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Using Cognitive and Emotional Intelligence to Predict Efficacy for Team Work

Howard Coetzer

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Abstract:

Purpose – The purpose of this empirical research study is to examine the influence of both cognitive intelligence (IQ) and emotional intelligence (EQ) on confidence in the ability to work in teams.

Design/methodology/approach – A total of 510 management students working in self managing project teams completed two measures of emotional intelligence (Schutte and Baron-EQI), two measures of cognitive intelligence (Watson-Glaser and Wonderlic), and a measure of efficacy for working in teams. Product moment correlations were used to examine associations between the measures. The Williams T2 test was used to test for significant differences in correlations between efficacy for team work and both EQ and IQ. Hierarchical regression was used to test whether EQ remains a significant predictor of efficacy for team work after controlling for IQ. Hierarchical regression was also used to test whether IQ moderates the relationship between EQ and efficacy for team work.

Findings – Both IQ and EQ are significant predictors of efficacy for team work but EQ is a more significant predictor than IQ even after controlling for the influence of IQ.

Research limitations/implications – Future research needs to sample a variety of workplace teams, and more research on the antecedents of EQ is needed to identify potential interventions. The measurement of EQ needs to improve through further stabilization of the content and structure of the construct and the validation of instruments that directly measure the core components of the construct.

Practical implications - Organizations that are increasingly reliant on the performance of employee teams need to be more aware of the influence of EQ on team member confidence. Individual training and team interventions that target and promote higher levels of emotional intelligence are important services for individuals and teams.

Originality/value – This study expands our understanding of how emotional intelligence operates within the team performance nomological network. More specifically, this study provides empirical evidence of a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and efficacy for team work which is a key variable within the team performance network. This research is of value to researchers, organizational development specialists, managers and team members who are looking for powerful sources of leverage for improving team member confidence and performance.

Social Computing and the Role of the Individual in Project Success: A Case Study

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University of Liverpool

Abstract:

Modern professionals in the field of information systems management frequently work in project based environments. Industry has requested that the university education for these professionals include development of the skills needed for being a project team member. Courses focused on team building techniques typically examine the tools teams can use in physically co-located teams. This case study examines the development of a masters level course in social computing for international ISM professionals designed to have students experience, reflect and develop expertise in the use of social computing tools for virtual project teams. A course survey is proposed for future research in the pilot launch of the course.

From Companies to Classrooms: Do Teambuilding and Feedback Methods Transfer?

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Cinyuki (Sze Wa) Chung

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Abstract:

This pipeline paper explores how well common team practices (teambuilding, 360-degree feedback) transfer from corporate to academic settings in helping student teams be more effective. While our cohort, pretest-posttest design found that neither feedback nor teambuilding led to statistically significant differences in key team outcomes, feedback did produce a stronger effect than teambuilding. Together with a brief follow-up study, the data suggests that feedback can be a beneficial and important element in team-based curricula.

Testing the relationship between leader altruism, psychological capital, interpersonal political skills and donor behavior as moderated by organizational climate in the faith-based nonprofit setting

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Abstract:

Faith-based organizations (FBO's) that provide a range of human services to those with needs are facing considerable challenges. One particular issue concerns what leaders of nonprofit organizations can do to engage and encourage donors to support its mission and organizational values? This presentation represents an overview of a doctoral dissertation idea to study the relationships between leadership, specifically nonprofit chief executive officer's (CEO's) characteristics of *altruism, psychological capital* and *interpersonal political skills, organization culture* and *donor behaviors*, such as charitable giving, volunteer engagement and motivation. It is imperative that nonprofits generate the support of external stakeholders, or stand to risk significant substantial financial obstacles.

Microbrewing in Madison County, Alabama: Exploring Business Formation Strategies and Regulatory Compliance

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Abstract:

Alabama's craft beer makers have contributed to changing the economic landscape of the state's beer industry. Since 2009, Alabama State legislators have adopted laws that allowed business leaders to venture into the craft beer industry, by permitting higher contents of alcohol by volume (ABV), brewpubs, and home brewing (Alonso, 2011). As a result, prospective beer makers in Alabama can participate in the craft beer market, which in the United States generates \$6.5 billion in sales annually (Murray & O'Neill, 2012). However, in spite of legislation changes regarding Alabama's beer industry, Baginski and Bell (2011) argued that, in southern states such as Alabama, beer makers confront a collective, rooted sentiment against alcohol products that has limited the craft beer industry growth. Alonso assessed the legislation to explore business opportunities for microbreweries in Alabama and noted that regardless of the concessions, the presence of a "hostile regulatory environment" (2011, p. 428) created hardships for expansion. The information obtained for this proposed study will be important for educating business leaders with a financial interest in the craft beer market prior to capital investment because the successful establishment of microbreweries is dependent on regulatory accreditation.

Problem Statement

Between 2009 and 2014, the Alabama State legislature passed a series of bills that granted the microbrewery sector more favorable business conditions (Alonso, 2011). Kleban and Nickerson (2012) discovered that the U.S. craft brewery industry experienced 18.6% increase from 2006 to 2011, and in 2010, it accounted for 1,625 independently owned breweries. The general business problem is that business leaders venturing in the microbrewery sector must expect long delays due to state and city requirements unique to this industry prior to establishment. The specific business problem is that little research exists that provides strategies to address the needs for successful completion of licensure requirements for business leaders with an economic interest in the microbrewery industry.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this qualitative case study is to explore the strategies used by business leaders representing the microbrewery industry in Madison County, Alabama, for successful completion of licensure requirements for obtaining a microbrewing license. Semi-structured interviews with the owners of microbreweries licensed to brew inside Madison County limits will help in developing a better understanding of the business challenges of establishing a new microbrewery. The data from this proposed study might contribute to social change by providing a set of strategies for business leaders to complete the licensure requirements in starting a microbrewery, which could promote business creation, employment, and added taxation revenue.

Research Question

What strategies do microbrewery business leaders in Madison County, Alabama use to navigate the licensure requirements in starting a microbrewery?

Nature of the Study

This proposed study will comprise the qualitative research methodology and case study design. The qualitative case study could serve best to uncover the strategic approaches used by business leaders representing the microbrewery industry in Madison County, Alabama, in the successful fulfillment of licensure requirements in launching a microbrewery. Alonso (2011) used a qualitative case study approach to explore the business of craft beer tourism in Alabama and conducted semi-structured

interviews with six participants who own or are working towards the establishment of a microbrewery or brewpub in Alabama. Maye (2012) applied a case study design and conducted interviews with the representatives of six microbreweries, thereby gaining an understanding of the supply chain structures regarding this industry. Therefore, the method and design proposed for this proposed study corresponds with current research.

Conceptual Framework

The dynamic capabilities framework (DCF) (Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997) serves as the conceptual framework for this proposed study. After legislators in Alabama adopted the laws that allowed the commercialization of craft beer in the state, craft beer makers faced what Alonso (2011) referred to as regulatory hostility targeted to hinder the business practices of this industry. The application of the DCF can assist in examining how prospective beer makers applied strategic decisions in adapting their resources to meet the legislative demands regulating Alabama's craft beer industry prior to establishing a new microbrewery. The analysis concepts presented by business scholars (Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997) in the DCF have relevance for this proposed study because it provides an articulate approach in exploring how beer makers in Madison County, Alabama configured capabilities and formulated strategies to start a new microbrewery.

