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Indonesia's Young Entrepreneurs 2011

Guidelines and Instructions to Form the Students' Teams, to Conduct an Empirical Study and to Elaborate the Paper:

How Social Entrepreneurs Could Contribute to the Society

Content

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A. Introduction

The following guidelines complement the Concept Note on Indonesia's Young Entrepreneurs 2011 and provide instructions for elaborating an empirical study and writing the paper.

As result of this research it is expected that Indonesian student teams of 2 – 3 students and international student teams 2 – 4 students will elaborate and analyse case studies or conduct a survey and analyse the results subsequently. The findings should be summarized in the format of an academic paper on 10 pages as described in the Chapter C.

B. Student Teams

Students from Indonesian universities form university teams (same study programme at the same university), inter-university teams (different study programmes), university mixed teams (different Indonesian Universities) or international teams (Indonesian and European University), which then compete with the other registered student teams. International teams will compete in a separate group.

International student teams will be composed of 2 Indonesian students and 1 - 2 student/-s from European universities. The Project coordinators will invite European students to join Indonesian teams and to work on the research, the paper and the presentation jointly by using e-mails, skype etc. The European students are

also invited to support the Indonesian teammates during the presentation – if they can get sponsorship and financial support from their home universities. In case there is no sponsorship and financial support available, the European students are invited to support the Indonesian teammates by all means of modern communication technology.

C. Work Plan

	Activities	Months				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Terms of Reference	■				
2.	Guidelines for elaboration and presentation of the students' projects	■				
3.	Guidelines for the organization of the *Indonesia's Young Entrepreneurs'* Conference		■			
4.	Guidelines for contacting potential sponsors		■			
5.	Defining the KABS-PA CSR award				■	
6.	Coordination of University Partners	■			■	■
7.	Training of University Partners		■		■	
8.	Call for project abstracts	■				
9.	Evaluation of the submitted project abstracts		■			
10.	Elaboration of the full paper version of the project			■	■	
11.	Monitoring the project preparations of the student teams		■	■	■	■
12.	Monitoring the organization of the *Indonesia's Young Entrepreneurs'* Conference				■	■
13.	Submission of elaborated projects in full paper version				■	
14.	*Indonesia's Young Entrepreneurs'* Conference					■
15.	Documentation of the Conference					■

D. Budget

(finalized after approval of the content)

Nr	Expenses	Amount	Covered by
1.	Terms of Reference	Non-financial	UP, KABS & PA CSR
2.	Guidelines for elaboration and presentation of the students' projects	Non-financial	UP ,KABS & PA CSR
3.	Guidelines for the organization of the *Indonesia's Young Entrepreneurs'* Conference	Non-financial	UP KABS & PA CSR
4.	Guidelines for contacting potential sponsors	Non-financial	UP
5.	Defining the KABS – PA CSR award		KABS & PA CSR
6.	Coordination of University Partners	Non-financial	UP, KABS & PA CSR
7.	Training of University Partners	Sponsor	UP, KABS & PA CSR
8.	Call for project abstracts	Non-financial	UP, KABS & PA CSR
9.	Evaluation of the submitted project abstracts	Non-financial	UP, KABS & PA CSR
10.	Elaboration of the full paper version of the project	Non-financial	UP
11.	Monitoring the project preparations of the student teams	Non-financial	UP, KABS & PA CSR
12.	Monitoring the organization of the *Indonesia's Young Entrepreneurs'* Conference	Non-financial	KABS & PA CSR
13.	Submission of elaborated projects in full paper version	Non-financial	UP
14.	*Indonesia's Young Entrepreneurs'* Conference	Sponsor – University partner	UP, KABS & PA CSR
15.	Documentation of the Conference	Non-financial	UP, KABS & PA CSR

Abbreviations:

UP   – University Partners

KABS – Kofi-Anan-Business School

E. Instruction for an Empirical Study
Copied from: http://www.uiah.fi/projekti/metodi/144.htm

The Goal of Research

When the object of study belongs to **empiria,** the tangible world of people, objects and events, the study is called "empirical" or "factual" as a contrast to *formal sciences* like mathematics and logic, which have no association to empiria. These latter deal with theory only, and they aim at clarifying its structures, i.e. the forms of thinking, such as the processes of logical or mathematical analysis. They will not be discussed on this site.

If we now want to get a general view on the usual approaches and methods in the research of professions and artefacts, it is worthwhile first to observe that the conventional dichotomy between *qualitative* and *quantitative* approaches (the "two cultures of research") is here not fruitful. When the problem to be studied comes from practice, it will seldom consist of qualities or quantities only, but instead it will contain both, or more exactly it will contain aspects that the researcher can choose to register as he pleases, either as qualities or quantities. In academic study it seldom does any harm if you define your problem so that you can use your favorite methods of measurement, but in practical studies you will have better prospects for success if you can use research tools of both types.

