs to decide on a definitive review question. The review question is critical to a systematic review as other aspects of the process flow from it (Tranfield et al., 2003). The review question aids in the making of key decisions such as: what types of studies to include; where to find them; how to assess their quality; and how to pool their findings. Each of these answers will affect decisions about inclusion or exclusion criteria (Gough, Oliver and Thomas, 2017).

The review question should specify the types of population (participants), types of interventions (and comparisons), and the types of outcomes that are of interest. The acronym PICO (Participants, Interventions, Comparisons and Outcomes) helps to serve as a reminder of these (Higgins and Green, 2008). Petticrew and Roberts (2006) provided a framework based on the PICOC: five components of a clear systematic review question; Population, Intervention, Comparison, Outcomes, Context (PICOC).

Table 3: Adapted from Petticrew and Roberts (2006) and Borrego, Foster and Froyd (2014).

PICOC Framework component	This systematic literature review – the answers
Population: Which populations are we interested in? How can they best be described? Do any subgroups need to be considered?	Academics who have adopted or are adopting social media within their teaching.
Intervention: Which intervention, activity or approach should be used?	Social media adoption as an educational tool.
Comparison: What is/are the main alternative/s to the intervention being considered?	Teaching with technology but not social media .
Outcome: which outcomes are the most relevant for answering the question?	The theoretical learning frameworks: utilitarian, social constructivism, pragmatism. Drivers of adoption. Adoption processes framework.
Context: what is the context within which the intervention is delivered? how was the intervention delivered? what aided and/or hindered its impact, how the process of implementing was carried out, and what factors may have contributed to its success or failure?	The impact of the adoption of social media as an educational tool The factors contributed to the adoption Challenges/barriers to adoption – success and failure Teacher-led interventions

Table 3 shows a conceptual framework for this review. This framework informs and structures clear research questions and helps to establish appropriate research designs and methods. This conceptual framework may be regarded as a working hypothesis that can be advanced, refined or confirmed during research (Higgins and Green, 2008).

In Cochrane reviews, questions can be stated as review objectives, and specified in detail as criteria of inclusion and exclusion. A statement of the review's objectives should be of the form 'To assess the effects of [intervention or comparison] for [health problem] in [types of people, disease or problem and setting if specified]' (Higgins and Green, 2008). For this review the review objective can be stated as:

"To assess the progress of social media adoption as an educational tool by academics in higher education".

Review questions that focus mainly on evaluating the extent to which the intervention is effective in terms of its impacts are the most common reasons for conducting systematic reviews (Anderson et al., 2013). Petticrew and Roberts (2006, p.57)

suggested that review questions of the form “what works?” are best answered by synthesis of quantitative studies, while review questions of the form “what matters?” are best addressed through synthesis of qualitative studies.

Table 4 includes examples of review questions for this systematic literature review.

Table 4: Review Questions

What works? (quantitative)	What matters? (qualitative)
What adoption processes support social media adoption within a teaching strategy?	How is the adoption of social media as an educational tool by academics progressing?
	What challenges, from an academic perspective, does the adoption of social media as an educational tool raise?

Typical conceptual frameworks for reviews of effects specify a causal link between who the review is about (the population), what the review is about (an intervention and what it is being compared with), and the possible consequences of intervening in the lives of these people (desirable and undesirable outcomes) (Gough, Oliver and Thomas, 2017).

Phase 1 - Preparation of a proposal for a review

At the initial stages of this review process, a scoping study was conducted to assess the subject area. A search was conducted in Stella Search Trinity College Dublin. The following search terms were used; “social media” “higher education”, “social media adoption” “academics”. A vast variety of literature was found, which included technology enhanced learning and e-learning literature. Such studies considered cross-disciplinary perspectives and alternative ways in which technology (social media and other technology) and e-learning strategies have previously been addressed. It was decided that the main focus of this review will be on adoption challenges of social media as an educational tool in higher education. Therefore, a more specific selection of articles was carried out through the application of a number of criteria: (1) studies that specifically investigated academics experiences towards the adoption of social media in higher education (2) studies that were published in peer-reviewed high-ranking journals (3) studies published from 2012 to date. Originally, 16 articles were identified. After reviewing the articles, it was noted that studies published in 2012

contained data collected from 2009/2010 and, hence, would be removed from this study as the aim of this review is to draw on recent data. Articles focused on technology adoption rather than social media adoption were also removed from this review as this review aims specifically to address the adoption of social media. Therefore, a proposal for a review of the remaining 10 studies was carried out (see appendix 1). The results of the scoping study are presented in the results section of this paper.

Phase 2 - Development of a review protocol

Similar to any research study, a systematic review needs a detailed protocol describing the process and methods that will be used and how different types of study will be located, appraised, and synthesized (Petticrew and Roberts, 2006). The term used for the specification of the characteristics of such studies is called the inclusion criteria (Higgins and Green, 2008).

The scoping study carried out in preparation for this review has helped to establish the inclusion and exclusion criteria of this review. A scoping review involves a search of the literature to determine what sorts of studies have been carried out, where they are published, in which databases they have been indexed, what sorts of outcomes they have assessed, and in which populations (Petticrew and Roberts, 2006).

The materials included in this scoping review study were composed of ten empirical studies. The studies were grouped according to the research methods employed. Among the papers selected for this review, three carried out a quantitative research method approach, five a qualitative research method. Of this latter group, two were longitudinal studies and three used a mixed methods approach (see appendix 2).

The studies carried out using quantitative methods used questionnaires and surveys. The qualitative-based research approaches included telephone interviews, self-narrative reflections, and research interviews. Lastly, the mixed method approaches conducted interviews which were then followed by surveys.

In term of geographical distribution, three of the studies were published in Australia, two in the UK, two in Italy, one in South Africa, one in the USA and one in Egypt. Half of the studies (n=5) were conducted in one university setting, two studies were conducted in three universities, and one in eight universities. One quantitative study was carried out at a national level with all academic faculty employed in the Italian higher education system which has been subject to two different publications.

With reference to the aims of studies, most of the studies aimed at evaluating the use of social media as an educational tool by academics in higher education (n=9), while only one study explores the reasons why academics stop using technology in their teaching. The majority of the studies (n=9) are focused on a variety of SNSs while only one is focused on Facebook as a single social media tool.

There are at least three types of inclusion criteria: The first type is criteria for selecting databases that will be searched for articles, the second type is a set of combinations of search words (keywords) or phrases and logical connectors (AND, OR...) and the third type of criteria guides selection of articles that will be analysed (Borrego, Foster and Froyd, 2014).

The main types of databases that can be used to locate primary resources were explored and compared to those used in other SLRs studies related to the review question for this research and related to other education research related studies. The databases used for this review are the main two subject or disciplinary databases such as ERIC and Education Full Text (EBSCO) which have been used in previous SLRs reviewed in the scoping study, the two general databases mostly used in this review are Scopus and Web of Science. Academic Search Complete (EBSCO) was also added to include any business-related studies as this research is been carried out by the business school. Searching a different range of databases guarantees that relevant studies are found despite the discipline in which they were published and indexed (Borrego, Foster and Froyd, 2014).

This review will not include any grey literature, such as conference papers, books, book chapters, dissertations, theses, government documents, white papers and proposal. This review intends to be published in high ranking journals, hence only peer reviewed research will be included.

Keyword criteria

The top three keywords from the scoping review are: teaching, social media and University. For a Cochrane review, the structure of a search strategy should be based on the main concepts being examined in the review questions (Higgins and Green, 2008). To further assist in the selection of appropriate keywords for the search strategy the researcher created a table of possible key words which integrates every aspect of the review questions (see Table 5).

Table 5: Search Terms

Technology	Teaching & learning	Staff	Institution	Verb
Social Media	Teaching	Academic*	University	Adoption
Facebook	Learning	Staff	College	Apply
Twitter	e-learning	Teacher	Third level	Use
LinkedIn	Technology enhanced learning	Faculty	Institution	Discontinuation
Technology	Education	Lecturer	Higher education	Reject
Web 2.0	Online learning	Educator*	Executive	Implement
Online communities	Educational technology		Business	
Social networking sites			Management	
Social media networks				
Social networks				
Social interactions				
Internet				
Social software				
Blogs				

Search terminology evolved over several iterations to establish a search string with the main keywords from the review questions as shown below:

("Social media" OR "web 2.0" OR "social software" OR Facebook OR LinkedIn OR Twitter OR Instagram OR WhatsApp OR snapchat OR Pinterest) AND (University OR College OR "third level" OR Institution OR "Higher education" OR "executive education") AND (academ* OR staff OR teach* OR faculty OR lecturer OR educator OR professor*) AND (adopt* OR apply OR use OR discontin* OR reject OR implement) AND (teaching OR learning OR e-learning OR educat* OR technolog*)

Inclusion criteria

1. Empirical studies assessing the adoption of social media as an educational tool by academics in higher education.
2. These studies must be published in peer-reviewed high-ranking journals (at least 2 stars in the ABS ranking or ranked within 100 in the Education ranking)
3. Papers must be published from 2013 onwards
4. Papers must be published in English

Exclusion criteria

1. Studies assessing the use of social media in schools or any other non-third level institutions.
2. Studies assessing the use of social media by students
3. Newspaper articles, letters, editorials and grey material.

Results

The synthesis of the scoping study revealed three main concepts and several sub-concepts from the 10 empirical studies reviewed which are linked to the three research questions proposed for conducting the systematic literature review. This is visualised in Table 6 and described in the following sections.

Social media usage

Seven studies reported that academics are mainly using SNSs to share content material with students easily (Scott, 2013; Waycott et al., 2013; Haines, 2015; Rambe and Nel, 2015; Manca, and Ranieri, 2016a, 2016b; Shelton, 2017). For example, Manca and Ranieri (2016b) found that social media are mainly used to visualise resources, no matter what tool is considered. In three other studies, researchers found that academics use SNSs as communication tools (Prescott, 2014; Rambe and Nel, 2015; Sobaih et al., 2016). Rambe and Nel (2015) found that academics' favourable views of social media revolved around its potential to support contact with students by increasing communication and providing feedback, as well as providing support for social constructivist teaching style.

"The inclusion of digital media makes my teaching more interactive and fun for the students and encourages them to put more time on the subject" (Rambe and Nel, 2015, p.636).

This suggests that social media serves as an important vehicle for supporting interactive, social constructivist modes of teaching. However, Manca and Ranieri (2016b) suggested that the incorporation of more participatory practices into formal settings of learning can raise tensions that may prevent academics from adopting social media in their current practices and thus suggest a certain skepticism in using SNSs in as a constructivist education tool. Similarly, Manca and Ranieri (2016a) revealed that SNS's use for education means to circulate information about the course or to support communication, and that the main trend is to share rather than to creatively produce content.

Factors that influence social media adoption for teaching

Some of the most commonly cited factors that influence the adoption of social media for teaching are privacy issues and loss of control (Waycott et al., 2013; Rambe and Nel, 2015; Manca and Ranieri, 2016a and 2016b; Sobaih et al., 2016; Shelton, 2017). Academics' are concerned about the lack of inquiry-based learning, perceived privacy violations, plagiarism and time investments needed to effectively design social media-enhanced learning tasks (Rambe and Nel, 2015). Demographic variables such as age, gender, seniority, and scientific discipline also influenced faculty members' decisions to use SNSs for educational purposes (Scott, 2013; Manca and Ranieri, 2016b).

Cao et al. (2013) presented the only study in this review which applies a technology adoption model (TAM) framework to explain social media adoption by academics. This model modified a social media utilization model established by Cao and Hong in 2011 which incorporated the following factors: perceived usefulness, external pressure, perceived risk, social media readiness, social media utilization in teaching, task-technology compatibility, student satisfaction and student learning outcomes. Their results showed that task-technology compatibility of social media plays the most important role in predicting the use of social media by academics, whereas academics' skills and knowledge in using social media is not directly related to social media use. Thus, knowing how to use social media is not enough to determine its use as academics prioritise the fit between social media and subject taught prior to their decision to use social media.

Challenges in using social media for teaching

The biggest challenge for academics in adopting social media was the lack of institutional support (Waycott et al., 2013; Prescott, 2014; Rambe and Nel, 2015; Manca, and Ranieri, 2016a and 2016b; Sobaih et al., 2016; Shelton, 2017). Applying a new learning style which integrates social media in teaching required approval by policy makers in public higher education (Sobaih et al., 2016). While academics may be drawn to integrating social media into their teaching, they must adhere to the established practices and regulations of higher education institutions (Waycott et al., 2013).

Cultural resistance and pedagogical issues are other reasons why academics are not motivated to integrate social media into their teaching practices (Manca, and Ranieri, 2016b). In terms of pedagogical issues, Waycott et al.'s (2013) findings revealed

conflict between the ideals of social learning and the values of learning which underpin traditional university assessment practices. For example, the key benefit of making a student's work visible to other students through social media is to increase social and collaborative learning, enabled by knowledge sharing, peer review and the ability to co-author content. This conflicts with traditional university assessment practices which are individualist and competitive.

Other challenges in adopting social media for teaching practices include the time investments required to prepare and design social media enhanced learning materials (Rambe and Nel, 2015; Sobaih et al., 2016). This is evidenced by the responses gathered by Rambe and Nel (2015): "Social media is very attractive for my teaching. [I just] don't know of good short videos" and "digital technology like social media is very attractive but very time consuming to design and prepare" (Rambe and Nel, 2015, p. 643).

This synthesis revealed three main concepts and several sub-concepts from the 10 reviewed studies which are linked to the three research questions proposed for this PhD study. This can be visualised in Table 6.

Table 6: Synthesis: Concepts and Research Questions.

Concept	Sub-concept	Studies
Social Media usage <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; width: fit-content;"> RQ1: How is the adoption of social media as an educational tool by academics progressing? </div>	Communication	Prescott (2014); Rambe and Nel (2015); Sobaih et al. (2016).
	Sharing information and resources (improve accessibility)	Haines (2015); Manca and Ranieri (2016a, and 2016b); Rambe and Nel (2015); Scott (2015); Shelton (2017); Waycott et al. (2013).
	Student to student Collaboration Co-Creation	Haines (2015); Shelton (2017); Waycott et al. (2013).
	For assessment (assessment for learning)	Waycott et al (2013).