Academic Research Implications: Entrepreneurial Passion Theory

Cardon et al. (2009; 2013) studied the effects of passion as a key driver of entrepreneurial action. The intent to begin a new business enterprise could be traced to how passionate the business leader felt about the prospects of becoming a business owner. In the craft beer industry, Watne and Hakala (2013) applied the EPT and validation tool to study the passion factor as a motivating tool to aspiring beer makers, and found that the emotional component played a vital role in business leaders representing the craft beer industry. Business researchers could benefit from the implications of this study to explore how passion-for-craft could motivate individuals to become business leaders. In particular, the “craft” movement is a dedicated effort to offer products or services available to the consumer at large, but offered by using rudimentary methods and attempt to provide the consumer a first-hand experience on purchasing something that is not mass-produced.

Academic Research Implications: Resource Partitioning Theory

Carroll and Swaminathan (2000) found the microbrewing industry particularly appropriate to explore the evolution of niche markets by using the RPT (Carroll, 1985). The RPT proposes that specialist organizations (e.g. microbreweries) can operate successfully in the market's peripheral without direct competition from generalist organizations (e.g. Anheuser Busch). Researchers have used the RPT as the conceptual/theoretical framework for academic studies regarding the microbrewery industry. However, the RPT and studies on the microbrewery industry could apply to other business ventures similar to the microbrewery industry.

The application of the RPT could benefit business scholars exploring niche markets in various business fields such as farmers market movement, artisan products movement (e.g. specialty cheeses, small wineries, or specialty meats), or specialized financial services. In these cases, the consumer can opt to acquire the product or service from the generalist organization, but the specialist entity may provide an unique experience that the consumer may benefit from paying an added charge for the product and the experience or the sensation of consuming something unique and not produced for the masses.

Importance of Study

By using the fundamentals of the Dynamics Capabilities Framework for this multiple-case study, I can interview participants through semi-structured interviews to gain tacit knowledge about how microbrewers strategized to accomplish licensure requirements to launch a new microbrewery. The information derived from this study might assist in informing about effective strategies that individuals with financial interest in the microbrewery industry could use to navigate more effectively, what could be, the demanding process of fulfilling the licensure requirements to launch a new microbrewery.

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The Value of a Non-Traditional Approach to Marketing Education

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Abstract:

Most marketing courses in graduate-level programs emphasize the creation and implementation of marketing plans after the product has been developed. Little attention has been paid to marketing's role in advancing ideas from product concept through research and development. This paper reports on an approach to teaching marketing at the MBA level in a private AACSB-accredited college of business. It proposes that in the current technology-driven economy with academic emphasis on entrepreneurship, innovation and leadership it is imperative that marketing educators change their orientation and priorities, especially when designing the first or only course offered to practicing managers.

The Impact of Personal Health and Stress in an Arbitration Case: A Case Study

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Abstract:

Filing a grievance almost always involves a highly stressful and emotional situation. If the case is not brought to a conclusion fairly rapidly, bitterness and resentment can grow and fester. Arbitration cases, by definition, have gone beyond the early stages of resolution. By the time an arbitration hearing takes place, the personal feelings of the individuals named in the grievance, the witnesses, and the advocates may be extremely volatile. The stress of the process may also impact the health of the accuser. This combination of stress, resentment, ill-will, and health issues can all come together during the arbitration hearing with potentially explosive results. The arbitrator brings his experience, philosophy, and training to bear on the hearing in an attempt to maintain order and arrive at a mutually satisfactory conclusion. However, his emotions and health can also impact the proceedings. This particular case illustrates the effect of this combination of issues.

The Tweet of the Jayhawk: A Case Study in Faculty Free Speech Rights

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Abstract:

As colleges and universities react to provocative social media posts and tweets of faculty members, they do not always strike an appropriate balance between encouraging civility and protecting free speech. This paper discusses some recent dustups between institutions and faculty, reviews the case law relating to free speech rights of faculty as public employees, and proposes a model policy on faculty use of social media for consideration by academic administrators and faculty senates.

Using Debates to Develop Critical Thinking Skills in a Business Ethics Course

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Abstract:

This paper presents the use of formal debates in a business ethics course as an effective way to develop critical thinking skills in undergraduate business students. This paper analyzes this by overlaying the foundations of critical thinking on the activities necessary to engage in successful debate. The paper describes the implementation method of the debate, reasons for and evidence of the tactic's success, and presents potential future improvements.

Cognitive and Affective Influences on Ethical Behavior: An Empirical Comparison of the DIT and Emotional Intelligence as Predictors of Ethical Behavior

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Abstract:

Previous research on ethical behavior has used the Defining Issues Test (DIT) (Rest, 1993) measure of cognitive moral development to predict ethical behavior. The DIT measures rational, as opposed to affective, content of the process leading to ethical behavioral choices. This research includes an affective component, Emotional Intelligence (EI) in an attempt to explain more variance in ethical behavior. Data is collected in an experimental economics lab where there are cash payoffs for decisions made. Results indicate that EI has an impact on ethical behavior.

The DIT is a measure of the cognitive process leading to ethical behavioral choices so it is heavily biased toward the rational, as opposed to the affective or emotional, content of the process. Researchers have noted the potential value of including affective content into our explanations how we make ethical behavioral choices (Gaudine & Thorne, 2001; MacLagan, 1990; Weaver & Trevino, 1999).

In this study we develop a new model for understanding the respective influences of Moral Maturity and Emotional Intelligence (EI) on ethical behavioral choices and conduct a test of the theory using a simple decision task, a dictator game, in which one player decides how to allocate funds between themselves and one other person (see Camerer, 2003; Engel 2011 for reviews). The data is collected in an experimental economics lab where there are real cash outcomes for the choices that the participants make. We selected this methodology to increase the significance and consequences of the participant's choices over that of survey research.

EI has demonstrated potential for being a significant positive influence on our ability to predict behavior leading to performance. Assuming that processes preceding ethical behavior are similar to performance related processes, inclusion of EI as an affective construct in a model of ethical behavior along with moral maturity, a cognitive construct, has the potential to increase our understanding of processes leading to ethical behavior.

H1: When an individual scores high on both the DIT and EI it is very likely that they will exhibit principled ethical behavior.

H2: When an individual scores low on both the DIT and EI it is very likely that they will exhibit unethical behavior that is ego-centric and self-serving.

H3: When an individual scores high on the DIT and low on EI it is very likely that they will exhibit legalistic compliance oriented behavior resulting in a moderate level of ethical behavior.

H4: When an individual scores low on the DIT and high on EI it is very likely that they will exhibit behavior resulting in a moderate level of ethical behavior.

Measures and Experiment Design

To measure the cognitive ability to make ethical decisions the DIT 2 was used (Rest and Narvaez, 1998). It was selected because it is a shorter version of the original DIT and has been shown to be comparable in performance. Reliability of the DIT has been consistently in the high .70s to high .80s (Dellaportas, 2006).

Emotional intelligence was measured using Wong and Law's Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) (Wong & Law, 2002). The scale is a four-dimensional scale that adheres to Salovey and Mayer's (1997) ability model. The scale has been shown to be reliable ($\alpha = .88$) (Whitman, Van Rooy, Viswesvaran, & Kraus, 2009).

We conduct two-player dictator games using a 2x2 factorial design in which both the choice set and the observability of the dictators' choices are varied, between subjects. Variation in the choice set arises from the implementation of give (G) and take (T) protocols. Provisional endowments of \$20 (\$10) for Player A (Player B) were given to Player A in two envelopes in the form of \$1 bills (U.S). Each envelope was labeled with the player roles and a common numeric identifier for the subject pair. In the Give frame Player A was instructed that they could transfer to Player B any amount from \$0 to their entire endowment of \$20 in one dollar increments, by transferring bills from the A envelope to the B envelope. In the Take frame the set of possible transfers is expanded to range from -\$10 to \$20, allowing transfers from B to A of amounts up to and including the entire endowment.