Besides, in the study of activities or industrial products qualitative and quantitative presentations are not the only possible ones - sometimes a *picture* can say more than a thousand words or measurements can. The approaches of research that are presented in the following, allow mixing several modes of presentation in the research project, though it cannot be denied that the mode of registering facts restricts the choice of method in their analysis.

Instead of the above mentioned researcher-centered classifications, it is instructive to categorize the methods in the empirical study of human activities and artefacts on the basis of the expected results from the study:

- **Descriptive** (or "disinterested") approach, which aims primarily at gathering *knowledge* (i.e. descriptions and explanations) about the object of study but does not wish to modify the object. The target is to find out how things *are*, or how they *have been.* The project may also include gathering opinions about the desirability of the present state of things, but it does not include planning any improvements.
- **Normative** approach tries to define how things *should be*, which means that it will be necessary to define also the subjective point of view that shall be used. The project includes specifying or planning improvements to the object of study or to later analogous objects, but it does not include carrying out the plans in practice. This approach has sometimes been called "applied research" but this denomination does not catch its essence and it will not be used in the following.
- **Development** projects aim at *improving* the object of study or later comparable objects. Besides carrying out the practical operations, the project includes their planning and the research that is needed to give a basis for the plans. This, however, is very similar to other normative research, and therefore the methods

of development are in the following discussed together with other normative research.

Another, less important dividing line between research methods is based on the expected **degree of universality** of the results of the study. This decision has to be taken into account when determining the *extent* of the study, i.e. how much material has to be collected, and this in turn influences the selection of analysis method. Two principal alternatives in this respect are:

- **Intensive** study searches facts, which concern *specific* cases such as specific models of products or their named designers. This type of facts is sometimes called "idiographic" knowledge. If the study is normative, the target will be to remove a specific practical problem or to improve the same object that was being studied (or other similar objects). Because of the restricted number of objects, it is possible to study them thoroughly in their genuine environment with all their relevant properties and relationships (i.e. the study is *holistic*), thus achieving a deep understanding of their position and meaning in the social and cultural context.
- **Extensive** study seeks knowledge which is common to all or most of the objects in the class and perhaps elsewhere, too, in other words *generally valid* or "nomothetic" knowledge. If the goal is normative, it will mean improving the entire class of objects. The number of objects in the study will usually be great, and it will be necessary to restrict the amount of information and abandon the goal of holistic study. The researcher thus is compelled to select, record and analyze only those attributes of the objects that he judges as important and interesting in his project.

When combining the two categorizations we get the following table, which contains four approaches or styles of study with distinctly different methods. Note that these approaches, while being usual in sciences, are by no means exclusive to the scientific world - they are based on the same four types of reasoning that are very often used in your daily life. Some mundane counterparts of these four scientific approaches are written in green color.

	Descriptive styles of study:	**Normative** styles of study:
Intensive study of one or a few cases:	Case study. Study of the history of art or of design where objects are seen as individual entities. In daily life: inspecting an object new to you. See below.	Evaluative case study. Critique of works of art. Testing products. Removing a problem. Augmenting or enriching an object. Developing a new industrial product. In daily life: planning an improvement to something. See below.
Extensive study which concerns the	Describing or explaining invariances, "laws", common to all the cases in the class. In daily	Creating general **theory of practice,** e.g. procedures, algorithms, regulations or

entire class of cases:	life: elementary education. See below.	standards for an activity or for design. In daily life: teaching or learning a profession or developing it further. See below.

All the approaches of research enumerated above can be used to assist any professional or industrial activity, but each approach does it in a particular manner that differs from the others, as can be seen in the diagram below.
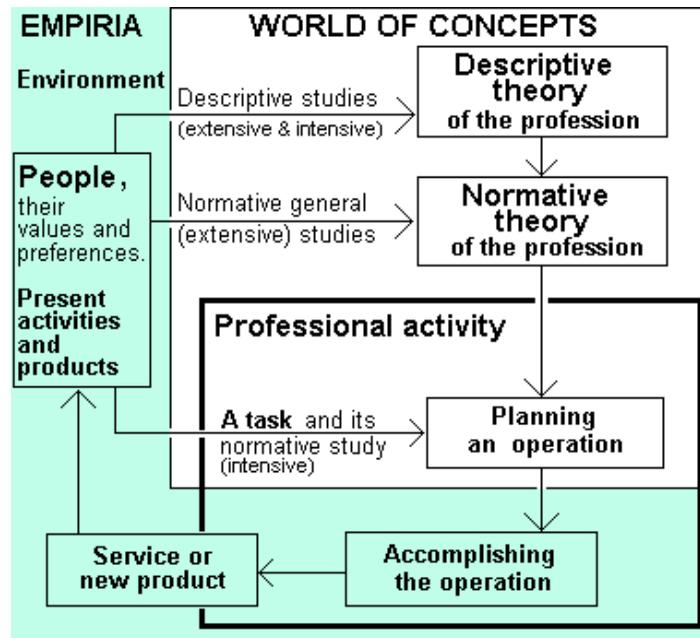
The four above mentioned approaches of research will be explained below in more detail. You can often select one of them as a starting point when planning your own project as a logical chain of operations, which starts from the available inputs of theory and data and finally produces the desired descriptive or normative output.