	Supports constructivism teaching styles	Rambe and Nel (2015); Scott (2015); Waycott et al. (2013).
Factors that influence social media adoption for teaching <div> RQ2: What adoption processes support social media adoption within teaching strategy? </div>	Teaching style	Cao et al (2013); Prescott (2014).
	Demographic factors	Manca and Ranieri (2016a and 2016b); Scott (2015).
	Previous experience	Manca and Ranieri (2016a and 2016b); Scott (2015).
	Task-technology compatibility	Cao et al. (2013); Rambe and Nel (2015).
	Cultural resistance	Manca and Ranieri (2016a and 2016b); Sobaih et al. (2016); Shelton (2017); Waycott et al. (2013).
Challenges in using social media as an education tool <div> RQ3: What challenges does the adoption of social media mean from an academic perspective? </div>	Pedagogical issues	Prescott (2014) Rambe and Nel (2015). Scott (2015); Sobaih et al. (2016).
	Lack of institutional support	Manca and Ranieri (2016a and 2016b); Prescott (2014); Rambe and Nel (2015); Shelton (2017); Sobaih et al. (2016); Waycott et al. (2013).
	Time investment	Rambe and Nel (2015); Sobaih et al. (2016).
	Privacy issues	Manca and Ranieri (2016a and 2016b); Rambe and Nel (2015); Shelton (2017); Sobaih et al. (2016); Waycott et al. (2013).

Conclusion

This scoping review study is timely as social media as an educational tool has gained popularity amongst academics. The review of the 10 articles included in this paper was framed around three major research questions. First, the findings indicated that

academics are slow at adopting social media within their teaching and if/when social media is used, academics use it for improving accessibility to resources or class materials. Second, knowing how to use social media for personal use is not enough to determine its use for teaching as academics are concerned about privacy issues, plagiarism and time investments needed to effectively design social media-enhanced learning tasks. Third, the biggest challenge for academics is the lack of institutional support and guidance when implanting social media within their teaching. This scoping study enlightens stage II of the SLR process, conducting the review, with well-informed criteria of inclusion and exclusion. As presented in the methodology, a detailed protocol for the methods employed going forward have been established. Keywords, databases, inclusion and exclusion criteria will be the initial protocol for conducting the systematic literature review.

The number of studies included in this review was deemed sufficient for the preparation of a review proposal to assist the development of a protocol. As with all reviews, the current study does not claim to be comprehensive, and it was carried out to understand the size and scope of a systematic review development process on the adoption challenges of social media by academics in higher education. This research area lacks substantial empirical evidence, hence the limited number of studies in this review.

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Appendix One: Summary of empirical studies for the Scoping study.

Study	Journal/ Ranking	Theoretical Framework	Methodology	Data Sources	Participants	Major Findings
Cao, Aijan and Hong (2013)	British Journal of Educational Technology Rank 50	Bloom's Taxonomy and TAM model	Mixed-method	Interviews and Surveys	168 faculty members for survey/12 faculty members for interviews	The decision on social media use by faculty is highly dependent on external pressure, perceived usefulness, perceived risk and task-technology compatibility, this last one being the most important one. They consider social media applications and the subject taught prior their decision. the study proves the use of social media provides better learning outcomes and better satisfaction to students. The results indicate that management must work with faculty to identify the SM that fit specific subjects and teaching styles and match them with appropriate training.
Haines (2015)	Language Learning & technology Rank 109	None	Qualitative	Semi- structured interviews	16 language teachers in university but focused on two teachers	This study interviewed 3 times over 14 months data collection two language teachers which were the most experienced with digital technologies in the classroom for 15 years. They were asked to reflect on their use of new tools blogs and wikis. Three main points raised from both teachers' in terms of developing their understanding of affordance were: Perceptions of learning affordance develop over time and through experimenting and through informal means rather than informally. These perceptions differ between individual teachers as it is influenced by their beliefs about how best to support learning process. They may also perceive affordances in the use of

Manca and Ranieri (2016a)	Internet and higher education Rank 16	None	Quantitative	Survey	6139 faculty members	<p>technology for their personal learning and professional development.</p> <p>The study provides an analysis of academic staff uses of Social Media and the relationship between them. Faculty members are more inclined to adopt Social Media for personal sharing and professional connections with peers than to incorporate these tools in their teaching practices. Like previous technologies (e.g., computer and the Internet), Social Media do not seem to easily fit within pre-existing instructional practices and their adoption would require investment of time in a situation where teaching is less valued than research for professional career development. There are exceptions, such as Podcasts or SlideShare, which seem to confirm this general trend, since both Podcasts or SlideShare are content delivery tools that can more easily be adapted to the traditional lecturing model which still prevails in universities</p>
Manca and Ranieri (2016b)	Computers & Education Rank 15	None	Quantitative	Survey	6139 faculty members	<p>Social media has a low level of faculty adoption. 40% using at least one tool on a monthly basis and less than 40% declaring that SM are useful for teaching purposes. Gender has a limited impact on decision to use SM for teaching. Males preferred twitter and females the use of podcasts, you tube vimeo research gate academia.edu and slideshare. FB and Twitter are used by younger academics and mainly used to motivate students. Blogs/wikis, podcasts, youtube vimeo, slideshare and research gate and academia.edu are seen to improve the quality of teaching or to share educational content. Academics</p>

Prescott (2014)	Active learning in higher education Rank 100	Teacher-centered and learner-centered (only mentioned)	Quantitative	Survey	172 faculty educators	are using FB and blog-wiki to prepare their lectures and to support collaborative work among students. Twitter and LinkedIn were used to circulate info about the course and to encourage community building. Perceived usefulness is an important factor that motivates the use of SM and perceived risk affects motivation to use them, i.e. the issue of privacy, the management of relationships with students.
Rambe and Nel (2015)	British Journal of Educational Technology Rank 50	None	Qualitative	Observation	12 educators	Findings suggest that faculty use FB for their social lives, and few of them use it within their teaching. Those who use FB within their teaching do for communicating and sharing information and resources with students rather than more formal learning. Therefore the way staff use FB for their teaching is consistent with the informal learning approach. Educators' generally favorable reports on social media articulated its capacity to breach social media distance between them and students, support communication between student-educator, foster socio-constructivist teaching through the sharing of teaching materials and professional identities, and develop intellectual capital through the strengthening of affinity and interest-based networks. Some negative perceptions of social media were related to infrastructure constraints, time investments and the distractive nature of social media. Complexity and uncertainty of teaching with social media persisted, academics complained about difficulties in locating pedagogically appropriate learning materials and a

Scott (2013)	British Journal of Educational Technology Rank 50	None	Qualitative Longitudinal study	Interviews 2 years	1 academic	lack of appropriate media channels for teaching and watching digital videos Examined one academic transition from face to face to blended learning using LMS and then an SNS, Ning and Facebook. Heidi (the academic) change in beliefs and practices was due to reflection, discussion and collaboration with colleagues. She carried out an interactive process involving evaluation. Age and prior experience affected Heidi's adopting an SNS such as Facebook. This study demonstrated the value of using longitudinal research for examining change in e-learning beliefs and practices.
Shelton (2017)	Technology, Pedagogy and Education Rank 94	None	Qualitative	Interviews	11 lecturers	This study reveals that lecturers sometimes give up using a technology when new technologies appear and after unsuccessful experiences and that this may or may not be a voluntary decision. Furthermore, lecturers interviewed have also ceased the use of social media, the wider context of developments in how students used technology in their lives outside of teaching was perceived as a reason for the failure of discussion forums and later FB as social learning spaces. Students feel uncomfortable if they believe their social life and study life are being blended and that they may be concerned about their privacy.
Sobaid, Moustafa and Ghandforoush (2016)	Computers in Human Behavior 3*	None	Mixed method	Survey and in-depth interviews	86 professors for survey and 27 professors	This study confirms that hospitality and tourism faculty agreed that social media has substantial value for use for academic-related purposes particularly as a learning tool. However, the actual use was at a minimal level and they identified 11 barriers for the

Waycott, Sheard, Thompson and Clerehan (2013)	Computers & Education Rank 15	None	Qualitative	Interviews	20 lecturers	for interviews	use of social media for academic-related purposes: privacy and security, time commitment, loss of control and monitoring, digital divide, variation in mobile services, grading and assessment integration with LMS, institution support, infrastructure, ethical issues and awareness by students on how to use social media as a teaching and learning tool. This study concludes supporting that social media encourages students to communicate, collaborate, participate and create in-depth learning through interaction. Higher education institutions need to embrace today's learning and shift to new era of social learning where learning is student-center and the role of educators are coaching and mentoring.
							This study addresses the use of social web technologies for student assessment in higher education by mainly using blogging, and wikis to make students work visible to others. The research shows that this has clear opportunities for teaching and learning but lecturers need to develop strategies to avoid conflict between the ideals of social learning and the practicalities of assessment policy and procedures, for example felt others can steal their work and they feel vulnerable representing themselves online.

Appendix Two: Demographics of empirical studies

Research Method	Geographical area	Setting	Social Media Investigated	Aims
Quantitative	UK	One university	Single Facebook	Evaluate how teaching staff use Facebook and their attitudes towards Facebook and online professionalism, in terms of student-staff relationship.
	Italy	All academic faculty employed in the Italian higher education system	Multiple	Identify the uses of social media in the field of university teaching practices
	Italy	All academic faculty employed in the Italian higher education system	Multiple	Provide empirical evidence on how higher education scholars are using social media for personal, teaching and professional purposes.
Qualitative	Australia	Three Universities	Multiple	Identify the implications for learning and teaching that emerge when students' assessable work is made visible to others via social media.
	Australia	One university	Multiple	Examines how one teacher changed from teaching fully face to face to teaching blended learning, initially using a LMS, then an SNS
	South Africa	One university	Multiple	Explores the use of social media by Computer Science and Informatics educators to unravel how their perceptions of social media informs their pragmatic instructional uses of these technologies.
	UK	Three universities	Multiple	Explores why university lecturers stop using technology. This included Facebook as an up-to-date or innovative technology or practices
	Australia	One university	Multiple	Describes the perceptions of the affordances of two computer-mediated communication (CMC) tools (blogs and wikis) developed over time by two language university teachers.
Mixed Method	Egypt	Eight higher educational institutions	Multiple	Examines the value and use of social media as effective teaching and learning tool in higher

				education in developing countries
	USA	One university	Multiple	<p>Examines the value and use of social media as effective teaching and learning tool in higher education in developing countries.</p> <p>Focuses on the educational outcomes and examined a research model of antecedents and consequences of social media use.</p>

Failure to Launch: The Unfulfilled Promise of Eportfolios in Irish higher education: An Opinion Piece

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Abstract

In this article, the unfulfilled promise of eportfolio in Irish higher education is critiqued. The article analyses the factors that have led to the slow pace of eportfolio adoption in Ireland, in contrast to the ubiquitous nature of eportfolio practice in higher education worldwide. The emergence of an Irish eportfolio community indicates that eportfolio are gaining traction in Irish higher education but to fulfil their promise academics need to be supported in their professional development, funding is required for empirical research and a greater understanding of eportfolio purposes and pedagogy should be developed in the Irish academic community.

Introduction

This article considers why eportfolio practice has not emerged at scale in Irish higher education, this trend is out of alignment with the ubiquitous nature of eportfolio practice in higher education worldwide (Harding, 2018). In the context of Irish higher education, the unfilled promise refers to the absence of campus wide, institutional and sectoral approaches to eportfolio. The slow pace of adoption of eportfolios in Ireland is due to three factors: a lack of government policy drivers; no distinct Irish eportfolio community; and a scarcity of funding.

An eportfolio can be defined in many ways as it can fulfil many functions, it can be a tool or technology, a practice, a pedagogical model, an assessment method and a framework for learning (Chen and Black, 2010). A learning-oriented eportfolio definition by Corley and Zubizarretta (2012, p.65) conceptualises it as “a vehicle for bringing together judiciously selected samples of students’ work and achievements inside and outside the classroom for authentic assessment over time... it becomes more than a product, a simple repository of artefacts; it becomes a process”.

Originating from eighteenth-century Italy, portfolios were used by artists, musicians, writers, and architects to carry, protect and show their work (Bryant and Chittum, 2013). Portfolio assessment began in the 1980’s in America. Emerging from the

disciplines of Teacher Education, Art and English and used by students to collect their work and reflect on what they had learned (Lorenzo and Ittelson, 2005). In the early 1990's, electronic portfolios emerged, harnessing the technologies of the digital revolution, in conjunction with the growth of learner centred and constructivist learning theories. The new forms of learning enabled by Web 2.0 technologies combined with a growing attention in higher education quality and the measurement of learning through outcomes-based assessment further increased eportfolio practice in higher education around the world (Eynon and Gambino, 2017).

There is growing evidence of the impact of eportfolio practice on student learning, research suggests that eportfolio based assessment enables students to integrate their learning and make connections between modules in an authentic and meaningful way (Buente et al., 2015; Eynon and Gambino, 2017; Morreale et al., 2017). Further, the literature indicates that learning with an eportfolio can foster a sense of belonging to a community and collaboration with peers (Barbera, 2009; Bolliger and Shepherd, 2010). In addition, research indicates that eportfolios can enable students to learn in a self-regulated way (Alexiou and Paraskeva, 2010; Jenson, 2011; Nguyen and Ikeda, 2015).

Eportfolios around the world

Eportfolios are increasingly common in higher education around the world. In America, 57% of colleges are using eportfolios (Eynon and Gambino, 2017). Similarly, in the UK, 78% of universities have an institutional eportfolio platform (UCISA, 2014). The scale of eportfolio adoption in New Zealand is truly widespread, where every educational institution has access to a government supported and developed eportfolio called MyPortfolio based on the Mahara platform (Maher and Gerbic, 2009). In order to facilitate the transparent recognition of skills and qualifications in Europe, the Europass eportfolio was created in 2000 by the European Union. The Europass makes the users' skills and qualifications clearly and easily understood in Europe (Europass, 2018).