Variation in the observability of Player A's behavior is created by implementing a protocol that preserves anonymity (A), and a public protocol in which each dictator's decision is observed by all others in the experimental lab (O). The audience effects we examine are therefore associated with the observation of dictator decisions by the experimental monitor and the other A players.

Experimental sessions were conducted at the University of Alaska Anchorage Experimental Economics Laboratory. The lab infrastructure includes shielded workstations so that players' actions were not observed while tasked with determining the final contents of the envelopes. DIT and EI surveys were conducted for each participant and a total of 215 completed surveys were obtained. The order of the implementation of the survey and experiment were randomized across sessions.

Results

In accordance with our hypotheses, we identify each participant in one of four quadrants using scores on Wong et al.'s 16-point measure of Emotional Intelligence and the P Score measure of Moral Maturity. Dividing each by the group median scores on the two measures (3.875 for the EI measure and 38 for the Moral Maturity measure), the 215 participants are classified into four blocks: High Moral Maturity and High Emotional Intelligence (HMHE), High Moral Maturity and Low Emotional Intelligence (HMLE), Low Moral Maturity and High Emotional Intelligence (LMHE), Low Moral Maturity and Low Emotional Intelligence (LMLE). The participants are approximately evenly distributed among the four blocks.

An ANCOVA model of the form of equation (1) is fitted with the collected data

$$E(\text{Money kept}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Age} + \beta_2 \text{Sex} + \beta_3 \text{Edu} + \beta_4 \text{MM} + \beta_5 \text{EI} + \beta_6 \text{MM} \times \text{EI}, \quad (1)$$

where age, sex and edu are confounding variables, MM and EI are two dummy variables indicating participant of High Moral Maturity vs. Low Moral Maturity and High Emotional Intelligence vs. Low Emotional Intelligence respectively. It is necessary to include the confounding variables into our model because one's sex, age and education may have an impact on the person's behavior.

Our measure of ethical behavior is the amount of money kept for oneself in the dictator game. Accordingly, our interest lies in comparison of estimated least squared means of amount of money kept

by Player A among the four blocks defined above after controlling for the impact of other unwanted extraneous factors.

The unobserved condition is of interest for the purpose of reporting results of our hypotheses since it will be the most indicative of what the subjects really desire to do. Hypothesis one predicted that those scoring high on both the DIT and EI (HMHE) would perform more ethically than all others. In the observed taking condition those who scored high on the DIT and EI took less than all others providing support for the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that those who scored low on both the DIT and EI (LMLE) would behave less ethically than the others. For this we have a mixed result. They took more than those who scored high on the DIT and EI, but less than both those who scored high on the DIT and low on EI and those who scored low on the DIT and high on EI.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that those who scored high on the DIT and low on EI (HMLE) would display a moderate level of ethical behavior. There is mixed support for this prediction in that this group took more than each of the other combinations of DIT and EI. We expected that HMLE would take more than HMHE and this is the case. However we did not expect that HMLE would take more than LMLE.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that those who scored low on the DIT and high on EI (LMHE) would display a moderate level of ethical behavior. Again there is mixed support for this prediction. As expected, LMHE took more than HMHE. The result for HMLE is a small difference in the amount taken and is as expected. The difference between LMHE and LMLE is not what we expected in that LMHE actually took more than LMLE.

Discussion

The results are mixed, but encouraging. As expected HMHE resulted in the most ethical behavior of all combinations. The large difference between the HMHE and HMLE groups demonstrated that there is reason to believe that EI does have an impact on ethical behavioral choices. It also provides an indication that the presence of EI may help explain some of the variance in ethical behavioral choices.

References and full version of the paper are available on request.

Leadership Styles Among Generational Cohorts of Industry Leaders and their Relationship to Organizational Outcomes

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Abstract:

If leadership style is shown to be predictive of organizational outcome, then the conclusions of this research may bring heightened awareness to industry leaders. Although researchers have studied generational issues, leadership styles, and organizational outcomes, little research has been conducted on the combination of the three variables. Additionally, little research has been conducted on examining generational cohorts, leadership styles, and organizational outcomes across industry lines.

Age Differences among Adult Learners: Motivations and Barriers to Higher Education

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Abstract:

The study examines age differences among adult learners in their motivations and barriers to higher education, comparing results from a 2004-2005 study with results from a 2010 study of nontraditional students (age 25 and over) enrolled in four-year colleges that offered academic programs designed for working adults. The study compares responses gathered from a convenience sample of face-to-face learners (683) in five private institutions and one public university in 2004-2005 with those from a convenience sample of face-to-face and online learners (530) in three private institutions in 2010. Significant differences are revealed between both differing age groups over time and same-age groups between periods of time.

Introduction

Early descriptions of adult learners as homogeneous are widely recognized as inadequate to describe characteristics in a manner useful to institutions that provide academic programs for adults. The critique has led researchers to examine adult learners by a number of subgroup characteristics, not limited to: (1) learning style; (2) life events; (3) employment; (4) parental role; (5) early education achievement; (6) work experience; (7) work status; (8) socio-economic status; (9) family role; (10) socialization; (11) gender; and, (12) persistence. There is evidence in the literature that little attention has been paid to characteristics of adults by age groups, although this is sometimes assumed in life event and family role literature focused on adult learners.

This research seeks to determine motivations and barriers to those enrolled by age groups for the purpose of informing administrators tasked with designing retention programs for college adults 25 and over. A convenience sample of over 600 adult learners in four-year academic programs at private colleges was used for the 2004-2005 study. At that time, U.S. unemployment was 5.5% and average inflation was below 3.0%. Five years later, when the second convenience sample of 530 enrolled adults was drawn, unemployment had soared to 8.5%, while inflation had fallen to 1.6% following three years exceeding 3.0% inflation and large scale U.S. government efforts to support failing financial and automotive industries (BLS, Consumer price index, 2011; BLS, U.S. economic conditions, 2011).

Literature Review

Motivation is the force that directs one to behave in a certain way. Motivation is an “individual” attribute which means everyone is motivated differently. Individuals have certain desires, goals, or unmet needs which propels them toward certain actions to accomplish those goals. Motivation is meeting unmet

needs. Motivation is also described as “intentional”. According to Mitchell (1982), the actions one takes to satisfy their desires, goals, or unmet needs are by choice.

There are numerous motivation theories that provide insight into the factors influencing individuals’ behaviors. In the current study, we will delve into the role the expectancy theory and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation play toward motivating adult learners to attend a college or university.

Adult Learners

The NCES provides the most general description of adults learners as those “... age 16 or older and not enrolled in the 12th grade or below” (NCES, 2005). This research uses the Osgood-Treston (2001) description of adult learners as those 25 and older, seeking education for academic credit.

A number of U.S. and international regionalized studies exist that examine the barriers and motivations of adult learners seeking college degrees. Additionally, good attention has been given to extrinsic and intrinsic rewards that help explain motivation toward continued enrollment and retention of adults.

In the original study, the authors of this research found that adults identified their chief motivations for attending college as: personal accomplishment; finishing a degree started earlier, but not completed; role modeling for children, knowledge and skills in the area, and seeking a new career. Barriers were: care giving for a child or elder, funding for childcare and college, concern about paying back student loans, time away from family, and convenience factors related to location and time.

Analyses of Data

The comparison of the responses from 2004-2005 with those of 2010 can be limited by unmeasured variables, such as those noted in the limitations of the study; however, “quasi-comparability” (Cook & Campbell, 1979) can be assumed based on the sameness of the formal institutions in which respondents were enrolled, the cyclical nature of turnover in the formal institution, and the age differentiation of those surveyed (25 and older).