An alternative point of departure could sometimes be adopting and modifying the approach of an earlier investigation, if a suitable one is at hand.

The Descriptive Approach

Descriptive research aims at gathering *knowledge* about the objects of study but it tries to avoid bringing about any changes in the objects. This knowledge consists mainly of describing the objects. There can also be explanations why the objects are as they are. Moreover, the researcher may sometimes want to collect opinions of people about the pleasing or unpleasant aspects of the objects, but a descriptive study never plans or proposes improvements to the objects.

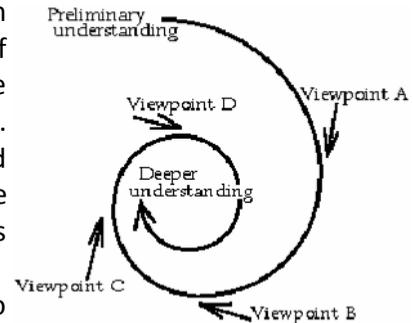## Intensive Descriptive Approach

When the objects consist of one or a few cases only, in other words the study is ideographic, its process needs not much differ from a situation in normal daily life when you want to get acquainted with an object that is new to you. Because you are studying an object that you do not know well, it will be impossible to plan all the phases of the investigation exactly. It can even be difficult to decide which facts are to be collected, and this becomes clear first after some data have been analyzed. You must be prepared to change your plans as soon as the investigation deepens your understanding of the issue. This type of method is often called *iterative.*

The process normally starts at studying the object from several different viewpoints, either from the angles of various established sciences (like in the diagram on the right) or just from miscellaneous practical points of view. Repeating the different vistas helps you to understand better the object, because the initial inspections can serve as a basis for later examinations. The process thus resembles a spiral, which gets gradually closer the goal.

Preliminary understanding — Viewpoint D — Viewpoint A — Deeper understanding — Viewpoint C — Viewpoint B

Sooner or later during the inspection you will be able to specify the most revealing points of view for your study and explain how you "understand" the object. Thereafter you will need to gather only such empirical data that are related to the problem; that will enable you to minimize the material you will have to analyse.

The iterative process is repeated as many times as necessary to reach a satisfactory result, or until the resources are exhausted.

Typical iterative processes are explained in detail on the pages Exploratory Research and Case Study. The method can also be used when you study a number of cases, which are essentially similar; a suitable method for this is often Comparative Study.

Extensive Descriptive Approach

When you are studying an extensive number of cases you would end up with an immense amount of data, if you did not in advance restrict your interest into only a few types of data. To be able to specify meaningfully which data are to be collected, you need to have already at the outset of the project a clear idea about which data you need gather and how you want to analyze them. This in turn makes possible to plan in advance the entire process where each operation is done only once and thus the work becomes speedy and effective.