Drivers for adoption

Based on a critical analysis of the eportfolio literature, Farrell (2018) identifies three drivers of eportfolio adoption in higher education: government policy; eportfolio communities; and funding for eportfolio practice and research. These drivers are present in all of the countries, such as America, UK, and New Zealand, where eportfolio has been adopted successfully at scale in higher education.

Government policy can impact eportfolio adoption; for example, in the UK, one of the major drivers of eportfolio adoption was the government policy on Personal Development Planning (PDP) which was first featured in the Dearing Report (Dearing, 1997) which recommended the introduction of student progress files "a means by which students can monitor, build and reflect upon their personal development". In 2001, the Higher Education Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) built on this

recommendation and published guidelines that included a minimum level of institutional engagement with PDP. In response to the QAA policy on PDP, many UK Universities began using eportfolio tools to support PDP. This was a key driver for institutional eportfolio initiatives (Joyes, Gray, and Hartnell-Young 2010; Strivens and Ward, 2010).

Communities of practice are of central importance to successful eportfolio implementation and adoption. In countries where strong vibrant communities developed, there is a clear link to widespread eportfolio practice. One of the most effective ways of fostering scholarship and research in higher education is to form a community. This concept is based on Wenger's theory of community of practice (1998, p.6) which is defined as "a group of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do, and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly."

An example of a thriving eportfolio community based in the USA and Canada is the Association for Authentic Experiential and Evidence Based Learning (AAEEBL) founded in 2009 which has hundreds of members based in higher education. AAEEBL holds several annual conferences and publishes a journal *The International Journal of Eportfolio* (AAEEBL, 2018). The AAEEBL community is very active and promotes evidence-based approaches to eportfolio practice which focus on pedagogy.

Government funding for eportfolio practice and research is fundamental to widespread eportfolio adoption at higher education level. This is evident in Australia where the Australian Eportfolio Project (AeP) 2007-2010 was funded by the government through the Carrick Institute for Learning and Teaching in Higher Education. This research study investigated approaches of eportfolio use by students in Australian universities in relation to the scope, penetration, reasons for use and implementation of eportfolio (Hallam and Creagh, 2010). The project provided a snapshot of eportfolio use in Australia at the time and identified policies and standards to foster eportfolio use in higher education (Hallam and Creagh, 2010). As part of the project, an eportfolio community was founded and annual conference was established, both of which have been critical to the fostering of a vibrant eportfolio community in Australia.

What about Ireland?

In Ireland there is an absence of explicit government policy specifically in relation to the adoption of eportfolio in higher education, compared to the government policy drivers in the UK, U.S., Australia and New Zealand. In Ireland, the current mission of higher education, as stated in the National Strategy for Higher Education to 2030 (The Hunt Report) is to widen participation, increase student numbers, improve retention and become much more flexible (DES, 2011). In response to this strategy, the National Forum for the Enhancement of Teaching and Learning was created in 2012. One of its objectives is to build the digital capacity of Irish higher education. The National Forum's report (2014, p. ix) *A Road Map For Enhancement in a Digital World 2015-2017* recommends that Ireland "develop a consistent, seamless and coherent digital

experience for students in Irish higher education and actively engage with students and teachers to develop their digital skills and knowledge”.

The increased focus on key skills in Ireland is due to the introduction of the National Framework for Qualifications (NFQ) in 2003, which reframed learning achievements and award classifications and levels. Standards for learning achievement levels were framed in the context of a person’s knowledge, skill, and competence (QQI, 2015). There is growing evidence that eportfolio based learning has the potential to support many of these higher education objectives. However, to date there has been minimal engagement by Irish higher education institutions (Baird, Gamble and Sidebotham, 2016; Eynon and Gambino, 2017; Lambe, McNair, and Smith, 2013; Morreale et al., 2017).

The NMC Horizon Report, *Higher Education in Ireland*, from 2015 offers an explanation for the slow pace of eportfolio adoption in Irish higher education: a lack of sufficient institutional resources and infrastructure to effectively adopt and integrate new technologies, outdated infrastructure, inadequately resourced virtual learning environments and lack of investment in new and emerging media (Johnson et al., 2015).

There is a small body of empirical research on eportfolio practice in Ireland. A recent search of the ERIC database found only four peer-reviewed journal articles about eportfolios in Ireland (Donaldson et al., 2018). Two recent studies of Irish academics found that 31% were beginning to use eportfolios and 69% stated they were not using eportfolios in their practice (Eportfoliohub, 2016; Harding, 2018). *Eportfolio Hub* was a national project funded by the National Forum for the Enhancement of Teaching and Learning which culminated in a dissemination event comprising presentations from higher education institutions around Ireland. (Eportfoliohub, 2016). It is clear that traditional forms of assessment still dominate in Irish higher education; however, there are indications that pockets of Irish higher education institutions are beginning to engage with eportfolio. Dublin City University has recently introduced a campus wide learning portfolio called Loop Reflect for 16,000 students in May 2017 (O’Brien, 2017).

An emerging Irish eportfolio community

Since 2017, an Irish eportfolio community of practice has been emerging. Initially called MaharaIrl, then rebranded Eportfolio Ireland in 2018. Eportfolio Ireland has a growing membership of practitioners from higher and further education (Donaldson et al., 2018). Eportfolio Ireland is a practitioner led organisation which holds online and face to face professional development events and has recently produced a co-created open access online book called *Eportfolio based assessment: Inspiring exploration & supporting evaluation for practitioners*.

A typology of eportfolio purposes

As a digital tool, it seems from the evidence that an eportfolio has many affordances and can be used flexibly for a variety of purposes in higher education. While the

flexibility of the eportfolio may be viewed as a benefit; however, in practice, this can be a source of confusion and a barrier to successful introduction of eportfolio practice at an institutional level, as the clear purpose of eportfolio practice must be clear and explicit to students and academic staff (An and Wilder, 2010; Gaitan, 2012; Scholz, Tse and Lithgow, 2017; Wuetherick and Dickinson, 2015).

There are four uses and purposes for eportfolio practice in higher education (Farrell, 2018):

1. Assessment
2. Developmental
3. Placement
4. Careers

Assessment

Eportfolios can take many forms, depending on the purpose, the programme, the disciplinary context, and the desired learning outcomes (Farrell, 2018). Portfolios have become a common form of summative assessment across all disciplines in higher education (Lowenthal, White and Cooley, 2011). The rationale for adopting eportfolios for assessment is twofold: firstly, eportfolios can be an authentic, meaningful and student-centred form of assessment because it captures evidence of student learning in context and over time (Buyarski and Landis, 2014; Chen and Penny Light, 2010; Eynon and Gambino, 2017). Secondly, eportfolio assessment is a valid and reliable method of assessment of students' demonstration of learning outcomes (Buyarski and Landis 2014; Eynon and Gambino, 2017).

Best practice for summative assessment using eportfolio according to the literature is that eportfolio should be programme-focused and form a core of a programme's assessment design rather than bolted on. It should be thoughtfully woven throughout the curriculum, capturing the student learning experience over the duration of the degree (Clarke and Boud, 2018; Housego and Parker, 2009; Klenowski, Askew and Carnell, 2006; Shepherd and Bolliger, 2014; Simatele, 2015).

Developmental

There is a developmental aspect to all portfolio-based learning, in fact, it is a fundamental principle that evidence, reflections, and artefacts are compiled incrementally over time.

However, only two types of eportfolio specifically have development as their purpose: process portfolio and a personal development portfolio (PDP). Although they share the common purpose of development, they have different aims. The process portfolio focuses on learning and the documenting of the process of learning, while a personal development portfolio focuses on planning and goal setting. One of the key differences between process portfolios and other portfolios such as assessment or career portfolios, is that process portfolios are focussed on the process of learning, rather

than final polished product or showcase eportfolio. Klenowski, Askew and Carnell (2006) argue that there has been a shift from the traditional view of portfolio as a collection of work to a learning portfolio which focuses on learning.

Placement

Using an eportfolio to document student experience while on a placement, practice, or practicum is one of the most common purposes of eportfolio in a higher education context. Disciplines where placement are central to student learning such as teacher education and health and medical sciences have been early adopters of eportfolio (Parker, Ndoeye and Ritzhaupt, 2012).

Careers

The main purposes of career eportfolio are to support students' transitioning from higher education to the workplace and to develop students' employability skills (Simatele, 2015; Von Kronsky and Oliver, 2012). In fact, Taylor and Rowley (2017) argue that graduates applying for jobs with an eportfolio have a significant advantage over those applying with a traditional CV. Employers appear to becoming more comfortable with reviewing eportfolio as part of their recruitment processes, the Association of American Colleges and Universities carried out a survey of 318 employers in 2013 in which 80% said they found eportfolio useful when reviewing applicants (Ring, Waugaman and Brackett, 2017). Further, students are beginning to value an eportfolio as a means of enhancing their employability post-graduation. In an Australian study carried out by Von Kronsky and Oliver (2012) which examined how students were using their eportfolio in an Australian university, 52% of students reported that one of the key reasons for them to use the eportfolio was that they thought it would help with their employability.

Concluding Thoughts

Eportfolio based learning can be a powerful medium for enabling meaningful and authentic learning for students. As eportfolios become more prevalent in Ireland, higher education institutions must focus on the pedagogy and the learning opportunities that a well-designed eportfolio can enable. Institutional initiatives should be underpinned by explicit and robust government policy. Academic staff must be supported in their professional development in relation to eportfolio use. Finally, funding for empirical research on eportfolio has to be provided along with the need to develop and facilitate greater understanding of eportfolio purposes and pedagogy sector wide.

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Project #CyborgArt: A Teaching Case Study on the Affordances Programmable Sensors in Mixed Media Art Projects

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Abstract

Modern graduates of all disciplines require proficiency with new literacies to complement and enhance traditional higher-level education. Local and multinational businesses struggle to source graduates with both practical skills, an understanding of the modern consumer, and the challenges of integrating technology safely into almost every facet of life. This paper presents a multi-disciplinary module project that required students to create a mixed-media art piece representing the students' vision of themselves as cybernetic organisms. The module was delivered over one semester and incorporated industry speakers and workshops on non-traditional topics for the discipline of these students. One of these topics was Coding for Non-Coders and Wearable and Embeddable Technology. This paper examines the affordances the students gained by learning how to incorporate simple, cheap but effective sensors in their art.

Keywords: Graduate Skills, Modern Consumer, Human, Technological, & Data Literacies, Computational Thinking, Wearables, Sensors

Introduction

This paper presents a teaching case study on a single semester module delivered to approximately 30 college students from varied courses including *Film & Media Studies* and *Journalism*. The module combined learning outcomes and presented practical

skills across modules such as *Multimedia Tools*, *Portfolio Production*, and *Life-Long Learning*. The module required significant effort on the students' part, including an assignment where they needed to create a mixed-media art pieces, visits to galleries and workshops from external industry guest speakers.

The theme for this class project deliverable was *Cyborg Art*. The assignment became known as *#CyborgArt* and is referred to as such throughout this paper.

Cyborgs

Building on the concept that modern humans rely on technology in largely invisible ways, this module introduced *cyborgs* to the students as an example of a combined technological and biological organism. This aimed to equip students with the conceptual ideas of safely integrating technology while improving their practical skills with the ability to produce artefacts, reflect and present them in a portfolio.

In *Simians, cyborgs, and women* (Haraway, 1991) identifies a *cyborg* as a cybernetic organism; a hybrid of machine and organism. Media commentators (Case, 2015) have suggested that most humans have become cyborgs by increasing engagement with mobile devices and that these devices have become modern mankind's new tools for living. Consumers are increasingly embracing technology to manage their physical needs, such as training with a fitness tracker. The global fitness tracker business in 2017 included 35 million 'Smart wristband' unit shipments worldwide and Fitness tracker device revenue worldwide in 2017 was \$2.51bn (Statista, 2017).

New Digital Literacies

Graduates must be equipped with a new set of competencies and literacies to meet the needs of this type of consumer. *Post Human Condition* (Pepperell, 2003) proposes the term *post human* to refer to the general convergence of technology and biology to the point where they are increasingly becoming indistinguishable. They argue that the distinction between machines and humans is becoming less clear at the same time as it becomes increasingly hard to imagine how modern society would survive without technological aids.

Industry research groups that identify emerging and growing trends (PwC Global, 2017) report that the essential technologies that businesses are embracing include:

- 1) Artificial Intelligence (AI),
- 2) Augmented Reality (AR),
- 3) Blockchain,
- 4) Drones,
- 5) Internet of Things,
- 6) Robotics,

- 7) Virtual Reality (VR) and
- 8) 3-D Printing.

Businesses that seek to develop and engage with emerging technologies create a competitive business advantage. Whilst the job-destroying applications of AI are what command the headlines (e.g. driverless cars), today computers are much better at managing other computers and digital information than they are at managing human interactions (Ramaswamy, 2017).

Education theorists agree that the high priority in education is to help individuals acquire the information, the personal growth and the learning that will enable them to deal more constructively with the real world (Rogers, 1980). In *Robot-Proof* (Aoun, 2017), the assertion that graduates need to build on traditional literacies by adding three new literacies, technological literacy, human literacy, and data literacy is explored. These new literacies will help students rise above the processing power of computers by engendering creativity.

The characteristics of each of these literacies:

- a) human literacy which includes the student's communication skills, knowledge of the humanities, design skills and the ability to function in the human milieu;
- b) technological literacy which gives students a grounding in engineering and coding so that they know how machines intrinsically operate and
- c) data literacy so that they can read and analyse the rising tide of information.

Learning Objectives

The learning objectives and outcomes of the #CyborgArt project are mapped directly to *human*, *technological*, and *data* literacy. Students were tasked with creating an image of themselves modified to incorporate technological and data components so that they could demonstrate understanding of the new literacies. Class activities included visiting the National Gallery of Ireland and participating in-class discussion about post-humanism concepts. Technological and data literacy elements were explored using a range of software and hardware which was to be incorporated into student projects. Students' visual interactions and understanding of gestalt design principles also enhance visual literacy skills which are important for many areas of business (e.g. UX, data visualisation).