Hypotheses regarding differences in means between age groups and between the 2004-2010 and 2010 samples were tested using MANOVA. MANOVA is preferable to a series of ANOVAs, each comparing age group differences for a single criterion variable because it controls for the experiment-wide error rate (Hair et. al, 2009). MANOVA was applied to the dependent variables in this study (perceived motivations and barriers) that were measured using interval level Likert scales. Between group differences for nominal and ordinal scaled measurements (i.e., yes/no) were assessed using the Chi-Square Test for Independence.

Findings

The data indicate that there are some significant differences among age groups regarding their motivations for seeking higher education. Specifically, the data suggest that older respondents (35 years of age and older) are less motivated than younger respondents to seek higher education due to a desire for a pay increase ($p = .003$), a desire for a new career ($p = .003$), or a desire for more respect from peers ($p = .016$). Not surprisingly, respondents 24 years and younger were more likely than older respondents to be motivated by their parents ($p = .000$).

Only one significant difference in perceived barriers to seeking higher education between age groups was identified. Respondents 35 and older were less likely than younger respondents to feel impeded by a lack of funds for childcare ($p = .047$).

Comparison of 2004-2005 and 2009-2010 Samples

While significant increases (at least $p \leq .05$) were observed for all variables reported in the table, the largest observed difference in a perceived motivation among young respondents (24 years or less) was the increase in desire to finish their degree ($p = .01$). The largest observed increase in a perceived barrier among young respondents was time away from family ($p = .000$).

The largest observed difference in a perceived motivation among older respondents (35 years or more) was the increase in desire for a pay increase ($p = .000$). The largest observed increase in a perceived barrier among older respondents was concern about paying student loans ($p = .005$).

Discussion

The findings point out extrinsic factors, particularly those related to financing education and physically attending classes, are of greater significance to the 2010 students than they were to the 2004 students.

Younger adult students see a greater need to finish education to keep a job, often at the encouragement of an employer. Those over 34 do not feel particularly motivated by employer encouragement but by the job possibilities, and view the completion of the degree as a means to an end: way to advance in their career, receive more pay or promotion, protect their job, or launch a new career.

Broad encouragement remains an important intrinsic motivator for all students, but the 2010 younger students found significantly greater potential reward than the 2004 group in personal accomplishment, finishing something previously started, and support from parents, significant others, children, and friends. Those 35 and over were significantly more rewarded than the 2004 group by encouragement from their children and a desire to be good role models for children.

The findings indicate a growing awareness of the need to achieve degree completion at a younger age to achieve career goals and concern about attending school with younger students. Even the younger group of students reported more significant concern about attending with students younger than themselves, as did the 25-34 year old group. This was not a significantly greater concern with those 35 and over, the group that was significantly less motivated by impressing their peers with a college degree.

Despite the increasing number of online options available, students report that transportation to classes remains a barrier. While this item was eliminated for online learners, face to face learners show increasing difficulty with transportation, which involves additional financial commitment. The other significant issue for both the older and the younger groups both were significantly concerned about time away from family to give attention to school.

For employers and academic program administrators, the findings suggest that even partial employer and institutional support for adult students returning to college is an excellent motivator. For those in the younger camp, support can take the form of verbal encouragement from a supervisor, the assurance of continued employment, and benchmark pay increases. Universities might consider more placement internships and scholarships for adults that mirror those offered for traditional-age students.

For older workers, career advancement, pay, promotion, and new career opportunities are incentives suggesting that employers give a second look at more mature workers for new positions in companies.

For education institutions, the finding suggests greater attention be given to the extrinsic value of the degree. Older students can benefit from specialized career center services, and this could be a feature of recruitment efforts targeting those 35 and older. Adult learners tend to appreciate career center services directed toward increasing their exposure to potential employers.

The worry about attending classes with younger students crosses age groups. Mature students from the workforce may perceive their life experiences as significantly different than those of traditional-age

students, thus age-cohort driven learning still has an appeal for many, while selected mixing of age groups, and flipped mentoring activities could be helpful.

References: Available from the authors upon request.

ACT Sub-scores as Predictors of Success for Business Majors in Management and Statistics' Core Business Courses

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Abstract:

The American College Test (ACT) is utilized to determine academic success in business core courses at a mid-level state university. Specifically, sub-scores are compared to subsequent student grades in selected courses. The results indicate ACT Mathematics and English sub-scores accurately predict success or failure of business students in statistics and management classes.

The Relation between Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Leadership. What Do We Really Know?

Kenneth Levitt

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Alberto Alegre

East Stroudsburg University

Abstract:

From a theory point of view, transformational leadership and emotional intelligence are regarded as strongly interconnected (Goleman, 1998; Caruso & Mayer, 2002; Megarian & Sosik, 1996). For this reason, there is an array of studies in this area. However, the results obtained are unclear and often contradictory. The reason lies in the different definitions of emotional intelligence used by scholars, and the diverse measures and methods used to investigate this relationship. Considering the two main conceptualizations of emotional intelligence – ability and trait – and the two main types of measures – ability tests and self-report questionnaires -, Ashkanasy and Daus (2005), have proposed three streams in the study of emotional intelligence. The first stream

The Optimal Fit Seeker

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Abstract:

People who change jobs are often unfairly characterized as job hoppers. Before a job candidate even makes it to an interview, applicants that have a history of short tenure at organizations are often screened out without further consideration. Although there are employees who quit impulsively out of self-interest, it is also possible that someone who appears to be job hopping is actually searching for the optimal job fit. In contrast to the 'job hopper' these 'optimal fit seekers' may be intrinsically motivated, risk-takers with high expectations for themselves and the companies they work for. Although they have a pattern of short tenure, these employees have the potential to be high performers that positively impact the businesses that employ them. We propose that 'optimal fit seekers' are untapped opportunity for organizations. This is a relatively unexplored line of research that has important implications for hiring managers and their organizations. In this paper, we explore theoretical support for an 'optimal fit seeker' personality construct.

Talent retention following announcement of layoff intentions

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Abstract:

Organizational leaders in most every sector of the global economy have or will face the challenge of reducing their workforce through the process of layoffs. These layoffs often represent a reduction in the overall body of knowledge present in the workforce. Past research on survivors and victims of layoffs are well documented. However, there is little information available about employees who voluntarily sever relationships with downsizing organizations. The unanticipated loss of valuable employees that carry tacit knowledge can present additional challenges to downsizing workforces. Employees who leave voluntarily after layoff procedures may be critical to future organizational success. Understanding the causes of voluntary attrition of employees subsequent to layoff procedures may lead to changes in the layoff process by business leaders and human resources (HR) professionals that reduce the likelihood of employees leaving after such announcements. Specifically, developing layoff initiatives that do not adversely affect employees' organizational commitment may bolster the competitive position of downsizing organizations. In this qualitative phenomenological research study, I explore some of the stressors leading to employee voluntary attrition following announcements of layoff initiatives. In this study, I explore how concepts such as organizational trust, breach of psychological contracts, and entitative work groups effect employees' organizational commitment to downsizing organizations. Organizational leaders who successfully reduce the negative effects and stress of layoff initiatives may inspire valued employees to remain with the downsizing organization, thus reducing voluntary attrition and minimizing the loss of the associated tacit knowledge of layoff survivors.