What then is an effective process of research? At its best it is a logical series of operations which starts from the target or problem of the project, exploits existing knowledge when available, obtains more information when necessary, and finally by analysing these produces the desired result, be it descriptive or normative. Each of these phases will be based on the results of preceding phases, and the quickest method would therefore be to carry them out as a series. Such a linear process is often given in textbooks of methodology as an ideal process of scientific research. It is, indeed, common in technological research, which deal with unequivocally measurable physical things. The process is simply a sequence of distinct tasks, typically the following:
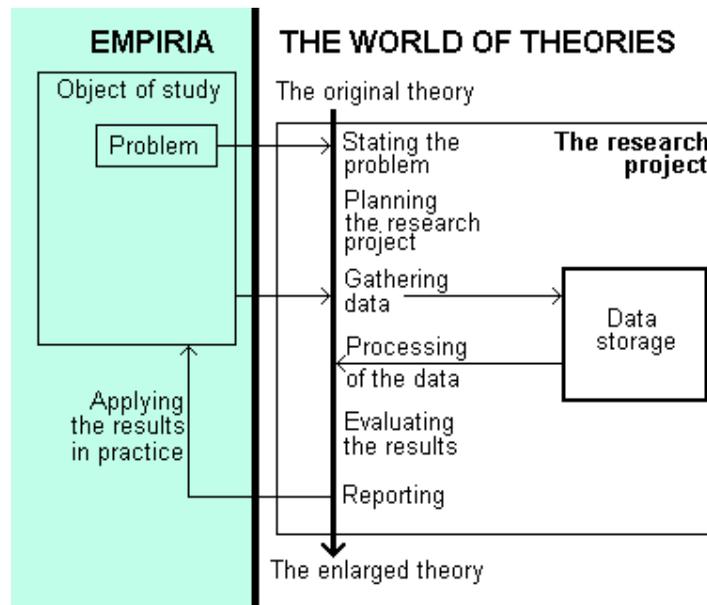
1. Defining the problem, perhaps with the help of a <u>study of literature</u>, and selecting pivotal concept <u>definitions</u>. Formulating the <u>hypotheses</u> (if any)
2. Planning the <u>empirical</u> study. Defining the <u>population</u> to be studied and the methods of <u>sampling</u> and <u>measurement</u>
3. <u>Gathering</u> data.
4. <u>Analysing</u> the data. It can consist, for example, of expressing the data as a <u>model</u>, or of verifying a hypothesis with them, or of <u>predicting</u> the future of the object of study.
5. <u>Assessing</u> the validity and reliability of the results
6. <u>Reporting</u>

The Normative Approach

The target of normative research is to *improve* the object of study or to create a new, better state of things. As was indicated in the <u>table</u> above, the approach will be slightly different depending on the *extent* of the study, i.e. how many objects that shall be improved.

- **Intensive** normative research aims at improving not more than a few objects, or only one. It will usually be possible to manipulate this object directly already in the final phase of the research and development project. Because the number of objects is small, it will often be possible that at least some of those people that will be affected by the final proposals of the project will be able to participate in the project. Intensive normative methods will be discussed below in more detail.
- **Extensive** project intends to improve a class of similar objects. It will usually be difficult to contact all the people who can have relationships with these objects, and arrange for their participation in the project. Another peculiarity of extensive normative research is that the project can seldom include carrying out in practice

the planned improvements more than as a small pilot project. Usually all that can be done is to write instructions for this final achievement, in other words compose *theory of practice* for it. We will return to these methods a little later on.

Intensive normative approach

In intensive normative study, in other words, when attempting to improve an object or a state of things, it is often possible that some of those people participate in the project whose opinions or interests shall guide the preparation of the normative proposals. This is an option that may or may not be used, but in all cases the decision will have a deep effect on the methods of the study. In this respect, two distinct alternatives are (though intermediate approaches are possible, too):

- participatory approach where at least some of the users of the results take part personally, and
- professional researcher-centered approach where the interests of appropriate people are gathered or assumed by the researcher. It will be his responsibility to pay attention to them when writing the final proposals of the project.


Participatory normative study. A reliable though often arduous method of preparing proposals for improving a state of things is the participation of the people whose lives will be affected by the proposals when carried out. Interest groups that might be relevant in such a project are enumerated on the page Normative Point of View. However, quite often it would be difficult or impossible to arrange in practice the participation of all these people.

In the case that at least the majority of pertinent groups of interest can be represented in the meetings of the project, there are good chances of finding an alternative acceptable for all, and in the best case it can be done quickly and cheaply.

When the problem to be corrected is simple and there is no disagreement about goals, often a single meeting of all parties is enough to agree about both the problem and its solution. As a point of departure can often be taken either the existing disadvantage or an ideal state of things which perhaps is in itself unattainable, and on the basis of one or both of these the meeting can agree about the proposal. In the best case further studies will not be needed at all.

If the first meeting, however, fails to reach unanimity, the normal option then is to agree on the topics to be investigated until the next meeting and on the principles that a renewed proposal should conform to. Normally the meeting also authorizes a workgroup or researcher for these tasks.

Because participation usually brings with it contrasting opinions, it is quite normal that disagreement compels redoing a part of the work and returning to an earlier stage of the process. If there are many such backward returns the process begins to resemble more a circle than a linear succession of decisions. Indeed, a *spiral* like the one on the right is a very typical model of a development project.
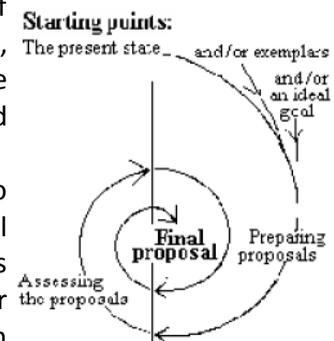
Normal phases in the iterative "spiral of development" are as follows.