Students produced an e-portfolio capturing and reflecting on project outputs. The online blog element to the project also enhances the student profile since it facilitates reflection, enhances metacognition, and provides content for the student's digital portfolio. The sum of the skills acquired during the project are transferable to the work

place and can be adopted as part of any employability module e.g. in Arts, Science, Engineering, or Business Studies.

Four main objectives to the teaching project were identified:

- 1) To equip learners with a practical understanding of fundamental design principles, multimedia, web tools and coding concepts, device uses and file types via a range of authoring tools, techniques, and platforms.
- 2) To develop the practical skills and an understanding of the planning and publishing skills needed to implement a multimedia project and ePortfolio web publishing digital artefact and gallery exhibition of physical artefact artwork.
- 3) To provide learners with a knowledge of artificial intelligence, human literacy including visual literacy, problem solving, metacognition and technological literacy including coding and data literacies.
- 4) To produce a project roadmap that can be adapted across programmes in a range of higher education institutions.

Learning Outcomes and Amplification of learning

Having engaged with the project students would be able to demonstrate:

- 1) Human literacy skills: Engage with design, communication, collaboration, metacognition, problem solving skills. Explain the fundamental concepts of design principles. Develop intrinsic motivation factors.
- 2) Technological Literacy: Develop coding language techniques, engage with hardware set-up and manipulation, engage with digital image manipulation, and with file types.
- 3) Data Literacy: Develop the ability to read images and engage with abstract thinking. This ability plays a big part in the conceptualizing and pattern matching used in data and big data analyses. The use of data visualisation in business requires an understanding of visual literacy and pattern recognition.
- 4) Develop a meaningful visual scape with interactive technology. Demonstrate an understanding of event planning. Exhibition of work.

Pedagogical Approach

The lecturer adopted a constructivist/social constructivist approach to learning using technology as a tool (Papert, 1990; Gagne, Briggs and Wager, 1992; Sweeney and Hughes, 2017). The teaching and learning experience focused on creative and problem-solving activities for students which are scaffolded and supported by the lecturer. Through these activities, the learner was encouraged towards autonomy. Lecturer interactions that included positive reinforcement lead to a learning result where student gratification can be observed (Sweeney, 2009).

Project #CyborgArt in the Classroom

The project involved the production of virtual and physical artefacts by students. Students were invited to express their artistic flair by digitally manipulating their own profile image and creating a futuristic version of themselves by incorporating the notion of their future selves as cyborg learners.

In order to promote and reinforce gestalt design principles, art history and the notion of aesthetic; students were brought on a field trip to the National Gallery of Ireland and were invited to observe, reflect and discuss the paintings on display. Students further researched the notion of 'cyborgs' and 'post humanism' and the results of such research was discussed in class which led to Cartesian philosophical debate and metaphysical exploration. Students also discussed various cyborg themed films including, *I Robot* (2004), and *AI* (2001). The humanoid *Sophia* was also introduced and discussed in class.

Students then created digital artefacts of their profile images as a cybernetic being. Each cyborg artefact included an individual unique QR code thus allowing the viewer to digitally scan the physical artefact and view the student's digital portfolio. This provided an interesting physical/virtual feedback loop. The final artefacts were embellished with physical objects including metal pieces and lights. Each piece was exhibited as a collective installation in a constructed gallery space.

Figure 1: Sophia the humanoid on stage with her creators at Hanson Robotics' Web Summit 2017 (McCarthy, 2017).



Assessment

Students were presented with a potential roadmap to project completion which was not prescriptive, so students could incorporate more advanced art or technical skills in their submissions if they had the skills to do so. The range of software used included photography and compositing software, presentation software and web publishing software. Students were presented with a range of tools but were free to use any tools they had expertise in. This constructivist teaching approach providing roadmap (but not a prescriptive set of instructions) allowed some students to explore aspects of the assignment that they found interesting at greater depth than their peers.

The suggested roadmap outline that students could follow:

1. Take or source a personal headshot photograph, ensure the file format is appropriate for image manipulation
2. Digitally manipulate the headshot to create a digitally enhanced photograph of their profile, incorporate cybernetic imagery
3. Engage with the lecturer to ensure the manipulated photograph is appropriate, fits the target aesthetic, and incorporate their feedback and critique

4. Using a web publishing platform, write a descriptive and reflective blog post on the experience and engagement with the project. Incorporate the blog into a digital e-portfolio
5. Add a unique QR code to the final image so viewers can access the student's e-portfolio
6. Prepare a physical art canvas including the image, optionally embellishing the canvas with physical objects

Incorporating Sensors to the Mixed-Medium Art

The lecturer expanded upon the roadmap above by inviting industry collaborators to present workshops to the students. One workshop was run by the Microsoft Ireland Academic Team. They presented a small micro-processor device called a *micro:bit*, which was invented to teach students *Computational Thinking*. The micro:bit is a small (half-credit card sized) microprocessor with an LED screen display and a Bluetooth Low Energy radio (Ball *et al.*, 2016).

Because the students generally had no coding experience prior to the workshop, coding the micro:bit was taught using a *Visual Programming Language*. The programming environment used was Microsoft MakeCode (Ball, 2017), a free and opensource *integrated development environment*. Though other programming languages (such as typed syntax languages) can be used to program the micro:bit, they have a significant learning curve and are beyond the scope of a short workshop.

The affordances available using the micro:bit include the ability to sense light, temperature, motion and force.

The artefacts were then enhanced with micro:bit sensors. This final step allowed each cyborg art piece to communicate with one another to become part of a collaborative *borg*. For instance, a micro:bit could detect if a bright light was shone upon a single piece and all the other art pieces could react.

The additional roadmap steps were added as follows:

7. Follow the 4 Ds of Software Development: *Design, Develop, Debug, and Deploy*
 - i. Design the capabilities required for the sensors and micro:bit
 - ii. Develop a micro:bit program using MakeCode to achieve the design
 - iii. Debug (remove errors) until the code is correct and functional
 - iv. Deploy the code to the micro:bit
8. Attach the micro:bit to the canvas art work and test collectively with the other art
9. Exhibit the work as part of a collective exhibition.
10. Update the reflective blog/portfolio.

Student Feedback

As this was a pilot project to examine the potential for non-STEM major students to learn and demonstrate new literacies, students were pre or post-surveyed, and neither quantitative nor qualitative analysis was performed. For the next iteration of this project, the researchers intend to survey and quantify the student attitudes, capabilities, and attainment resulting from completing this module.

However, the lecturer did elicit open feedback on the module, and the relevant feedback is included below:

- “The #CyborgArt project was truly inspiring. To consider humanity as a cyborg made me delve into my own psyche, discovering the cogs and wheels that make up who I am as a creative individual. In the curation of the image I learned not only a new skill in photo manipulation but also a different kind of reflective thought. I was ignorant to the use of AI in the wider world and as a result of the Cyborg project I now see its presence throughout my daily life. The influence of the project is incredible as I now work with a company that specialises in AI and data science recruitment.”
- “In creating my Cyborg for #CyborgArt I drew on the idea that even as adults the desire to learn still remains. Inside of my cyborg are the cogs of a machine, a machine that is made of old parts but is adapting and evolving to new ideas. The Cyborg is the future.”
- “When my lecturer first mentioned the idea of cyborg project, immediately Arnold Schwarzenegger and the terminator came to mind. I wanted to create something similar and I thought it would be interesting to link the “bad and good” concept into the image as well. Therefore I used half of my face to represent my evil side trapped in the cyborg world and the other side as sweet and innocent, the real me. I used the other picture of the matrix as a background behind the ‘cyborg me’ which also refers to the pulling power of the other world, the dark side.”
- “My final digital image, represents how I am learning through technology while I am studying abroad and my Celtic tattoo represents my time here in Ireland. The technology has been helpful and also harmful while I have been here. Often times it is easy to live through technology and not enjoy the present. Me as a cyborg is developing and embracing changes, while also using technology to reflect on what is going on in my life in the most present form.”
- “For my ‘Cyborg’ I decided to take inspiration from the work of Pablo Picasso, with a focus on his representation of women in portraits. For the background of my portrait I sampled pieces from Picasso portraits and embedded them within my own image. We used PowerPoint to edit the image and created a QR code to embed into the image that would link to our digital portfolio.”

Figure 2. Student cyborg art and (inset) Microsoft MakeCode



Figure 3: Student ePortfolio.

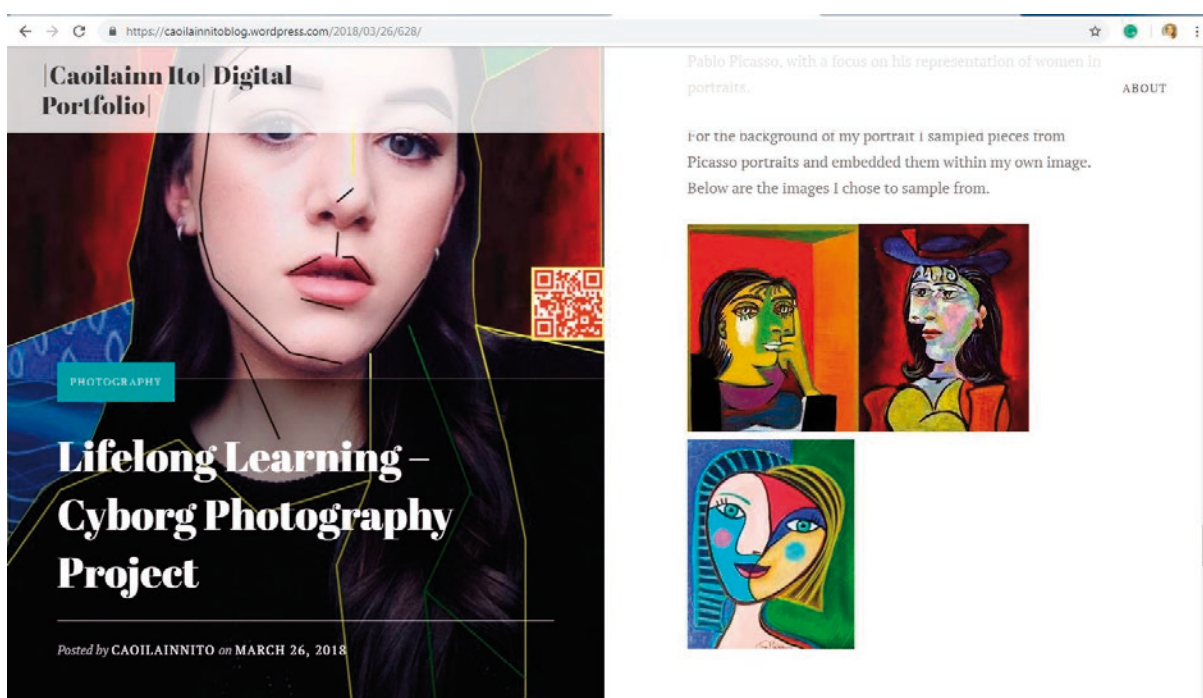


Figure 4: Printed canvas artefacts with exposed micro:bits.



Conclusion

The #CyborgArt Project adopted a constructivist approach to learning. High student engagement was particularly noticeable when the students embellished their artefacts with physical and digital objects. Creative engagement with this technology in the higher education environment is pivotal in order to produce graduates that can compete with machines and that can also meet the needs of the cyborg consumer. By manipulating an image of themselves to incorporate technological and data components, students gained direct insight into the human and learner as cyborg acquiring new literacies in the process. The insights and skills gained in this project equips the graduate with the skills to meet the needs of the cyborg as a hybrid consumer and provider.

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On the Emergence of the Technological University

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It is an oft-encountered statement that the pace of change in higher education within Ireland has never been greater. Clearly such a statement cannot be true at all times, but those who voice it in the current period can do so safely without risk of contradiction. The year of 2018 has seen the passing and enactment of the Technological Universities Act which delivers the facility first documented within the National Strategy for Higher Education to 2030 which itself was published in January 2011 (Hunt, 2011). While it presages fundamental change, the Irish public would be forgiven for thinking that the gestation phase from inception to realization in respect of technological universities has been inordinately long and one can but speculate that the authors of what is referred to colloquially as the Hunt Report would not have foreseen in 2011 that the prospect proposed would have taken so long to be embraced and delivered upon. Notwithstanding, the advent of the statute has provided the prospect of the most telling change in Irish higher education for decades and one that will afford the prospective learner enhanced opportunity.

The technological university is not a novel idea. Certain neighbouring countries within the European Union have navigated a similar path and developed a dedicated sector devoted to higher professional education and training. The concept of the University of Applied Science is one that has wide recognition on the continent and is informing the policy agenda at a European level. But Ireland is singular in a number of ways; as a people, we value education greatly and for a small country we have sponsored a diversified higher education system that can respond to the differing learning styles and aptitudes of students of all ages. We also lead international tables in the large number of second level students who progress to access third level education (OECD, 2018). When they do so, they have more permeability through the system and between further and higher education than is typical of other countries; to record that fact is not to claim that the Irish system is ideal; we have further work to enhance the

progression and complementary paths that we afford learners, but our system deserves to be acknowledged for its flexibility.

The facility to form a technological university was always elective; there was no compunction on institutes to take such a course. There were detailed and challenging criteria to meet for those electing for such a future and the first was that any such application would have to involve the merger of at least two like institutions. There was a stipulation that an institute of technology could not seek to merge with a traditional university; this was to ensure that the diversity of the system and the distinct missions of the sectors were protected. In theory, this was a simple idea; in practice, finding a complementary or contiguous partner and seeking to meld cultures is never an easy ask and considerable discussion was devoted to identifying the potential partners that eventually realized four consortia. One of the key challenges in this was to ensure that the very strong track record of the institutions and particularly in respect of the connection and commitment to their local communities was not diluted in the process of building a bigger entity. Another fear, voiced by the learners and their representatives during the consideration phase, was that the friendliness and accessibility that is a characteristic of the institutes of technology might be lost when the resulting organizations became considerably larger. Thus scale, which was proposed as a significant advantage particularly in the broader international context from such a merger, was seen by key stakeholders as a potential disadvantage. Committed staff throughout the institutions also had to be facilitated in arriving at their own determination on the balance of advantage in undertaking such significant change. In the absence of such a consensus it would be unlikely that any such proposal would win the necessary political support to advance it to a statutory footing. Enactment of the governing legislation in Spring 2018 thus marked the end of a long and complex period of consideration and negotiation and the resulting designation of the first technological university, TU Dublin, which will come into being at the start of 2019, marks a signal moment for Irish higher education. That this will be a multicampus institution remaining strongly connected to its community and yet centred on a wonderful new open facility in the sensitively restored Grangegorman provides a concrete synthesis of the tradition and innovation that inform this exciting project. Three further consortia comprising institutes of technology in the Southeast, Southwest, and along the western seaboard are also working actively toward submission of their applications for consideration as technological universities. In addition, the remaining four institutes of technology have all continued to build capacity in line with the criteria published in relation to the achievement of technological university status. This has enhanced standards and assisted in the maintenance of sectoral cohesion while also affording their governing bodies the option of either forming or joining a technological university at some stage in the future.