Music, Mood, and Consumer Behavior

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Abstract:

Music, Mood, and Consumer Behavior analyzes the complex relationship between music, neurological/emotional response, and human behavior. This analysis includes an examination of music listening and interpretation processes, how certain music elements—key signature, melody, temporal structure—stimulate specific brain networks and how each can be mentally and emotionally processed (ex: mood fluctuations), and how music can affect behavior—as well as consumer behavior specifically—due to its ability to stimulate emotional reactions. Marketing/advertising strategies incorporating music are reviewed based on the previously stated data. An original experiment had been conducted for the purposes of this research. The results within this experiment confirmed certain findings of previous studies, as well as produced new data that may explain other aspects of this topic with further research. Secondary research is used to articulate educated elucidations and examples pertaining to the complex relationship between musical elements, mood/emotions, and behavior. This research will allow the reader to gain a more practical perspective on the impact of music in human psychological functioning.

The Seven Thinking Elements Framework: A Proposed Protocol to Improve Thinking in the Decision Making Process

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Abstract:

A systematic thinking framework consisting of seven different, but sequentially-related elements is proposed in this paper. The sequential order of the elements is: element 1—preloaded and end-state outcome expectations; element 2—creative thinking divergent list; element 3—evaluation inclusionary and reduction criteria; element 4—critical thinking, conditional convergent list; element 5—consequence analysis; element 6—backwards feedback looping effects analysis; and element 7—final, prioritized decision list. Summary and conclusions for the framework are offered.

Students are normally taught that the decision making process consists of five major steps starting with performing a situational analysis, then identifying underlying challenges and causes, then developing a mix of alternatives and options, then determining a solution for the situation, and finally, implementing the chosen solution. Often not being made transparent to the students is the underlying thinking process to be utilized in each step. The main objective of this paper is to present a systematic, sequential thinking framework of seven thinking elements that could be used in each of the five steps mentioned above.

Element 1: Preloaded or End-State Outcome Expectations

The decision maker needs initial guidance or targets in terms of preloaded conditions possibly set by various superiors and/or the environmental context. Also needed is an understanding of what the anticipated final or end-state outcomes that should be expected of the final decision for that particular process step. Ultimately, these first targets guide the remaining six thinking elements

Element 2: Creative Thinking Divergent List

The purpose of the divergent list is to generate numerous, new, novel, and innovative ideas. This is an initial, nonjudgmental, freewheeling thinking approach where quantity rather than quality of generating ideas is encouraged.

While some people may consider the above items as solutions, recognize the above list contains various ideas only. It is important that no judging of the ideas take place in performing this thinking element, only that numerous ideas are presented to the decision maker.

Element 3: Inclusionary and Reduction Evaluation Criteria

At the conclusion of thinking element 2 there should be a long list of ideas, which must be reduced. Criteria being used to advance a listed idea are labeled “inclusionary criteria,” whereas criteria to delete an idea are labeled “reduction criteria”. Both are applied on the divergent list ideas.

Element 4: Critical Thinking Conditional Convergent List

The creative divergent thinking in thinking element 2 has produced a large menu of ideas. Now, critical thinking is employed to keep some of the original new, novel, and innovative ideas originally generated in the divergent list, otherwise, there might be a tendency to revert back to using the old, conventional ideas that caused the original situation.

Element 5: Consequence Analysis

This element starts with determining the major positive and negative consequences of any idea left in the convergent list. Harris (2002) offers other consequence categories including direct and indirect,

physical and social, and short-term and long-term consequence. Furthermore, the consequence analysis is conducted on an “as is” basis, which assumes that the specific convergent listed idea will be committed into action and nothing will be changed regarding the parameters of that idea.

The final aspect of this element is determining which of three decision rules will be applied so that a realistic assessment of benefits and costs of consequential actions can be appraised (Harris, 2002). A maximization decision rule would require trying to strengthen the major positive consequences. A minimization decision rule would mean thinking about ways to change major negative consequences into some form of positive consequences. A combinational decision rule would mean strengthening the most serious major positive consequences and also working to convert the most serious major negative consequences into a positive focus.

Element 6: Backwards Feedback Looping Effects Analysis

This element requires the revisiting of the past five elements’ information sources in a specific, systematic fashion conducting either a single loop, double loop, or triple loop backwards feedback analysis.

Single loop feedback would require the decision maker to loop back to the original conditional, convergent list of ideas and closely reexamine their relevance given the previously generated consequence analysis information. A double loop feedback would cycle back through all the previous thinking elements and closely examine the values and assumptions of all those elements. In triple loop feedback, the decision maker needs to think about the holistic, system-wide situation that sparked the need for the decision in the first place.

This feedback analysis may create the need to return to the previous consequence analysis and reevaluate the major consequences and/or change the consequence analysis decision rule.

Element 7: Final, Prioritized Decision List

This is the list containing only those ideas that are relevant to the central issue in that particular decision making process step. Hopefully, this list will include vital ideas, some of which are new, novel, and innovative as well as some that are old, conventional, but modified and improved. All will be reasonable, feasible, and useful.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose behind the seven thinking elements framework was to make the decision making thinking process more transparent and to cover gaps in the thinking process related to the decision making process. For example, Element 1 requires that the decision maker has solid and substantial information about what the end-state outcomes are to be in the execution of the final decision or decisions relative to that particular decision making process step. Often the decision maker may not be knowledgeable of these higher level, strategic outcome expectations. Therefore, the first requirement of the decision maker is to acquire information from usually higher level, informational sources so that the decision maker has a fairly specific target for making the ultimate decision.

Another gap is having knowledge of how the conversion process between element 2’s creative listing of ideas and element 3’s critical conditional listing of ideas takes place. How this transformation takes place is addressed by developing and finalizing the inclusionary and reduction evaluation criteria found in element 3.

Decision consequences are intended to create information to indicate the aftermath effects of a decision put into action. Usually a consequence analysis is only performed after a solution has been determined which is done in the next to last process step. However, any decision to take even proposed

action will have consequences. Some form of consequence analysis needs to be performed on every convergent-listed idea in each of the five decision making process steps.

Performing backwards feedback looping effects analysis is conspicuously absent in the decision making process literature. Performing a single loop, double loop, and/or triple loop feedback analysis is rarely portrayed. However, taking the time to rethink what past and new feedback information can do to improve one's informed speculation is worth it as long as decisions are not overly delayed.

A prudent decision maker would want to increase the speculation that the decision choice is the best taken and this informed speculation is increased through practicing better, more concentrated, specialized thinking. The seven element thinking framework proposed in this paper is intended to improve the decision maker's thinking capabilities and lead to a better decision making process. Future empirical investigations of using this framework will support or not support the assertion of the worthwhileness of this proposal.

References: Available from the author upon request.

Exploratory Research on Relating Acts of Information Sabotage to Organizational Cultures Using Dual Culture Theory

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Abstract:

Dual culture theory was used in this exploratory research as an attempt to match organization culture with manager values of tolerance versus intolerance values on nineteen different acts of information sabotage. Exploratory factor analysis results suggested that managers often follow hierarchical culture values, but sometimes they may pursue slight egalitarian values regarding some of the information sabotage acts. Saboteurs were hypothesized based on post factor analytical results to follow fatalistic cultural values.

The main objective of this paper is to consider the extant literature specifically identifying acts of information sabotage and dual culture theory with a view to remapping current understanding between these two constructs and proposing a revised research agenda. Employee sabotage has been discussed in the fields of industrial sociology, organizational behavior, industrial relations, and computer-related data leakage and insider threats. Hafer and Gresham (2009) defined information sabotage as malicious, purposeful and covert or overt attempts by employees to intentionally and with premeditation hinder, harm or prevent the acquisition, dissemination and response to marketing/customer/company information. Giacalone and Knouse (1990) initially identified forty different methods of sabotage and a pilot study by Hafer and Gresham (2012) reduced the number of information sabotage acts to nineteen forms. These nineteen specific acts will be the basis of the questionnaire used in this research.