1. **evaluative description** of the initial state (perhaps including its earlier development) and defining the need for improvements
2. **analysis** of relationships and possibilities to change things
3. **synthesis:** proposal for improvement (and its testing, in a project of development)
4. **evaluation** of the proposal or of the test.
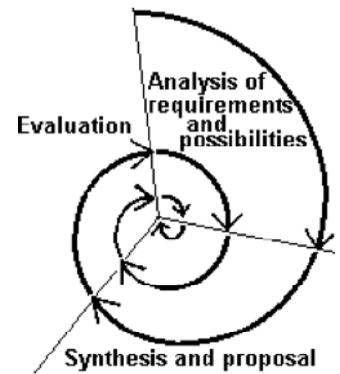
By repeating the sequence from 2 to 4, and by gradually improving the proposal, an acceptable result is usually found.

Participatory normative approach is explained in more detail on the pages Normative Point of View, Recording Normative Data, Participating Normative Analysis, Evaluating Normative Proposals and Normative Reporting. Examples of typical normative research and development processes with this approach are described on the pages about Action Research, of Developing an Industrial Product and of Scientific development of a work of art.

Professional normative approach. When the preferences of all the pertinent interest groups are self-evident or the researcher is able to find them out with survey methods, or when there are practical reasons which prevent participation of these people, the entire process of normative research can be carried out by the professional researcher(s) with no participation of the people which will be affected by the project. The process might then consist of a linear series of simple decisions, for example as follows:

1. Defining the target. It could be e.g. removing an existing inconvenience or creating a new product. An essential component of the target is also declaring the point of view that shall be used when making the normative proposals.
2. Defining which factors in the context can be modified and which not. You might think, for example, that the quickest way to achieve the target could be to change the political system. However, the project cannot do it and therefore the present state of political power must be taken as "given".
3. Planning how to reach the target, preferably as a few alternatives.
4. Selecting the best alternative (which is either the one that fulfils best the target, or the one that gives a satisfactory result with least expenses).
5. Making a detailed plan of action.
6. Submitting the practical proposals to the people that can decide on them (e.g. the management of the company or a governmental agency) which may require redoing any of the preceding stages.
7. The operations in practice (in a project of development).

The professional normative approach is explained in more detail on the pages Normative study of literature, Normative Point of View, Recording Normative Data, Professional Normative Analysis, Evaluating Normative Proposals and Normative Reporting. Examples of this approach are industrial new product development and the development of an existing activity with methods engineering.

Extensive normative approach

Studies, which aim at developing a great number of objects, have a special character which influences their methods, too. Typical traits in these studies are:

- The study is often commissioned by a permanent organization, such as a government, large industrial company, a committee for co-operation in a field of industry, or an institute for standardization.
- The study is conducted by professional researchers without any participation of the people that will be affected. The researchers have to find out the views of pertinent interest groups. Methods for this include:
    o study of literature,
    o ad-hoc meetings, advisory committees for the development project, and the steering group of the project,
    o interrogating methods,
    o asking statements or opinions from possibly interested organisations or experts.
- The research phase seldom is continued as development in practice. The reason is that the results intended to be applied at various points of time by various people and organizations. Therefore the proposals with their justifications have to be presented as general **theory of practice,** for example as Theory of Design or Theory of Production, which consist of material in the formats of governmental regulations, standards and recommended exemplars, among other material.
- In most fields of industry and of other activities theories of practice evolve quite slowly. In other words, much of applied theory has been written a long time ago. That is why many research projects aim simply at updating the text and correcting obvious faults and outdated instructions. In fact, in many fields of industry updating is now a continuous activity, and there are permanent research institutions for it. In connection with these there can be arrangements for collecting feedback and critique about the activity or products in question.

You can often plan the method for an intended extensive normative project as a linear process, such as:

1. Defining the target, which usually is to remove a widespread problem in present activity or in present production and/or to correct an outdated passage in existing theory. Defining the general principles and goals that have to be observed in the work, for instance the targets of safety or economy. An essential component of the target is also declaring the point of view that shall be used when making the normative proposals.
2. Stating which facts in the context have to be taken as "given" facts which cannot be modified.
3. Planning how the fulfil the target. This is done preferably as several alternatives, including one where the present state of things continues as such.
4. Selecting the alternative that is best. This can either be the one, which fulfils best the targets, or the cheapest of the acceptable alternatives.
5. Asking opinions or statements from interested parties.
6. Presenting the proposals to the direction of the commissioning organisation, which then either accepts the work or demands new alternatives to be made.

7. Once the proposals have been accepted, it can be necessary to arrange a campaign of publicity or professional training, to disseminate the new instructions to all those who can make use of them.