In the five decades since the emergence of the Institutes of Technology in their current guise, it can be argued that they have played a pivotal role in the social cohesion and economic well-being of the country. They have also been catalysts for regional development and sustainability. Given that record of success, it is not surprising that

questions have been raised around why one would change such a system and what precisely would distinguish a technological university from its constituent legacy institutions. There are many answers to such questions but one key focus is on the fact that higher education is necessarily in a state of constant change and that Ireland increasingly must calibrate its system to a globalized world. Increasing student mobility, advances in pedagogy, and technologically enhanced delivery modes, mean that smaller institutions will likely be less sustainable unless they are highly resourced or have a specific domain focus. Ireland has foreseen this trend and has responded with a closer alignment or incorporation of the teacher training colleges within the traditional universities along with this particular initiative, which will likely see a reduced number of institutions but of greater scale within the professional higher education space. The distinctions between a Technological University and an Institute of Technology will thus centre on scale, scope, and reach. Independent institutes of technology will continue to enhance their offerings and will remain critically connected to their regions. Having the potential to access either type of institution increases the opportunity for learners and adds to the valued diversity of the higher education system. Technological universities will remain faithful to the embrace of advanced pedagogy which will inform programmes that link to practice and which are research informed. Placement for students will characterize the whole system and the growing research profile will continue to be linked to enterprise and to the needs of the region and the state.

There are some contrary indicators currently within the Irish higher education system. Viewed from a European perspective, Ireland is admired for the numbers of students it has accessing the higher education system and for the quality of the provision. On the other hand, Irish institutions are not competing in terms of international rankings. This might invite a few reflections: first, many have pointed out that the criteria employed to determine such rankings are themselves open to question; second, given the resourcing challenges facing Irish higher education after a time of deep recession, it is actually remarkable how well the system continues to perform. But that resilience has been about survival; competing with highly resourced institutions in other advanced countries is quite another matter. This past year has seen a coordinated approach on the part of the Irish University Association along with the Technical Higher Education Association and with the full support of the Union of Students in Ireland and the teaching representative bodies, The Irish Federation of University Teachers and the Teachers Union of Ireland, in pointing towards the requirement for greater government investment in the system if we are to reach the ambition to have the finest education system in Europe by 2026 (Department of Education and Skills, 2018). The fact that progress has yet to be made on determinations and implementation arising from the expert group report on the future funding of higher education chaired by Peter Cassells points to some underlying complications and limitations in the capacity to respond (Department of Education and Skills, 2016). However, delaying decisions in

this matter is not an option if we wish to protect our system and our international reputation.

The Technological Higher Education Association (THEA) was launched in April 2017 to be the representative and advocate for the technological sector as a whole. The initiative resulted from agreement between the Department of Education & Skills and the 14 Institutes of Technology to realize a single body to represent the sector and one that could reflect the fact that the new statutory context would necessarily consolidate the warm and growing relationship between the 13 institutes that formed a legacy body, Institutes of Technology Ireland, and the Dublin Institute of Technology. The latter now joins with the Institute of Technology Tallaght and the Institute of Technology Blanchardstown to form the inaugural TU Dublin, which will constitute the largest third level institution in the state. This can be a pioneering institution that can set a template for the whole of our ambitious and diverse sector.

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Apprenticeships: Bringing College to the Workplace

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“Across Europe apprenticeships are acknowledged as vital elements in the economic regeneration of member states. That is most true in an Irish context where we need to substantially enhance the range of apprenticeships. Apprenticeships address crucial skill shortages across many sectors of the economy. What is particularly noteworthy about new apprenticeships is that there is no “glass ceiling” in these learning pathways as some are the equivalent of master’s degrees or doctorates. The continued expansion of apprenticeships into new areas of the economy will enhance their image and profile and are a real option to academic-only learning pathways.” (Moriarty, 2018)

Research suggests that one in six third-level learners are dropping out of their college courses during their first year (Higher Education Authority (HEA), 2017, cited in O’Brien, 2017). The European People’s Party claim statistics show that one in 5 young people in Europe under the age of 24 is currently not in education, employment or training (Maydell, 2015); a contributory factor to the recent reinvigoration of apprenticeships as a model of education.

Following a review of Apprenticeships, commissioned by Ruairi Quinn T.D, and Minister for Education and Skills, the new apprenticeship model emerged in Ireland. The new apprenticeship, or post 2016 apprenticeship, is no longer a mid-level skills-based, craft training programme but a work-based learning programme in a wide range of disciplines leading to awards from level 5 to level 10 on the National Framework for Qualifications.

In November 2014, the Apprenticeship Council was established, with the objective of expanding apprenticeships into new sectors to benefit employers and employees (Apprenticeship Council, 2016). The Council comprises representatives from industry, the Irish Congress of Trade Unions, further and higher education and training bodies and the Department of Education and Skills. SOLAS has responsibility for apprenticeships on behalf of the government. The Department of Education, the Higher Education Authority, Quality and Qualifications Ireland, Education and Training

Boards Ireland (ETBI), industry and further and higher education providers are also key stakeholders and work in close collaboration with SOLAS.

The Department of Education and Skills provides funding to education providers via the HEA for higher education apprenticeships and via SOLAS for further education and training apprenticeships. SOLAS maintains the register of approved employers and the national register of apprentices. ETBI is the national representative association for Ireland's sixteen Education and Training Boards (ETBs). Its Apprenticeship, Traineeship and Work-Based Learning Unit was established to deliver sectoral enhancement projects and initiatives, including Apprenticeship programmes within the ETBs and further education sector. QQI has published Statutory Quality Assurance Guidelines for Apprenticeships (Quality and Qualifications Ireland, 2016), for education providers and is also an awarding body for apprenticeships. This paper summarises the current position pertaining to post-2016 apprenticeships in Ireland in relation to design, challenges and benefits.

Generation Apprenticeship is a major expansion project introduced by SOLAS, the key role of which is to double the number of learners from diverse backgrounds pursuing the apprenticeship route (Department of Education and Skills, 2016). Ireland now has apprenticeship programmes in construction, engineering, hospitality, electrical, accounting, insurance, motor and ICT, auctioneering and property services, craft butchery, and Original Equipment Manufacturing, all being delivered in a range of further education and higher education institutions. The first Level 9 apprenticeship programmes were approved for development by the Apprenticeship Council in 2017 in the spheres of accounting, engineering, animation and lean sigma. University of Limerick is currently developing a Level 10 Professional Doctorate apprenticeship in Principal Engineering, the first of its kind in Ireland (Department of Education and Skills, 2017). By 2020 the goal is that there will be 30,000 people engaged in 70 different types of apprenticeships (SOLAS, 2018).

The post 2016 apprenticeships are programmes which formally combine and alternate learning in the workplace with learning in an education and training centre. They have specific defining characteristics:

- Prepare the apprentice for a specific occupation
- Lead to a nationally recognised qualification on the NFQ at level 5 or above
- Have a minimum duration of two years
- Provide a minimum of 50% learning in the workplace;
- Apprentices must be employed under a contract of apprenticeship for the programme duration (Apprenticeships, 2017).

New apprenticeships are industry-led. The Consortium Steering Group (CSG), comprising of employers, professional bodies, occupation regulators, along with the education providers is central to the apprenticeship programme development, management and ongoing fitness-for-purpose of the programme for the occupation (Quality and Qualifications Ireland, 2016, p.43). The apprenticeship model exemplifies academic-enterprise partnerships enriching education and the employability of

graduates through employer-led curriculum design and employment focused programme delivery and assessment. This provides an opportunity for education institutions to support the development of industry networks and to increase Ireland's economic competitiveness through business-led innovative education, as envisaged by the Hunt Report (Department of Education and Skills, 2011, pp. 75-76).

Research indicates that employers face challenges when participating in apprenticeship programmes. Rowe et al. (2017) in their study of managing degree level apprentices in the workplace, found that recruiting the right candidate; supporting apprentices through a degree whilst working full time; and the amount of time the apprentice spends off the job are the key challenges facing businesses. They make a number of recommendations to counteract these challenges including the need for effective employer-led recruitment processes; rigorous retention strategies and employer involvement and board-level motivators including the establishment of mentoring programmes to ensure that benefits are experienced by the organisation. They also highlight the need for a genuine employer-driven pedagogic approach to help overcome the challenge of apprentices being required to spend so much time off the job.

Research published by Mulkeen et al. (2017) suggest that academic providers need to support the apprentice by making learning materials available in a variety of formats as apprentices work across various industries and at different times.

Kenyon (2005) identified the delivery of the knowledge skills, and competences required in the workplace as one of the key benefits of apprenticeships. This continues to be the driving motivator for employer engagement. In November 2016, the US Department of Commerce (2016, p.8) undertook a study of apprenticeship employers to establish the benefits to business. They found that the need for skilled workers was cited as the most common factor for companies engaging in apprenticeships.

Evidence shows that in those European countries where the apprenticeship system is most developed young people have increased employability options compared to other countries who do not offer apprenticeship programmes (European Commission, 2013). For example, approximately 60 per cent of Germany's youth participate in work-based learning programmes whereby further education providers educate these apprentices during the off-the-job component. Employers pay for most of the training as well as apprentices' wages. In December 2017, the unemployment rate for 15-24-year olds in Germany was 6.7 per cent, compared to 17.3 per cent across EU member states (OECD, 2018).

New apprenticeships in Ireland are industry driven and as such are putting the employer in the driving seat of programme development. Research published in April 2018 by The National Apprenticeship Service in the UK suggests the following benefits to employers:

Employers can -

1. Nurture learner interest in a career within their company

2. Assist potential employees in relation to understanding the education and skills required to secure jobs
3. Enhance their reputation in their communities as supporters of education and providers of good jobs
4. Form stronger partnerships with local schools and help ensure that the curriculum is supporting the development of essential 21st century skills required to succeed in the workplace
5. Provide employees with valuable opportunities to serve as ambassadors for the company and to hone their public speaking, communications, and leadership skills
6. Improve employee retention by boosting employees' job satisfaction and sense of purpose

The 2017 UK Department for Education research report on employers' evaluation of apprenticeships suggests

- 96% of employers with apprentices have experienced at least one benefit from taking on apprentices, and most can count at least 8 benefits
- 74% of employers say that apprentices improved products or service quality, and 78% say that they improved productivity. Apprentices become highly skilled even before they finish their training.
- 69% of employers say that employing apprentices improved staff retention. 65% of apprentices stay working for the company that trained them when they complete their apprenticeship.
- Most apprenticeships generate a net overall benefit to the employer within a few years.

Apprenticeships provide an opportunity to widen participation. The apprentice can embark on a professional career in those sectors such as accounting or insurance; sectors that were previously only accessed through professional exams or academic higher education programmes. A similar outcome is evident in the United States. A recent report published by the Department of Commerce (2016, p. 1) highlighted that apprenticeships are now expanding beyond the traditional trade and construction areas into new industries and are also providing access to women and minorities.

The earn and learn education model pays the apprenticeship a salary throughout the duration of the programme whilst the programme is free. Apprentices are fully supported in the workplace by experienced employees who coach, mentor and guide them as well as affording them the opportunity to gain the knowledge, skills and competencies required to work in that specific occupation.

From an apprentice's perspective, by participating on work-based learning programmes they gain valuable work experience that can launch their careers. They interact with and learn from their mentors and other employees as well as gain an understanding of workplace norms. Most importantly they become work ready by connecting what they are learning in the classroom to the education and skills required for success in today's work environment.

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A summary of the National Forum's Review of the Existing Higher Education Policy Landscape for Digital Teaching and Learning in Ireland

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Abstract

This summary outlines the findings that emerged from the National Forum's project on higher education policy and the challenges and opportunities posed for teaching and learning by digital technology. The project sought to define whether existing policies were enabling and reflected the language of digital teaching and learning. The summary discusses the findings within the wider context of a national and international drive toward utilising digital technology to facilitate a more flexible learning environment.

Keywords: Ireland, Higher Education, Digital, Technology, Teaching, Learning

The use of digital technology has changed the environment of teaching and learning in higher education. Practitioners often find themselves making decisions in situations that did not arise in a pre-digital teaching and learning context. These changes include more collaboration and sharing, increased deliberation and clarification regarding the nature of relationships with outside agents, more opportunities to use student generated content and the ethical issues around the use of recorded content from active sessions with students.

Policy development is critical to supporting digital teaching and learning and in driving change (Gregory and Lodge, 2015). Further, policy can aid decision making, provide direction, and bring coherence across different stakeholders (Garrison, 2011).

The *High Level Group on the Modernisation of Higher Education* recommended that national guidelines should be developed for 'ensuring quality in open and online

learning, and to promote excellence in the use of ICT in higher education provision' (2014, p. 40). The uptake of digital and online learning technologies has been characterised as uneven across the EU, and a lack of coherent policy frameworks is seen as one of the main barriers to mainstreaming (European Commission, 2016). A recent survey of European member states found that approximately one third have national policies for digital and online learning either in place or being implemented (European Commission, 2016).

The national outlook on policies for digital teaching and learning can be viewed within the context of the *National Strategy for Higher Education to 2030* (Department of Education and Skills, 2011) and the *Higher Education System Performance Frameworks* (Higher Education Authority, 2016; 2018). Both emphasise the increasing demand for flexible learning opportunities, part-time, work-based learning and short intensive skills programmes, and the need for strategy development in this area in higher education.