Dual Culture Theory uses two social dimensions called 'group' and 'grid' to represent a matrix of four cultural patterns: hierarchical (high grid, high group), egalitarianism (low grid, high group), individualism or markets (low grid, low group), and fatalism (high grid, low group).

In a hierarchical culture, individuals value security and show a performance and tolerance for set procedures and rules. This is a process oriented culture.

The individualism or market culture allows its members to tolerate a lot of spatial and social mobility and self-regulation, mutuality, and respecting the rights of others are highly valued and tolerated in this culture.

The egalitarian culture refers to a culture where the central assumption is that all individuals in the group are equal and decisions should be made collectively. Solidarity is highly valued and individual interests are subjugated to the welfare and higher good of the group or sect.

A fatalistic culture is one in which individuals feel they are bound by a system of rules that is beyond their control and against which they cannot undertake collective action.

Two additional comments about dual culture theory research deserve mentioning. First, the anthropological measure of different cultures has few direct substantiated and validated instruments. Consequently, the interpretation of cultures utilizes qualitative rather than positivistic empirical quantitative methods. The second comment is intended to reflect that most of the investigations of dual culture theory is exploratory research rather than confirmatory research. Combining these two research methods had the aim of producing a robust account of the types of different organizational cultures that view certain acts of information sabotage as tolerable or intolerable.

METHOD

The four questionnaire response foils of the nineteen acts of information sabotage used by Hafer and Gresham (2012) reflect varying degrees of toleration-intolerance. “This offense is not worthy of any action” would be indicative of high tolerance (coded 1). Movement toward intolerance is reflected in the remaining sequenced response foils of “Minor offense—warning is sufficient” (coded 2), “Moderate offense—disciplinary action required” (coded 3), and “Major offense—termination should result” (coded 4 to indicate highest intolerance).

The respondents came from a list of 3,228 MBA and EMBA students who had identified themselves as “managers”. Each was sent a questionnaire via USPS with a letter explaining its purpose. A total of 467 usable questionnaires were returned for a response rate of 14.5%. The questionnaire was analyzed with exploratory factor analysis.

Females accounted for 40.2% of the respondents, males accounted for 59.8%. Fifty-six percent of the respondents were in the 46-64 age bracket, 35% were less than 31 years old, and 9% were over 65 years old. Forty-two percent worked in companies with over 1,000 employees. Fifty-five percent managed five or fewer employees and 25% managed more than 15 employees.

RESULTS

A principal component analysis using a Varimax rotation was conducted on the 19 acts of information sabotage. The sample exceeds the recommended ratio of 10 responses per variable with 467 usable responses (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2009). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure was .898, thus verifying that the sampling accuracy was strong for the analysis (Field, 2009). Barlett’s test of sphericity $\chi^2(171) = 2949.64$, $p < .000$, indicated that the correlations between items were sufficiently large for the factor analysis.

The Varimax rotation produced four factors and the total cumulative variance of the four factors was 57.8%.

What kind of organizational culture might be inferred was guided by the calculation of a grand mean score of the significant acts within each factor. Each of the acts had a mean score calculated from the results of the 467 respondents. The original mean score for each of these acts were then summed to provide the grand mean score which would represent using the scale of tolerance (coded 1) versus

intolerance (coded 4) regarding a manager’s attitudes and values toward these acts of information sabotage. The grand mean score of the seven positive loading acts of information sabotage comprising the first component factor was 3.36; 3.81 for the six positive loading acts comprising the second component factor; 3.88 for the three positive loading acts comprising the third component factor; and 3.81 for the three positive loading acts comprising the fourth component factor.

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
1. Maliciously alters files	.111	.178	<u>.838</u>	.050
2. Malicious hacking	.018	.204	<u>.812</u>	.108
3. Deliberately deletes files	.270	.117	<u>.586</u>	.271
4. Purposely delays transfer of information	<u>.553</u>	.052	.289	.481
5. Physically damages software, hardware or a network	.075	.213	.144	<u>.735</u>
6. Purposely alters security measures	.171	.387	.203	<u>.422</u>
7. Purposely provides inaccurate information to the requestor	<u>.668</u>	.180	.204	.158
8. Steals proprietary information	-.016	<u>.624</u>	.137	.272
9. Purposely misdirects information	<u>.682</u>	.069	.237	.291
10. Purposely provides misinformation; either provides a better outlook or a worse outlook for a company.	<u>.678</u>	.266	.231	-.117
11. Creates misinformation about a co-worker or manager	<u>.774</u>	.225	-.045	-.089
12. Hijacks electronic communications to alter the content in an unfavorable manner for the sender of the information	.171	<u>.673</u>	.072	.242
13. Gathers information in a low and slow manner; collecting critical information unnoticed	<u>.665</u>	.142	.001	.321
14. Holds information hostage, i.e., passwords to critical systems	<u>.586</u>	.354	-.052	.183
15. Alters or erases backup data making recovery impossible	.252	<u>.765</u>	.098	.062
16. Alters system and application logs to cover up one’s activities	.347	<u>.677</u>	.139	-.093
17. Alters network routing to enable “man-in-the-middle” attacks and/or information capture	.311	<u>.647</u>	.193	.047
18. Public release of proprietary data	.099	<u>.647</u>	.158	.236
19. Takes critical systems or services off-line, a denial of service	.330	.435	.051	<u>.487</u>
Eigenvalues	3.612	3.500	2.128	1.745
Percentage of variance after rotation	19.012	18.419	11.200	9.182

Table 1: Factor Loadings of Acts of Information Sabotage

The results of factor 1 suggest that managers are not as intolerant as when other acts are evaluated. Given the nature of the specific acts identified in factor 1, the saboteur committing these acts does not require intimate knowledge of information technology systems and operations in order to perform these acts

when compared to the other three sets of factor acts. Thus, component factor 1 was labeled *Purposeful Intolerant Manager, Little Technical Knowledge Saboteur*.

The level of managerial intolerance in component factor 2 moves dramatically toward greater intolerance as the acts become more visible and more physically destructive or damaging. The saboteur would have to have greater knowledge of information technology systems and/or operations in order to execute these acts. Consequently, component factor 2 was labeled *Intolerant Manager, Average Technical Knowledge Saboteur*.

These acts identified in factor 3 produced the greatest amount of intolerance from the responding managers. Furthermore, the knowledge level of a saboteur's information technology systems and operations would have to be quite sophisticated in order to hack, alter, or delete system-wide files. Factor 3 was labeled *Extreme Intolerant Manager, Sophisticated Technical Knowledge Saboteur*.

Even stronger information system-wide impacts and very high levels of professional knowledge about information technology systems and operations on the part of the saboteur of such acts was evident in component factor 4. There was also a relative high level of managerial intolerance of such acts. Factor 4 was labeled *Intolerant Manager, Professional and Highly Technical Knowledge Saboteur*.

DISCUSSION

The exploratory analysis results suggest that managers become more intolerant as acts of information sabotage become more detrimental to the operation of their organization and as the level of saboteur's expertise needed to carry them out increases. Based on the high intolerant values excluding the first factor analytics results, the "hierarchical culture" would seem rather obvious as the dominant managerial culture when managers interact with information technologies. Members in this culture value order, discipline and control and they operate according to rules, value precedents, and respect rank. Thus, the "hierarchical culture" was developed to try to enforce that the words and actions of top managers would be interpreted as intended or that they would have the intended effects.