The process of extensive normative study is further explained on the pages Normative study of literature, Normative Point of View, Recording Normative Data, Professional Normative Analysis, Evaluating Normative Proposals and Normative Reporting. Examples of applying it into a few particular fields are given under the titles How to Create Theory of Design and How to Create Theory for an Activity.

Examples of theories created with this approach are several Theories of Production, Theories of Design of various products such as architecture or furniture, and theories about goals of product design, in topics such as usability, beauty, message, ecology, economy and safety of products.

Modifying the Method of Another Investigation

The general models of process given above are not the only possible starting point in selecting the method of investigation for your particular problem. A working set of methods can often be adopted from an earlier published research project, thus saving much time otherwise spent in planning and testing a fresh tailor-made method.

Note that when duplicating the methods of an earlier project you have to take care of not copying those procedures that are unsuited to *your* special problem of study. When imitating the method of an earlier project, you cannot avoid of tacitly accepting many components of its paradigm - approach, models, definitions of concepts, and even tacit evaluations. This may be advantageous because it promotes "normal science" i.e. the steady growth of the field of study where the scientists base their work on the results achieved earlier.

One potential disadvantage of relying on an existing paradigm is that it tends to restrict the area of new studies. A strong paradigm invites the neophyte scientist to study such problems that are firmly related to the existing theory and which already have been studied to some extent, and for which there are well-tried methods. This is the reason behind the fact that many research institutions today are specializing in either "qualitative" or "quantitative" studies (the Two Cultures of Research), which often unnecessarily restricts their work.

Imitating earlier methods may be convenient when you study problems that have emerged *inside* the scientific community. This is the case often if your goal is just to make research, for example a thesis. However, when the problem originates from the practical world, from the recent evolution in society and in industry, your chances of finding a solution to it may improve if you use the more tortuous approach that is outlined below.

Planning the Use of Resources

The target of the project - what you are expected to accomplish - has been discussed above, and when well defined it will then give the basis for scheduling your work and planning the resources necessary for the work. Targets can make the work easier and faster: it is easier to proceed when you know what you are aiming at.

Beside the goals for what shall be achieved, it may be useful to plan those resources, which are critical or scarce, like e.g.

- **research assistants,**
- **apparatus:** e.g. transport or measuring instruments, computer time,
- **money.** If you can estimate the monthly income of the project, this gives a basis for the monthly budget of expenses. Both are often combined into a plan of *cash flow* (see example).

Scarcity of resources can compel you to revise the project plan, as there are great differences in the costs of methods. Savings can be attained by e.g. the following strategies:

- A study of literature instead of an empirical one
- In empirical study, giving a more restricted definition for the population of study.
- A smaller sample size.
- Instead of interviews use a questionnaire.
- Instead of field observation use ex-post-facto research or experiments in laboratory.
- Lower level of accuracy, statistical significance etc.
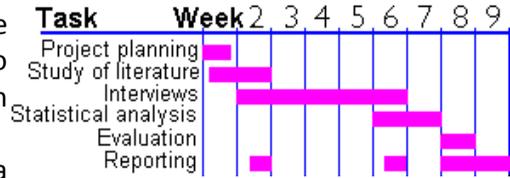
Of course, such savings often result in a lower level in the reliability, validity and in the practical usefulness of the outcome.


Time Schedule

Timing of the research project is often governed by outside requirements and restrictions, like:

- Timing of the **results:** you may have a certain deadline for them. You must then be prepared to present what you have got, even if you personally would prefer continuing the analysis before publishing.
- Timing of the **empirical work** will sometimes be possible only during a certain season, or in the presence of certain people. Besides, the work itself, for example posting the questionnaires and waiting for the answers require a certain time, which you cannot curtail.
- **Analysis** and reporting takes some time, too, especially when there is much material. You can perhaps reduce the duration if you can estimate the amount of work and you have the possibility of hiring assistants.