Attempts to accommodate digital teaching and learning without appropriate policy frameworks has allowed practices to emerge within Irish Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) that have the potential to lead to inefficiencies and/or confusion among staff and students. These include:

- Requiring physical rooms to be booked for an online tutorial because the timetable is governed by the room booking application.
- Teachers being required to submit grades both electronically and by hand.
- Teachers using third-party platforms for teaching, learning and assessments independently of the HEI, resulting in an absence of institutional technical support in the event of something going wrong with a platform.
- Informal approaches to seeking permission to record participating students and staff or use student content.
- Ownership of content being determined on a case-by-case basis, influenced by employment contracts rather than HEI policy.
- Challenges in verifying student identity in assessment and participation in distance learning or technology-enabled assessment contexts.

The National Forum's *Digital Roadmap* provided a framework for embedding a digital dimension in teaching and learning policies in Ireland. A nationally coordinated project was completed to examine the current policy framework for digital teaching and learning in Ireland. Informed by a scoping group with representation from students, teachers, senior managers, policy makers the project reviewed the current status of policies across the sector. The project was guided by a terms of reference agreed by the scoping group (National Forum, 2018a).

This paper provides a brief synopsis of the findings from that review. The full report [Review of the Existing Higher Education Policy Landscape for Digital Teaching and Learning in Ireland](http://www.teachingandlearning.ie) is available on the National Forum website at www.teachingandlearning.ie.

For the purposes of the review, policies were defined as mandated principles for guiding decision making by staff and students in a higher education institution. Documents were included in the review if they contained principles or standards intended to guide decision making that related specifically to teaching and learning. Consultation with staff and students across the sector highlighted a need for policies for higher education which enable staff to practice enhanced teaching and learning in an atmosphere of consultation, innovation and strategic alignment. Through discussion, it was agreed that enabling policies are defined as those which are implementable, situated in practice and reflective of the priorities of the HEI. Table 1 outlines the criteria which determine whether a policy can be considered enabling.

Table 1: Criteria for determining if a policy is enabling (National Forum, 2018a)

In order for a policy to be deemed implementable it needs to:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • clearly define the HEI's commitment to the policy area • have an implementation plan • be accompanied by policy instruments such as procedures, and clearly defined areas of responsibility
In order for a policy to be deemed situated in practice it needs to:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • be based on consultation • have been tested at operational level • facilitate innovation • be routinely monitored and reviewed for effectiveness
In order for a policy to be deemed reflective of the HEI's priorities it needs to:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • be guided by the HEI's vision • be in line with the HEI's strategic objectives • allow the HEI to meet its legal obligations

When existing policies were reviewed through the lens of the enabling criteria outlined above, in terms of how enabling policies were, what emerged was a sense that policies scored highest at being implementable (46% of criteria met), then second at being reflective of HEI priorities (43% of criteria met) and then third at situated in practice (22% of criteria met). Collectively, only 35% of criteria were met across the reviewed documents. The content analysis indicated that the keywords and phrases used to describe the issues and opportunities of digital teaching and learning were not often reflected in institutional policies. For example, digital footprint, code of practice or code of conduct were mentioned in 36 of the reviewed policies, but none of the policies had been designed specifically to address students' digital footprint/wellbeing, and while the terms social media or social networking were found 162 times across 16 documents, these terms were rarely used in conjunction with the words teaching or learning. Under the heading of assessment, only nine of 66 documents retrieved that referred to assessment contained a mention of assessment near the words electronic, online or digital, and there was a noted absence of mentions of the phrase technology-enabled assessment.

The review also revealed that the lack of appropriate policies that were situated in practice meant that informal practices around the use of digital technology for teaching and learning had emerged that were possibly not serving the needs of the staff, students of HEIs. Reports of inconsistent, inefficient or informal practices surrounding the use of digital technology for teaching and learning is not uncommon, especially

given that the use of digital technology tended to emerge informally from the teaching and learning experience. The review does, however, suggest that policies do need to be more situated in practice if they are to incorporate innovative practice that is responding to existing needs.

An acknowledgement by HEIs of the need to examine their existing policies for digital teaching and learning also emerged from this review, as it was reported that a number of HEIs were looking at their policies and asking whether or not they were fit for purpose, given the challenges and opportunities posed by digital technology. With that in mind, the National Forum has also produced the *Guide to Developing Enabling Policies for Digital Teaching and Learning* (2018b) which outlines eight steps to developing enabling policies. The guide also represents a number of the concerns with using digital technology as reported by practitioners during the review. These concerns are represented in the guide as a series of questions that policy developers can consider as they review their own policies to assess the extent to which they are both enabling, and reflective of, the opportunities and challenges of digital teaching and learning. The Forum hopes that, together, the Review and Guide will be of value to the development of a *Higher Education Digital Transformation Framework*, a key area of focus for the Higher Education Authority, and the development of policies at institutional level.

Key Findings

- The challenges and opportunities related to digital teaching and learning were not generally reflected in the language of existing policies.
- When institutions operate without a robust policy framework for digital teaching and learning, informal practices can emerge which are inefficient, confusing or risky.
- Enabling policies are characterised as those which are implementable, situated in practice and reflective of institutional priorities.
- Enabling policies are permissive rather than restrictive and are intended to aid decision making.
- Many existing policies do not adequately recognise the practice context within which they are situated.
- Many institutions reported being in the process of developing policies for digital teaching and learning.

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Ann Chapman - A Stonechat Flying High

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Introduction

Over the course of an academic year in 2017, once a week, I walked from our main campus on Georges Street in Dublin to one of our annexes on Balfe Street, which

entailed taking a short cut through the Westbury Mall, just off Grafton Street. As I walked through this mall over a period of weeks, I could not help noticing this wonderfully innovative retail space, **Stonechat Jewellers**. As a marketing academic and a former retail buyer, I have a huge interest in innovative retailing and this store had innovation written all over it! So one of those days walking by I decided to pop in and have a browse. That was my first encounter with the marvellous Ms Ann Chapman, Founder and Managing Director of the Stonechat concept. This was also a big 'red flag' day for me, as it was the first time in a long, long time that I have been 'blown away' by excellent customer service. Of course, after my browse, I walked out with a purchase. This is what I now refer to as the '*Chapman affect*', which stems from Ann's incredible charm and simplicity of communication working alongside her clever sales and marketing techniques. One cannot ignore the innovative style of her amazing jewellery designs which give the Stonechat brand a particular competitive advantage. So, after numerous more visits to her store and lots of chatting with Ann around what she was doing and where she was going, I asked her to do this interview, and Ann being the great marketer that she is, of course said yes! So, one fine October morning this year we both met for coffee in the Westbury hotel and had a chat about **Stonechat**.





Alan: *I would like to start off by asking a few general questions. Could you give me an introduction to your business? What's the Stonechat story? How did you get your idea and concept for the business, and why jewellery?*

Ann: I've always been interested in working with my hands. That would be the most important thing. I was quite studious in school. My father is an academic. He's a Professor of Geology in Trinity College, and has very strong opinions on the importance of third level education. I loved the idea of pursuing a slightly alternative career but I was encouraged to get my degree first - to have in my back pocket! I decided to study European Studies in Trinity. European Studies. In different universities the programme means different things. The programmes don't always include business studies. Mine didn't! In fact, I've never studied business. Never in secondary school. Never in college. Not once! (Laughing)

Alan: WOW!

Ann: Yes, there you go! So, it was French, Spanish, History, and Politics for me!

Alan: *I love it. Classical entrepreneurial values!*

Ann: My degree was very enjoyable. I got to do an Erasmus year in Paris which was fantastic. But during this time, I also pursued my interest in crafts. When my degree finished, my class headed off to the Department of Foreign Affairs or off to Brussels to work with Commission etc. That simply wasn't for me.

Alan: *So we won't expect Ambassador Chapman then!*

Ann: NO!

The day I collected the results from my degree, I literally, (this is not a lie), walked out the doors of Trinity College and walked across the road into FAS to look for a course in some kind of craft. Or hand skills or

similar. Just something that allowed me to work with my hands. That's all I wanted.

Alan: *Wow!*

Ann: Thankfully, FAS had a course for me. I had been interested in making jewellery already and as luck would have it, they had a course in jewellery making!

Alan: *Had you ever done anything with regard to jewellery making before?*

Ann: No, I had messed around a bit at home, but nothing of substance. I found a short course that would bring me up to speed in NCAD. I loved that so much that I decided to go back to FAS, to-do one year course. From that, I got to go on a work placement to a jewellers in the north of Ireland called Steensons. They are a family-run jewellers in a little village called Glenarm which is on the north Antrim coast. It is the back of beyond!

Alan: *Ok. A radical move from the comfort of Dublin?*

Ann: Yes, but the most beautiful place on Earth. They were amazing. They are an incredible success story in jewellery and they really opened their doors to me. They gave me keys to the workshop, telling me "Work during the day and have free use of the workshop during the evenings. Come and go as you please. Work away. Whatever you need." They were absolutely fantastic.

Alan: *So what next??*

Ann: There was a course in Kilkenny run by the Design and Craft Council of Ireland. They take 12 people every two years so it is very, very hard to get into. I set my sights on that. It was a competitive entry process. I had to do an interview and an aptitude test. Over a 100 people apply for just twelve places. The problem is that it runs every two years. If you don't get in, you have to wait two years to apply again!

Alan: *Sounds like a big opportunity*

Ann: It's a huge opportunity, some people applied as many as three times over in six 6 years!

Ann: At this time I was working up north in the Steenson's. There wasn't a huge amount to do in this small village anyway, so I spent my whole time

in the workshop. I built up a portfolio and used it to apply to Kilkenny. I got in and it was amazing!

Alan: *What happened next?*

Ann: I was in Kilkenny for two years. It's a very intensive course where you are expected to achieve in two years what you would normally achieve in a four year apprenticeship! Hard work but I loved it.



Alan: *Just to digress for a minute, I am just interested in your opinion on apprenticeship education.*

Ann: *I'm a big believer. If you look at what is trending at the moment in education, it's the apprenticeship programmes.*

Ann: Taking jewellery in Ireland versus jewellery in Germany as an example. There is jewellery **everywhere** in Germany; amazing jewellery and amazing skills. That is because they kept the original apprenticeships schemes going. There is a lesson here. They still have guilds and jewellery making is seen to be a profession. You know, you're going into a trade; learning and honing your skill on the job. Whereas in Ireland, we've lost that, unfortunately.

Ann: I finished in Kilkenny and I didn't really know what the next step was!

Ann: I went into retail and thought that I would get a job as a sales person and do it for a few months and see how it goes.

Alan: *And?*

Ann: I worked in couple of other workshops and got some experience at the bench as well, but I loved retail, I just loved it. I Loved dealing with customers. I love being able to get it right for them. I love being able to offer amazing customer service. Customer service is so lacking Ireland, I can't understand it. That's why I'm really passionate about it, customer service is probably my biggest passion.

Alan: *Why, why Customer service Ann?*

Ann: I just love the buzz of it. The busy days and at the end of a busy day, looking back and thinking, "Yes, we did a great job today."

Ann: I ended up working for Designyard. I started as a sales assistant and then became general manager. I ran the business for five years.

Alan: *That sounds impressive? Where were they based?*

Ann: They were on Nassau Street.

Ann: It was a big shop, a six-story building.

Ann: I loved it as a business and I gave it my absolute all. But I felt that I had taken it as far as I possibly could without being given complete control of the business.

Alan: *So, were you were frustrated?*

Ann: Very! And at this stage it was 2007! So, recession was hitting and things were terrible. Turnover was down so I went to my then employer and said, "I think we need to make drastic changes. I think we need to have a smaller building. We need to have less staff. We need to reduce ranges " (as we had so many designers). We had a vast array of jewellery and it was too much to manage well.

Alan: *Too much clutter. Too much retail noise???*

Ann: I just knew that there was there was too much noise as you describe it.

- Ann:** So, I proposed that we change. I said, "I think we need to look at this. We need to take our 15 top designers. We need to go to a small location. I will run it for you. I will only need one, maybe two other members of staff. We will cut our overheads dramatically and I think we will get a similar turnover". My employer said he wasn't interested. That was the catalyst. So, I did it myself!
- Alan:** *So, Stonechat was born.*
- Ann:** YES.
- Alan:** *Wow.*
- Ann:** Yes. And everyone thought I was nuts! (Laughing)
- Alan:** *So, why Stonechat?*
- Ann:** What I had learnt managing other businesses was that Irish jewellery was so important. Designyard stocked both Irish and European pieces but this was 2007. People were now coming back to saying, "*We want Irish.*" The handcrafted aspect was also important, having the workshop in store was key therefore. This wasn't in other stores and I saw that as a gap.
- Alan:** *Brilliant idea. We call it The Theatre Metaphor model in Services Marketing.*
- Ann:** Yes, this was great theatre! Also, being able to produce ourselves rather than always buying in gives you a lot more control and better margins.
- Alan:** *I'm actually interested as well in your location. I think that the Westbury Mall is a really interesting location. Correct me if I'm wrong, but you kind of put it up to the other jewellers around the area?*



Ann: The Westbury Mall. It hasn't traditionally been a great location in that a lot of business come and go there.

Alan: *It's quite transient.*

Ann: Definitely. What I felt was that it's obviously prime location in that it is a stone's throw from Grafton Street. But it's quite nice that you're not on a very busy street. When people are buying jewellery, it's nice to be in a more private setting. The security aspect was huge because I opened the business on my own, so I was in there on my own six days a week. There's a security guard there. There is a doorman on the hotel just outside. (Laughing). This was huge. I really wanted to have an open door, so being on the street wasn't really attractive.

Alan: *Do you see yourself as a disruptive business in relation to not having the doorbell on the door.*

Ann: Yes, sort of. But that was really one of the most fundamental parts of the business. Opening the door as well as showing prices! Sounds very simple eh? But not many in jewellery were doing that. Doorbells and white gloves still exist!

Alan: *How did you get your idea or concept for the business and the brand, as you are a heavily branded business?*

Ann: It sounds so clichéd, but when I was sitting at the kitchen table and writing a business plan.

Alan: *Really?*

Ann: I went on maternity leave from the other business. I had my daughter and went back after six months...