However, the first factor analytic result in which there is a significant lower amount of managerial intolerance for the seven acts in that particular factor may suggest that a subculture of managers may tend toward an "egalitarian culture". There may be some managers who are somewhat resistant to the "hierarchical culture" approach and may view culture as a management tool that is unrealistic about the potential to control employee value and norm interpretations and behavior.

It is also possible to infer saboteurs' behaviors and values. This group of people might be hypothesized to operate in the "isolated fatalism culture".

Future Research

Dual culture theory has proven much more powerful in exploratory, anthropological studies. It was used here because the investigation of possible multiple or pluralistic organizational cultures being related to informational technologies and acts of information sabotage is an embryonic field of research investigation.

Future research could:

- find ways to utilize and integrate the quantitative survey measures found in the Schein model (1996), the competing values framework model (Cameron & Quinn, 2006) and the Organizational

Culture Inventory (OCI) (Cooke & Lafferty, 1987) with the qualitative anthropological measurement approach in the dual culture theory model.

- conduct confirmatory studies to see if the hierarchical organizational culture type is the dominant culture supporting organizational managers when it comes to their interface with information technologies and especially acts of information sabotage.
- conduct confirmatory studies to see if the fatalistic culture is dominant culture type among saboteurs/perpetrators committing acts of information sabotage.
- conduct investigative or additional exploratory studies to see what organizational cultures might exist for victims, including outside constituencies, of information sabotage acts and/or for non-affected organizational members.

Given the importance of information technologies and the subsequent increase in various types of information sabotage, exploratory, qualitative research is expected to progress toward confirmatory, quantitative research protocols.

References

Available upon request from the first author.

Will MOOCs Kill the Traditional MBA Classroom?

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Abstract:

As Massive Online Open Courses (MOOCs) gain widespread notice, popular attention and speculation as to their long-term value, the MBA industry has come under increasing fire for its general adherence to what now seems to be a quaint, outdated traditional classroom model for educating the future leaders of a highly mobile, high-tech, high-touch, social media driven marketplace, where laptops replace desktops, iPads replace pens and pencils, and iPhones replace traditional face-to-face verbal interaction in the classroom and the board room. While elite MBA programs, with well-established career pipelines, large endowments, and entrenched alumni may weather the high-tech tsunami – at least a little longer than the more vulnerable schools – many mid-range MBA programs face immediate, major threats.

The purpose of this workshop is to explore the state of the industry and the art, to assess the current dilemmas and opportunities facing middle-tier MBA programs, and to discuss ways that faculty can lead the change where administrators either fear to tread or move with little grasp of the true nature of the problem. Is there a generational divide among senior and junior faculty? Is there a schism between the research-based tenure-track faculty and the practicing, more practical adjuncts? Can longstanding professor understand and speak the language of the high-tech student or junior faculty member with a seemingly natural proclivity for social media? Can business schools make the shift from bricks to clicks? Is there a model and a pathway for business schools to co-opt and monetize MOOCs? Is the MBA industry a bubble about to burst?

The Creation of Social Impact Credits: Funding for Social Profit Organizations as Explored through the Public Library System

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Abstract:

Taking a new spin on an already fresh idea, this paper explores the possibility of using social impact credits to fund the nonprofit sector. We begin by explaining how social impact bonds have been used up until now and suggests a possible way to sell credits rather than bonds that could be redeemable. Using the public library system as a sector proof of concept, we use data to demonstrate the entire process of how a modified social impact credit framework can be created including the development of a trusted performance measurement and the actual selling of the instrument that act as a tax credit. The possible outcomes and risks of such a funding mechanism in relation to the individual libraries, the library industry, investors, and the government are discussed in depth. This newly developed idea of using a social impact instrument as a way to raise funds for social profit entities, incentivize innovation and entrepreneurship, create market driven competition, and provide tax incentives to citizens introduces an environment of competition within an industry and has potential to change the way the nonprofit industries operate today and into the future.

Simulation of LNG distribution placement in urban environment with duopolistic competition

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Abstract:

Increased levels of particulate matter and ozone in major cities contribute to respiratory afflictions. Automobiles that operate on natural gas have the potential to reduce up to 5% less particulate matter and 90% less ozone-producing gasses as compared to diesel. Therefore, the adoption of natural gas powered vehicles could play an important role in diminishing transportation associated impacts to the environment in major cities. However, to date adoption of natural gas powered vehicles is largely limited to fleets with commuters failing to make the transition. Commuters argue that they are concerned about the difficulty in finding a refueling station while suppliers argue that there simply is not enough demand. In this article, we present a simulation to demonstrate the best placement of natural gas distribution facilities in the early stages of adoption. We build on early work that used Monte Carlo algorithm to determine the best placement of the refueling stations based on traffic volume in a monopoly. This work relaxes the monopolistic constraint to include competition, profit, supply, and demand in an urban environment.

The Impact of Virtual Communication on Employee Engagement

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Abstract:

The role of the corporate manager continues to evolve with the advent of virtual teaming. As the number of American workers geographically separated from their direct supervisor increases, organizational leaders are strategizing to create ways to continue to engage their employees. The amount of time managers communicate with their employees, along with the quality of those interactions, can have an impact on the workers' level of engagement. Simultaneously, employee engagement is a determining factor of the employees' productivity and commitment to an organization. The problem is that research on the relationship between virtual communication and employee engagement is limited. The purpose of this quantitative, multiple regression study is to determine whether a relationship exists between employee engagement (the dependent variable) and the quantity and perceived quality of virtual management communication (the independent variables). The research question addressed the relationship between the quantity of communication, quality of communication, in virtual management influence employee engagement. Homans' Social Exchange Theory (SET) was the theoretical framework used to ground the study. Data will be collected from 68 virtual employees, working primarily from home. We will test whether there are a statistically significant relationships indicated between the quantity of communication, quality of communication, and employee engagement. In today's highly competitive work environment, the social impact of the study may include improved awareness of the relationship between virtual management communication training and employee engagement.

Followers Make the Difference: Hospital Performance & Job Satisfaction in Relation to Followership Style

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Albertus Magus College

Abstract:

While leadership style is a well-researched topic, research followership is not as prevalent. The current research investigated followership style and its relationship with employee and patient satisfaction in hospitals. Nine hospitals with 105 nursing staff completed Kelley's (1992) followership questionnaire and the Brayfield-Rothe satisfaction index (Brayfield, Wells, & Strate, 1957). A significant, predictive relationship was found between followership style and job satisfaction, and a slight, but non significant, predictive relationship was found with patient satisfaction.

Online Leadership Education Effectiveness

Joel Olson

Kaplan University

Nathan Boyer

Kaplan University

Susan Fan

Walden University

Carol Locker

Kaplan University

Patricia Wolf

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Abstract:

Many universities assume leadership can be taught to adult learners online. An online search for online Master's of Science (MS) in Leadership programs yielded dozens of hits from well-established nationally ranked public and private universities as well as proprietary universities. There appears to be a wide spread assumption that leadership can be taught to adults online. This qualitative study links contemporary leadership education theory to leadership education and assesses leadership development of one proprietary online adult MS program. Learners write a paper describing their view of leadership and leadership practice at the beginning and end of a twelve week leadership course. Content analysis is used to assess leadership theory relevance and grounded theory to assess changes in leadership definitions.

Task Complexity, Personality and Virtual Team Performance

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DeVry University

Ray Kalinski

Kaplan University

James Ziegler

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Abstract:

This study assesses the relationship between task complexity, team personality and performance. The Insights Discovery Evaluator (IDE) was used to determine personality, the Bonner Model of task complexity to determine a taxonomy of task complexity and aggregate team scores for performance. The IDE is correlated with the Big Five Inventory (BFI) to engage previous research. The IDE was used for the study both because it was used by the study population and to triangulate previous BFI research. The population consisted one hundred and four virtual student teams from the first MBA course in a proprietary online university from 2008 to 2012. Teams were identified as Dominant (teams where 50% of team members had the same the same personality type and no other personality type was 50%) and Variable (teams where all four personality types were present).