If you can divide your project into separate tasks with their individual targets, it also becomes possible to plan each task in advance.
you present each task as a bar on a calendar based grid, the result is a **Gantt diagram,** sometimes called "road map", an example of which can be seen in the upper figure on the right. Such a diagram may help defining the most effective sequence for the jobs and allocating resources to all the various tasks. It also helps in budgeting your incomes and expenses, or your own weekly hours and those of your research assistants.
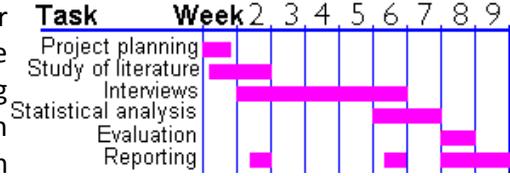
The calendar based Gantt diagram is also an effective tool in the follow-up of the progress of the project. If you weekly mark in red the real progress of each task, like in the lower figure, you will get a good overview of the general situation of your project. In the example, the interviews are well ahead of their timetable, while reporting lags behind and might require assistance.
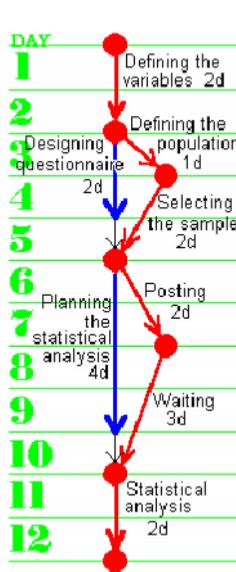
The tasks in a project are often linked in such a way that it is possible to start a task only when some other task is completed. In a project diagram, you can indicate such a link with an arrow between the tasks, and thus create a **PERT graph** (abbreviation from **P**rogram **E**valuating and **R**eview **T**echnique). An example is on the left. You can also include such "tasks" (thin black arrows in the graph), which are just logical dependences between the stages of work and involve no working time. The graph can be drawn on a calendar grid, or just on plain paper. It is usually made in a horizontal position.

If you refine the PERT graph by adding the estimated duration of each task, it becomes possible to specify the **critical path** of your project. It means the sequence of those tasks, which dictate the shortest possible duration of your project (assuming that you have enough resources at your disposal). In the PERT graph on the left, this succession of tasks (the red arrows) contains 2+1+2+2+3+2 = 12 working days.

In reality, few research projects have unlimited man-power resources; nevertheless a PERT graph may prove useful in clarifying the logical chain of tasks.

Other types of models suitable for planning a project, such as the Unified Modeling Language, are enumerated on the page Models.

For managing a large project, a computer with a project planning program is often used. If you feed the durations and the logical relationships of the various tasks into the computer, it then prints out the general plan of the project as a Gantt or PERT graph, whichever you choose. The project planning program can also help you in the follow-up of the project.

F. INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS for Paper Preparation

1. Manuscripts must be written in English on one side only of white A4 sized (210mm x 297mm) good quality paper. The use of a word processor in conjunction with a letter-quality or laser printer is desirable. All papers should follow the format given in the attached sample. The author must carefully check the manuscript so that there are no spelling or grammatical mistakes.

2. Use 12 pt Times New Roman font and one-and-a-half line spacing for all text. All text should be left and right justified. Footnotes and underlines are not allowed. Left, right, top and bottom margins are 25 mm in entire manuscript.

3. **PAPER TITLE** not more than two lines using 16 pt Times New Roman font should be all capitals, bold, centered on the top of the first page leaving 3 blank lines before and 2 blank lines after. **Author's Name** using 12 pt Times New Roman font should be bold and centered followed by his/her affiliation (not bold) under it. Leave one line blank between names of authors of different affiliations; otherwise, they should be in line.

4. **An Executive Summary** (don't confuse the executive summary with the first Abstract!) should briefly research objectives, methodology, results and conclusions. The text should be typed and edited strictly in accordance with the instruction to authors and with the Executive Summary Sample. The length of the executive summary is 1 (One) pages (EXACTLY) in A4 sized paper including figures and tables. It should not contain more than 5 keywords with NO REFERENCE.

5. An **ABSTRACT** (12 pt Times New Roman all capitals, left justified and bold) of not more than 150 words should be given at the beginning of the paper using *10 pt. Times New Roman and italic not bold*. Leave 2 blank lines before the **ABSTRACT** and 1 blank line after.

6. **MAIN HEADINGS** should be 12 pt Times New Roman all capitals, left justified, bold and without numbering, leaving 1 blank line before and after. **Second Headings** if any should be Title Case, left justified, bold without numbering, leaving 1 blank line before and start text without line space but giving the indent of the first line by 5 spaces. Start new paragraph without line space but giving the indent of the first line of the paragraph by 5 spaces.

7. All **Equations** should be numbered (1, 2, 3 etc.), enclosed in parentheses and centered.

8. **Table** numbers and captions should be placed on top of the table and centered using 12 pt Times New Roman without bold. Number tables consecutively and locates

them close to where they are first referenced in the text. Leave at least one line between the table, caption & text.

9. **Figure** numbers and captions should be placed at the bottom of the figure and centered using 12 pt Times New Roman without bold. Number figures consecutively and locates them close to where they are first referenced in the text. Leave at least one line between the figure, caption & text.

10. In the text, **References** should be quoted by the author followed by year of publication in parentheses. The list of references at the end of the main text should be arranged in alphabetical order. All references must be cited in the text. **Acknowledgement**, if any, should appear before reference, however it should not be more than 50 words.