Ann: It was 2008, no, even later. I'd gone through the recession. I was in that other shop and I just thought that this place is going nowhere. They are not going to do what I want. I didn't know what I was going to end up doing but I knew that this was not for me anymore. I went home and I was talking to my brother, who is a savvy business person and he asked me "why wouldn't you just open your own business?" I replied, "Yes, that's great in theory. But how am I going to do that? How am I going to get the capital?" And he asked me, "Well, have you actually written a business plan?" I said, "No." And he said, "Well, go and write a business plan and bring it back and show me." So, I went home and 24 hours later, I had it finished and in front of him!

Alan: *Why am I not surprised? The Ann Chapman way. Just get it done... (Laughing)*

Ann: It was really interesting just writing the business plan. I'm a big believer in business plans now. A big, big believer...! (Laugh's)

Ann: The business plan focused on things like what are the key concepts? What is important to us? Core values? What is just noise? What's the vision? All of that.

Alan: *But what are your core values?*



Ann: I am a big, big believer in customer service, attention to detail, friendliness. We have a lot of buzz words. Compassion would be a huge one.

Alan: *Would they be pillars of your brand now?*

Ann: Yes. 100%.

Ann: I'm a problem solver. I look at things and see how to improve them. I look at something and say, "Do you know what - it would be so much better if they just changed this or that..!"

Alan: *Brilliant.*

Ann: I walked out of the job. I flew to London and I walked the streets looking for amazing jewellery shops.

Alan: *So you did you market research.*

Ann: Yes, I did. And the funny thing I took away from it that was that there were no "really amazing" shops over there, which I felt was incredible.

Alan: You have a great brand and I think you have a great brand story, right? And branding is all about storytelling?

Ann: Yes of course it is.

Alan: *So, did you have a brand strategy from the start or was it the Ann Chapman way?*

Ann: Good question. I had a clear idea of what I wanted in terms of very a clean, very paired back brand with the focus on the jewellery. That was my main mantra in designing the shop, the ads, the brochures etc. It had to be about the jewellery. It was a question of taking out all of the background stuff, the noise! We have a visual product. Just show that visual product. It will sell itself.

Ann: That was it really. The brand was the key element. I got a graphic designer to design the logo and then we had a lovely story behind the logo. The Story behind the logo is that we are Stonechat Jewellers and a Stonechat is an Irish bird.

Alan: *Can I ask you Ann. Is Stonechat Ann Chapman or is Ann Chapman Stonechat?*

- Ann:** Oh God. That's really tough. I would say I am definitely the main driver of the business but my team are really integral. I do the marketing. I do the radio. I work with PR. I do all of the bigger picture stuff re where are we going to be this time next year? Et cetera. The essence of Stonechat is customer service, and that's more of the team than me. I feel like I could walk away for three months and Stonechat wouldn't be affected.
- Alan:** *You're clearly an entrepreneur. Do have entrepreneurial traits? What personality traits do you think have helped you the most in your successes as an entrepreneur?*
- Ann:** I would say attention to detail and hard work. They are the two things.
- Alan:** *Simple as that?*
- Ann:** Yes! Simple as that!
- Ann:** I just don't believe there is anything you can't achieve if you get up early enough in the morning to do it and if you put the work in.
- Alan:** *What's unique about your business model? What can you say gives you your unique selling point?*
- Ann:** The workshop in store is probably the most important aspect. It gives the ability to offer bespoke and remodelled jewellery. This is a big business opportunity. Apart from that, I would say that within Ireland, we are unique with our branding approach.
- Alan:** *Can you explain this more?*
- Ann:** We are small and approachable. We have a clean look which customers really like. Our ads stand out as we keep them so paired back.
- Alan:** *In marketing we talk a lot about brand personality. It's a huge part of how you sell your business. What do you think is your brand image in the market as brand image is what the consumer sees?*
- Ann:** Tough question.
- Alan:** *So, what do you think the consumer sees?*
- Ann:** So this is an interesting one. I think the consumer sees our main core values coming from our quality products, they see that we are driven by

great customer service together with our attention to detail. And also that we are accessible.

Ann: I have always concentrated on the look of an ad, making the look very clean and tying it in with our brand so that we stand out in the newspaper. There is all this noise. You have all these ads with so much text. I've always tried to pair it back, pair it back, and pair it back so that when you open the page, it's actually the white space that's nearly catching your eye because everybody is trying to fill the page that they're paying for with as much as they can.

Alan: *Less is more?*

Ann: Less is more, exactly. But actually, this is the really interesting thing. You'll love this. We've been open six years and we've advertised in the Irish Times since day one. We've done full pages and we've done half pages. We've done front pages. We've done a whole lot. And we get a huge return from it. But last Christmas, I decided to try something new. I decided to put prices in the ad. So, instead of doing one big image or four slightly smaller images, I did nine products and I put a description and a price under each one. The response to that ad was incredible. What people were saying was, "I always assumed I couldn't afford your jewellery."

Alan: *Wow. Wow. That's incredible!*

Ann: Before I heard the response to that ad I always thought that if somebody saw something in an ad and they liked it, they would at least go to the website to find out how much it was before deciding it wasn't for me, but actually, they weren't!

Alan: *It kind of gives me great hope because I'm a marketing traditionalist in many ways and it still goes back to the four P's of marketing, 'Price, product, promotion, and place'.*

Ann: Exactly. Give the customer all of the information. Do not make them work to find out and don't assume anything.

Alan: *You mentioned online there. How do you compete against online, or do you see online as competition?*

Ann: We work really hard online. It doesn't bring great revenue. I would love it if our online business was stronger. It's something we're definitely looking at. It's a very tricky thing because we are so customer service

focused and our product is so different. What makes us so unique, means that we will not always succeed online. Our website really works as a catalogue rather than as a sales channel.

Alan: *Would you buy a piece of jewellery worth a 1,000 euro online?*

Ann: No. I don't think I'd buy anything worth a 1,000 euros online to be honest but I'm probably quite traditional in that respect.

Alan: *No, you're not. This is a common answer!*

Ann: People may buy more as we move forward with the business. But I am not sure.

Do we compete with online or do we keep progressing our customer service, the customer experience, all of that. These areas are our main competitive advantages.

Alan: *You mentioned before that you're part of the Women Entrepreneurs' group?*

Ann: Yes. Going for Growth. It's an amazing group. I've never sat around a table with such a group of successful businesswomen before. I was the smallest fish in that pond. They are all incredible. Every person has a very different business but all had similar stories. I learned that everyone faces the same challenges, whether you're in healthcare, fashion, IT, whatever it is. We all face the same challenges. It's a great network. What I also took from that meeting is that I think a lot of people in business suffer from imposter syndrome.

Alan: *Maybe just explain that.*

Ann: It's where you always feel that you're kind of winging it. You second guess yourself. Have I created this? You don't believe in yourself or in what you've achieved. I would say that the Going for Growth program makes you take stock of what you've done and realize that you can actually do so much more.

Alan: It sounds great.

Ann: Yes, it is just great.

Alan: *Based on your entrepreneurial mind-set, is there any specific education path you would recommend to follow to become an entrepreneur?*

Ann: Well I'm not sure because I didn't do any of it, (I've never gone to one business class, lecture etc.) which I know is not a great story for you.

Alan: *It's a brilliant story, brilliant story.*

Ann: I wonder had I done business in school and in college...

Alan: *Where would you be now?*

Ann: Where would I be now?

Alan: *You started this business six years ago and you mentioned you were on your own, it was you in your own in the store. Is that a lonely place?*

Ann: Absolutely! (Laughing)

Alan: *So, tell me about your best and your worst days.*

Ann: The fifth birthday was a great day. We had grown from, starting on my own to a team of five within five years which was great. The whole team were on board and it was a big celebration.

Ann: The worst day was, undoubtedly, about three days into opening. I opened on a Saturday morning and then from that day to Friday of the next week, not one customer called in. There was literally nothing. People weren't even walking in the door. They were just walking by. And I just sat there. I went home to my husband and I cried and I said, "What have I done? This is a disaster." I couldn't believe it. But he said, "Don't be ridiculous. You're three days in. What did you expect?"

Ann: And sure enough, we got some PR and suddenly, we've got people coming. And then it just started to happen. I would say since that low point at three days old. It's gone up ever since.

Alan: *Do you think it's important to remember the worst days?*

Ann: I would tend to look more towards the positive than the negative. I often say to the girls in the shop when we're working on procedures, that in the starting days, I'd be handing you a scrap of paper that said 'Do this today' and now it's much better. We have an extensive excel calendar for the workshop and we are process driven, much better!



Alan: *Is there any specific piece of advice you would give to an entrepreneur starting out or a graduate or somebody who has a business idea and who is not sure and has that classic fear factor that you speak about, what would you say to them?*

Ann: I would say just go for it. I think definitely take the risk and go for it but at the same time, I would write that business plan. I would do a P&L. If you don't have a mind for figures, get somebody to sit down and write it with you. Make sure that you know that you can succeed. That there is potential. Do your cash flows and sales projections, all of that stuff because it is important for the business to succeed. Break it down. I had a sales target for every single day from day one. I knew that if I made x amount every day, I was winning. As my overheads changed, I changed that.

Ann: Everyday going home, I used to ring my mum, and she'd say, "Did you achieve it today?" And I'd tell her, "Yes." Or "No" or whatever.... "Or I did double yesterday" I was always in control of the figures. I still am. I watch them religiously.

Alan: *You set targets in your business but what do you think about targeting yourself as an entrepreneur?*

- Ann:** Yes, very important and that's something that the "Going for Growth Group" would encourage greatly. It's something that I think you lose as your business gets busier and you're in the moment. You're firefighting and it's all going great but you really have to always be forcing yourself to take that step back and say, "Okay, it's going great now but is it going to be going great in two years' time if I'm not making these decisions?"
- Alan:** *A couple final questions, based on that last question about targeting yourself and driving yourself and all that, what's the road ahead of Ann Chapman's Stonechat, Stonechat Ann Chapman?*
- Ann:** It's a very good question. Definitely expansion.
- Alan:** *Do you think the brand has travel ability?*
- Ann:** That comes back to the question. Is Stonechat Ann Chapman? I feel that we would have to tailor it maybe? Not sure?? But it would be about pushing more of our products, our collections. But expansion is definitely down the road. I want to expand, otherwise I'd be bored. (Laughing) I don't sit still!
- Alan:** *The Classic entrepreneur (laughs)*
- Ann:** Yes. My brain is always thinking of the next thing.
- Alan:** *Final question. It's a loaded question, taken from a famous entrepreneurial book. You have two teleportation devices? Where do you place them and why?*
- Ann:** Do I get a bit of time to think about that one?
- Alan:** *If you could teleport yourself to somewhere immediately for a day or a few days, where would you go and why would you go there? Because it says something about the person and the entrepreneur. You can take this from a personal perspective or a Stonechat perspective? It's a classic question that entrepreneurs are always asked*
- Ann:** Oh wow.....Really? Ok.
- Ann:** I think I prefer to focus on where I am rather than dreaming about where I could be! I don't think I'd go anywhere to be honest... I'm very happy where I am!

Conclusion

As we departed the Westbury, going our separate ways, I watched Ann walking back towards her store and observing her stature, posture and walking style it is clear that she is the embodiment of her business as she demonstrates both a cool confidence and a powerful demeanour. I could not help thinking that I had not just interviewed Ann Chapman, but a disruptive entrepreneurial star in the making.

Stonechat and Ann Chapman are an incredible story. Earlier this year, Stonechat jewellers scooped the coveted prize of '*Jewellery Store of the Year*' at the *Retail Excellence Ireland* awards. Ann Chapman has been shortlisted for *The IMAGE Businesswoman of the Year Awards 2018* in the category, *Creative Business Women of the Year*. We will watch this space with interest..!

An Introduction to the Central Credit Register

Benjamin Doyle

Training Officer

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Glossary of terms

Consumer: “A natural person, acting outside their trade, business or profession” (Central Bank of Ireland, 2017b).

Non-Consumer: “A sole trader or company who purchases goods and services for business use” (First Citizen, 2018).

Lender: “Credit Information Provider - any person who provides credit including a regulated financial services provider; NAMA; a local authority; and any other person who provides credit. The Central Bank of Ireland, any other Central Bank, and pawnbrokers are excluded” (Central Bank of Ireland, 2017b).

Credit: “A loan, deferred payment or other form of financial accommodation other than that provided by one credit institution to another; to any entity classified within general government; inter-company lending; where credit is provided only to employees; for provision of utilities; purchase of goods or services from the person by whom the credit is provided or where no interest or any other charge is payable” (Central Bank of Ireland, 2017b).

Credit Report: “Hardcopy or softcopy document that is produced by the Central Credit Register in response to a request for access” (Central Bank of Ireland, 2017b).

PPSN: Personal public service number.

TRN: Tax Reference Number

Facility: A mortgage, overdraft, credit card, personal loan or business loan.

Introduction

The Central Credit Register (CCR) was established following the Credit Reporting Act of 2013. This Act was established subsequent to the European Union and the International Monetary Fund Programme providing financial support to Ireland in 2010 after the banking crisis of 2008. Three agents played a central role in the 2008 banking crisis; The Central Bank, lenders and the Government. Lenders failed in their direction

and management of banking practices, the Government relied too greatly on the construction sector and other temporary sources for revenue. Finally, the Central Bank, lacked a sufficient regulatory approach, bank supervision and action (Honohan, Donovan, Gorecki & Mottiar, 2010).

One of the obligations for providing financial support to Ireland was the creation of the CCR by the Central Bank of Ireland. The Central Bank will use information, collected by lenders on borrowers, from the CCR to ensure future financial stability in Ireland by the following means: Identifying and implementing actions to help reduce or remove financial and economic risks to Ireland as well as using collected data to help lenders identify creditworthiness, thus helping the Central Bank to supervise Ireland's financial sector (Credit Reporting Act, 2013; Central Bank of Ireland, 2017f).