11. Authors are also requested to submit the manuscript as an attached file (MS word and pdf files) to following e-mail addresses: yucemaria@pa-asia.com

12. The manuscript of Full Paper & Executive Summary (must not exceed 10 pages excl. coversheet, references and annexes) should reach us by **15 April 2011.**

13. Sample format of the first and subsequent pages of the manuscript of full paper is given below.

25 mm top margin

3 blank lines (title page only)

INSTRUCTIONS FOR AUTHORS FOR PREPARATION OF MANUSCRIPT OF THE PAPERS (14 PT TIMES NEW ROMAN, BOLD, CENTERED)

(2 blank lines)

Author 1 (12 Pt Times New Roman, Bold, Centered, Full Name)

Affiliation 1 (12 Pt Times New Roman, Centered)

(1 blank lines)

Author 2

Affiliation 2

(1 blank lines)

Author 3

25 mm left Affiliation 3

(2 blank lines)

ABSTRACT

An Abstract (12 pt Times New Roman all capitals, left justified and bold) of not more than 150 words should be given at the beginning of the paper using 12 pt. Times New Roman and italic not bold. Leave 2 blank lines before the Abstract and 1 blank line after.

MAIN TEXT

Manuscripts must be written in English on one side only of white A4 sized (210mm x 297mm) good quality paper. The total length of the paper including figures (diagrams and photographs), tables and references must not exceed 10 pages and total pages should be even number. The use of a word processor in conjunction with a letter-quality or laser printer is desirable. All papers should follow the format given in the attached sample. The author must carefully check the manuscript so that there are no spelling or grammatical mistakes. The organizers will not attempt to edit or correct the submitted papers.

25 mm right

25 mm bottom margin

Use 12 pt Times New Roman font and single line spacing for all text. All text should be left and right justified. Footnotes and underlines are not allowed. Left, right, top and bottom margins are 25 mm.

Equation and Figures

All equations should be numbered (1, 2, 3 etc.), enclosed in parentheses and centered.

EQUATION   (1)

Table numbers and captions should be placed on top of the table and centered using 12 pt Times New Roman without bold. Number tables consecutively and locates them close to where they are first referenced in the text. Leave at least one line between the table, caption & text.

Table 1 Caption of the table

Year	Generation (tons/day)	Generation Rate (kg/capita/day)
2004	495	0.432
2005	520	0.456
2006	545	0.467

25 mm top margin

Figure numbers and captions should be placed at the bottom of the figure and centered using 12 pt Times New Roman without bold. Number figures consecutively and locates them close to where they are first referenced in the text. Leave at least one line between the figure, caption & text.
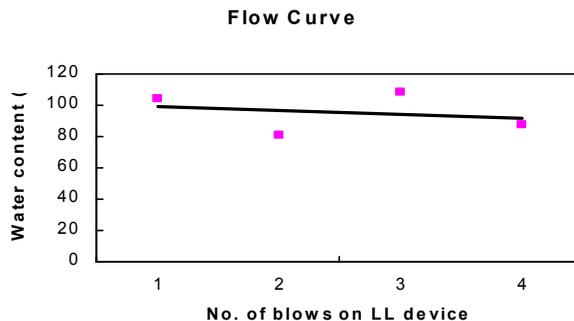
Flow Curve

Figure 1 Caption of the figure

    Main headings should be 12 pt Times New Roman all capitals, left justified, bold and without numbering, leaving 1.5 blank line before and after. Second headings if any should be Title Case, left justified, bold without numbering, leaving 1 blank line before and start text without line space but giving the indent of the first line by 5 spaces.
    Start new paragraph without line space but giving the indent of the first line of the paragraph by 5 spaces.

CONCLUSION

    In the text, references should be quoted by the author followed by year of publication in parentheses as Author (1998). The list of references at the end of the main text should be arranged in alphabetical order. All references must be cited in the text.

    Authors are also requested to provide a soft copy of the manuscript either by sending an e-mail with the file attached to yucemaria@pa-asia.com and should reach us by **15th of April 2011.**. The file should be in MS-Word 98 format or higher version.

REFERENCES

Aaaaaa, A. and Eeeeee, A.B. 1996. *Name of Book in Italics*, Publisher, ISBN, Place of Publication.

Aaaaaa, A. 1997. Title of Conference Paper, *Proceedings of Conference Title in Italics*, Conference Location, Month and Year, pp. 1-12.

Bbbbbb, B., Cccccc, C. and Dddddd, D.E. 1995. Name of Paper, *Name of Journal in Italics,* Vol., No., pp. 4-20.

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25 mm bottom margin