Since the 30th of June 2017, consumers who apply for a facility or have a facility still open as of this date, of 500 Euro or more will be reported to the CCR by the lender who received their facility application. The credit facilities included for the consumer are: mortgages, overdrafts, credit cards and personal loans. Since the 30th of March 2018, all non-consumers who have an open facility for 500 Euro or more will report to the CCR. Credit facilities included for non-consumers are any business loans over 500 Euro (Central Bank of Ireland, 2017f).

Under the Credit Reporting Act of 2013, the CCR collects both personal and financial information from lenders on borrowers. The personal information collected includes (Central Bank of Ireland, 2017e):

- Name
- Gender
- PPSN/TRN
- Date of birth
- The borrowers current and previous addresses (if any)
- The borrowers telephone number.

The financial information collected includes:

- The type of loan
- Name of the lender who provided the loan
- The amount of the loan
- The outstanding balance on the loan
- The number of payments past due
- The date of when the next payment is to be made
- The amount the next payment is for

Consumer Reporting

Since the 30th of June 2017, all lenders who provide credit facilities of 500 Euro or more are legally required to submit the aforementioned personal and credit information

regarding consumers. This submitted information will only apply to consumers who currently have a credit facility of 500 Euro or more or are granted a credit facility for this amount or more since June 2017. This information will be reported to the CCR each month by the lenders until the credit facility is completed. Once the facility is closed, it will no longer be reported to the CCR. However, the previously reported months will remain viewable to the consumer for five years and to the lender for two years (Central Bank of Ireland, 2017e).

Non-Consumer Reporting

Since the 30th of March 2018, all lenders who provide credit facilities, for the previously specified amount, will be legally required to submit business customer information and financial information regarding non-consumers. This information will be reported monthly to the CCR until the credit facility is completed. As mentioned above for the consumers, once the facility is completed the reporting ceases and the previously reported months remain viewable to the non-consumer for five years and to the lender for two years. (Central Bank of Ireland, 2017e).

Credit Reports

Credit reports have been available since March 2018 and can be accessed by going to the CCR website and applying for a report. A credit report for a consumer will contain all their credit applications of 500 Euro or more that have been opened or are still open since June 2017. Credit reports can only be generated by the data contained on the CCR. This information includes all credit facilities of 500 Euro or more from all the lenders that the consumer has received. The information is reported monthly and is stored for five years - anything older will be deleted. Credit reports will also contain the most recent six months history of credit applications that the consumer has applied for, regardless of whether they have been granted or not (Central Bank of Ireland, 2017a).

The credit information that is reported can reflect positively or negatively on a consumer. Positive credit information would show a consumer has not missed a payment on their credit facilities, whereas negative credit information would show each payment a consumer has missed on their facilities. The amount of arrears is not shown on the credit report. When viewing this report lenders may use information on any payments past due as an indicator that the consumer will not be able to fulfil their repayments and can potentially result in the denial of the facility. Consumers have the option to add a note of 200 words or less to each monthly report on each credit facility that they have. This may be used to explain why a payment was missed (Central Bank of Ireland, 2017h).

Consumers can view the previous five years of their lending history. Lenders will only be able to access the most recent two years of a consumers lending history and should a lender access a consumer's credit report, a digital footprint at the bottom of the report

will be created detailing the lenders name, the time and date the report was accessed and for what reason. Lenders can only request a credit report when:

- A consumer has made an application for a new facility.
- The consumer wishes to have a facility restructured
- If a consumer has arrears on one of their facilities
- If the consumer has exceeded their limit on their credit card or overdraft.

Since September 30th, 2018, lenders must request a copy of a consumer's credit report when that consumer applies for a credit facility over 2000 Euro (Central Bank of Ireland, 2017f).

Consumers have the right to request that their credit report be amended if they believe that their report contains incorrect information. They can do so by contacting the lender that they believe is providing the inaccurate information or by contacting the CCR directly.

It is important to be aware that the CCR will not issue grades on credit reports. It is up to lenders to interpret consumer data and decide if the consumer meets the criteria for the credit application for which they are applying. One should also note that even if a consumer has positive credit information on their report, such as not missing payments on their facilities, this does not guarantee an automatic approval for subsequent credit facilities (Central Bank of Ireland, 2017e).

PPSN/TRN Capture

Since the 30th of September 2018, lenders must capture the PPSN/TRN of consumers applying for a credit application of 500 Euro or more. This makes it easier to match consumer data over multiple credit facilities. Equally, since the 30th of September 2018, no consumer will be able to apply/receive a credit application of 500 Euro or more without letting the lender capture their PPSN/TRN (EBS, 2018).

The Central Credit Register and the Irish Credit Bureau:

The Irish Credit Bureau (ICB) is a database containing information regarding the performance of credit agreements between borrowers and financial institutions and has been in place since 1963. The biggest difference between the CCR and the ICB is that the CCR is mandatory, whereas the ICB is voluntary. With the establishment of the CCR in June 2017, the future of the ICB may be impacted, as once sufficient data has built up in the CCR to provide an accurate credit history for consumers, the ICB may no longer be necessary. However, for now, both will continue to report in tandem; the CCR to the Central Bank of Ireland and the ICB to financial institutes. The ICB and CCR will still be used by lenders to determine if a consumer can be granted a credit facility (Hamilton, 2018)

GDPR

Consumers or non-consumers have the right to:

- Access any information that the Central Bank of Ireland holds on them,
- See who has accessed their information,
- Have any information that is incorrect investigated/ rectified and forgotten once their credit facility has been closed after a period of 5 years.

The Data Controller for the Central Credit Register is the Central Bank of Ireland (Central Bank of Ireland, 2017a).

Fines and Penalties

Any lender submitting false information to the CCR or using the information gathered for reasons not stated in the Credit Reporting Act 2013 are committing an offence. Offenders can face fines and or imprisonment (Credit Reporting Act, 2013). Any lender committing offences against the data protection policies outlined by the GDPR, can face fines up to 4% of their previous financial year or €20 Million, whichever is highest (General Data Protection Regulation, 2016).

Lender Compliance

Lenders need to ensure they are compliant with the Credit Reporting Act of 2013. This can be done by achieving the following:

- From June 2017 they must submit personal information and financial information for consumers on credit facilities of 500 Euro or more for the following products; mortgages, overdrafts, personal loans and credit cards.
- From March 2018 they must submit business customer information and financial information for non-consumers on credit facilities of 500 Euro or more for the following products; business loans.
- Meet the PPSN/TRN capture for relevant consumers by September 30th, 2018.
- From the 30th of September 2018 onwards, they must request a copy of a consumer's credit report when a consumer applies for a credit facility over 2000 Euro.
- Carrying out amendments to incorrectly reported information on borrowers.
- Ensure all staff who deal with credit facilities or directly with consumers/ non-consumers have been trained on the CCR.

Recommended Sources for further information

The Central Bank of Ireland's Website	https://www.centralbank.ie
Website for Ireland's Central Credit Register	https://www.centralcreditregister.ie
Website for the Irish Credit Bureau	http://www.icb.ie
The Credit Reporting Act 2013	http://www.irishstatutebook.ie/eli/2013/act/45/enacted/en/pdf

This article is general information and does not constitute legal advice or analysis.

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Saving Capitalism - For the Many, Not the Few

Robert Reich
(Icon, 2016)

*Review by **Enda Murphy***

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As we mark the tenth anniversary of the Global Financial Crisis, we would do well to reflect on its deeper undercurrents and their implications. This book by Prof. Robert Reich of Berkeley, a former Labour Secretary in the Clinton administration, is a valuable and thought-provoking aid in so doing.

The author's Democratic credentials tip his hand as to his economic ideological leanings, but that does not detract from one's enjoyment of his work. As befits his senior academic status, this is a well-reasoned and cogently argued book. It amounts to an appeal for "the ninety percent" of Americans to find their collective voice and power, and to wrest back control of capitalism from its present oligarchic state as Reich sees it.

Reich's opening thrust is to suggest that in viewing the Crisis through the lens of the traditional debate between "The Free Market" and "Government Intervention", we are missing a key point – namely, that Government must set the rules by which the Market operates. In recent decades, he argues, political power has become concentrated in the hands of the rich and powerful few [the "corporate and financial elite"]. As a result, the "rules of the game" have been changed in their favour, to the detriment of the many.

Abundant evidence is presented to back up this assertion. The progressive skew whereby the income of top executives far outstrips that of other workers. The ability of large corporates to keep wage increases well beneath increases in productivity and profits. Bankruptcy laws which allow business owners to walk away from debts with relative ease, in contrast to the crippling student debt in the USA, from which there is no such escape. Extended patent protection for multinationals, which allows "supernormal profits" for lengthy periods. All in all, argues Reich, there has been a major redistribution of wealth in America. Blaming this on Globalisation [jobs going abroad to cheaper locations] and Automation [machines replacing people] is wide of the mark.

If such be the problem, then the solution lies in harnessing a “countervailing power” [a term coined by JK Galbraith], whereby the middle and lower classes collectively muster the political power to “reclaim” capitalism on behalf of the many. This grouping includes small and medium companies, middle and lower classes, and ethnic minorities – all of whom, according to Reich, have effectively been disenfranchised. The author offers no inkling as to how or when this might happen. If such an alliance were to come into effect, what should they do in order to restore the balance? Reich has a full agenda for them. Get big money out of politics via limits on campaign contributions and increased disclosure requirements. Significantly curtail the “revolving doors” syndrome, whereby Wall Street executives routinely occupy senior White House positions before returning whence they came. Oblige Academics to disclose funding by outside interests, so that we can tell the difference between a genuine opinion and a “bought” one. Impose tougher Antitrust measures, to engender greater competition to the ultimate benefit of consumers. Re-introduce the Glass-Steagall requirement to ringfence Retail banking and so confine losses in the “casino” of Investment banking to that domain [ironically it was Clinton who, on the advice of Wall Street insiders, repealed Glass-Steagall!]. Outlaw unfair employment contract terms and increase the minimum wage. An interesting suggestion is to make the corporate tax rate a function of the ratio between the wages of the CEO and those of the median worker. Finally, adoption of the Stakeholder approach [more common in Europe], as opposed to the more narrow Shareholder approach which views the firm as accountable primarily to Shareholders [and thus in thrall to the profit motive].

So far so Socialist, one might say. However, Reich does display a playful sense of irony. He floats an old idea, to pay a minimum income to everyone over the age of eighteen [employed or not]. Before the Free Marketeers decry this from the pulpit, Reich reminds them that it was the 1979 brainchild of F.A. Hayek, champion of laissez faire! He also posits a future where robots do the work but people reap the benefits – this time citing none other than Keynes from 1928!

“Saving Capitalism” is a thoughtful work, heart on sleeve by the author. For anyone wishing to understand the contrary view, DBS library carries “The Real Crash”, by Peter Schiff, published at the same time.

Altmetrics: a Practical Guide for Librarians, Researchers, and Academics

Andy Tattersall
(Facet Publishing, 2016)

Review by **Jane Burns**
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For anyone who is involved in supporting, undertaking, disseminating, promoting, or measuring research your quest for the ultimate guide is over. *Altmetrics: a Practical Guide for Librarians, Researchers, and Academics*, edited by Andy Tattersall, is a fantastic resource. This publication is very comprehensive and will be of use from the novice to the Scholarly Communications librarian.

In scholarly and scientific publishing, altmetrics are non-traditional metrics proposed as an alternative to more traditional citation impact metrics, such as impact factor and the h-index. They are not intended to replace traditional bibliometrics but rather to complement them. Altmetrics measure attention on a range of alternative outlets and platforms, such as blogs, news articles and some grey literature. Used in conjunction with traditional bibliometrics they help to tell a more complete research impact story.

An aspect of this book that I really enjoyed was the demonstration of the trajectory of altmetrics. This is clearly illustrated by Euan Adie (Founder and CEO of Altmetric.com) in Chapter 5: The Rise of Altmetrics. This could have been a very techy chapter but instead it reads like an engaging history lesson. I have been an Altmetric Ambassador for Ireland (<https://www.altmetric.com/blog/ambassador-spotlight-jane-burns/>) for the past three years and I learned things that I did not know before.

The contributors to the book make the publication particularly interesting and useful. In addition to Euan Adie there is Claire Beecroft, an information specialist from the School of Health and Related Research at the University of Sheffield; Dr. Andrew Booth who is Reader in Evidence Based Information Practice, also at the School of Health and Related Research, University of Sheffield; Dr. William Gunn, who is the Head of Academic Outreach for Mendeley; Ben Showers who is a Digital Delivery Manager at the Cabinet Office (UK) and Andy Tattersall who is an Information Specialist at the School of Health and Related Research at the University of Sheffield. All of these contributors bring their own perspectives and practical applications to the book. It's also useful to see how different stakeholders in the areas of bibliometrics and altmetrics use and interpret the functions of these approaches to measure attention, impact and, most importantly, engagement.

Researchers publish for a range of reasons but one significant reason is to engage with others by sharing their ideas and outputs. The multiple perspectives from the

contributors really helps the reader to understand the levels of use and applications of altmetrics.

From the beginning, the editor sets out two goals for this book and these are: 1. To explain from a theoretical perspective why altmetrics has come about and how it fits into the bigger picture of research and academia; 2. To be a practical book by providing an understanding of how altmetrics can be applied to various scenarios and to a range of users. From a librarian's perspective this book should be on your desk as a "go to" manual for explaining research impacts and measurements (not limited to just altmetrics). This book achieves these goals and beyond. One of my favourite aspects of the book is the explanation of how different factors have contributed to the development of altmetrics. Robust attention is given to an understanding of bibliometrics, emphasising that altmetrics are not a replacement to bibliometrics, but rather a complementary resource to help tell the complete research story. Insight is provided into the value of using permanent identifiers such as DOI's that underpin the linking of articles to measurements of attention.

The structure of the book is fantastic. Each chapter deals with a specific topic and then highlights key points with detailed references. From a practical point of view, this allows a researcher to investigate further and for a librarian it provides content for information resources and presentations.

An additional audience that will find this book useful is Masters in Library and Information Studies students. I intend to add this book to the reading list for the Management for Information Professionals Course, that I lecture on in the School of Information and Communication Studies at University College Dublin. The reason for this is to ensure that my students will have a good understanding of this emerging and engaging area of research management for their own research outputs and in their future roles as Library and Information professionals.