An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and t-tests were run to determine statistical difference with the independent variables of task complexity and personality type on the dependent variable of performance. Differences were found between teams with the cognitive style of extroversion compared to introversion on tasks of varying complexity, but no difference in task complexity performance with the cognitive style of function (thinking or feeling). Homogeneous teams performed better with complex tasks than heterogeneous teams. There was no statistical difference between personality types on varying degrees of task complexity.

A process model of employee engagement: A key state driven by emotional intelligence and emotional labor resulting in turn over intentions, organizational citizenship behavior and exhaustion.

Mary Pinar

Baldwin Wallace University

Michelle Foust

Lorain Community College

Abstract:

The proposed model views emotional intelligence as an antecedent to engagement which is mediated by emotional labor. Engagement results in outcomes of turnover intention, organizational citizenship behaviors, and emotional exhaustion. The model incorporates the mediating effect of emotional labor with individuals operating under deep acting experiencing stronger engagement and thus more positive organizational outcomes. The model indicates that individuals operating under surface acting experience lower levels of engagement and more negative organizational outcomes.

Improving the Asynchronous Online Learning Environment Using Discussion Boards

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Abstract

Discussion boards are at the heart of an asynchronous online learning or distance education environment and can have a great impact on the learning experience. Understanding the individual factors that create a high quality discussion board experience for students and their interrelationships is critical to continuous improvement in distance education. Research which contributes to increased effectiveness of virtual discussion boards for both instructors and students will result in greater student involvement and success in learning new skills.

The purpose of this study was to examine student and instructor interactions on asynchronous discussion boards in order to further develop best practices for improving participation within the online learning environment. The study was completed in two phases with additional phases to be developed as the data analysis continues to yield results. In Phase I, a literature review was completed and qualitative data employing a focus group methodology was completed. The focus group was comprised of full time faculty from a large, proprietary, online university with significant experience in the use of Discussion Boards. The data was collected from the focus group was analyzed to create hypotheses for additional research on the topic.

Phase 2– This phase focused on collecting data utilizing a quantitative research methodology supported by continued research of the literature on this topic. The research was conducted within the same online proprietary higher education provider serving in excess of 17,000 online students used in Phase 1. The data was extracted from all discussion boards in three MBA Program core courses between January 30 –

July 23, 2013. The classes studied represent the beginning, middle, and end of the program are requirements in the MBA program. Phase 2 of this study focused on the following hypotheses

- H1: There is a negative relationship between posts/students and class size.
- H2: There is a positive relationship between the number of instructor posts and the number of posts/student
- H3: There is a positive relationship between the Level of Bloom's Taxonomy of the DB topic and the number of posts/student.
- H4: There is a positive relationship between the score on a Discussion Board and the number of posts/student.
- H5: There is a negative relationship between the Unit number and the number of posts/student.
- H6: There is a no relationship between instructor status and posts/student in discussion boards.

In this presentation, initial results of Phase 1 and Phase 2 will be briefly reviewed to ensure that participants have a clear understanding of the relationship between Phase 1 and 2 and the linkage to the ideas for additional research listed below. Feedback will be solicited on these topics

- Additional training for students in how to participate in discussion boards, in fulfillment of initial recommendations from Phase 1.
- A mixed methods study on the value of student involvement in the creation of discussion questions during the curriculum development process to increase intrinsic motivation for participation.

Economic Sustainability: Transformational Leadership, Strategic Management, and Education

Carolyn Salerno
Walden University

Richard Brydges
Walden University

Arthur Jue
Walden University

Abstract:

More than 33 % of youth in developed countries of the world complete university requirements compared to just 5% in developing countries. To provide educational opportunities to the marginalized youth in developing communities, our team of scholars presented a leadership model and strategic management model, facilitated through an unfolding experiential process, exploring an understanding of leadership, management, and social entrepreneurship, allowing for renewal throughout life's experiences. The results continue to emerge in unpredictable changes in social, political, economic, educational, and global developments.

Gender and contextual differences in social responsibility in Thai schools: A multi-study person versus situation analysis

John J. Sosik

The Pennsylvania State University

Ravinder Koul

The Pennsylvania State University

John C. Cameron

The Pennsylvania State University

Abstract:

This multi-study research examined influences of social responsibility of students from three educational institutions in Thailand. In Study 1, levels of social responsibility were greater for girls than boys and in academic versus vocational high schools, and school type moderated reported levels of social responsibility in boys. Study 2 replicated this gender difference in social responsibility and demonstrated greater differences in social responsibilities across university academic programs for female than male students.

Possible Selves and Achievement Goals of Academic and Vocational Students in Thailand

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Abstract:

This study conducted in vocational and academic secondary schools investigated the association of 1,060 Thai students' mastery, performance-approach, and performance-avoidance goal orientations with the salience and content of their hoped-for possible selves reflecting existence, relatedness, and growth needs. Results of MANCOVA indicated main and interaction effects for possible selves and school track on students' achievement goal orientations. Results are discussed in terms of their implications for the study of achievement goals associated with career success.

Integrity: The Core of Effective Leadership

Keith Thurgood

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Abstract:

The Army is about leadership. As the nation's premium institute for leadership development, it is focused on developing leaders of character that deliver results. Any organization based on standards, discipline and fitness requires persons of character, competence, trust and collaboration. In 2012, the Army Magazine reported "insights" that captains attending the Maneuver Captains Career Course (MCCC) would pass on to new platoon leaders. From 2008-2009 over 200 captains (n=230) voluntarily completed a survey in which they were asked: "if you could pass on one lesson to the next generation of platoon leaders, what would you say? These officers were later asked to provide deeper meaning to their advice and frame their comments in the context of the 18 leader attributes as defined in Field Manual (FM) 6-22 that distinguish high performing leaders of character. These attributes were described as inherent characteristics that shape how individuals act and respond to their environments. This manuscript proposes to review and present the findings and analysis of the survey data using a quantitative methodology. Comparing and contrasting the respondents from two groups: those that participated in counter-insurgency operations (COIN) and those who are currently serving as platoon leaders.

Cognitively Based Motivational Principles For Knowledge Sharing and Protection in Organizations

Constantine Tongo

Pan-Atlantic University

Abstract:

Collective work motivation (CWM) has been construed as humans' innate predispositions to effectively undertake collaborative goal oriented work activities under ideal conditions (Lindenberg and Foss, 2011). However, management research aimed at explicating its etiology in knowledge based organizations (KBOs) has been largely ignored. Given that these organizations strive to gain competitiveness by motivating employees to cooperatively share knowledge, as well as protect organizational specific knowledge from being externally expropriated; it becomes expedient to understand how they can unleash CWM. Therefore, using insights from the Social Identity Theory, this article distils out the requisite cognitively based principles that hypothetically mobilize and sustain the motivation to share and protect in KBOs. Since CWM is a new concept in the management genre, an agenda for its future theorizing and research was set in motion.

Synchronous Versus Asynchronous Learning - Is There a Measurable Difference?

Jeff Tyler

Kaplan University

Andryce Zurick

Kaplan University

Abstract:

Can MOOCs, or any online asynchronous teaching method be the best approach in teaching large numbers of students? They address the pedagogical criteria for the transference of knowledge to students, but to what extent? This study addresses the critical voids that purely asynchronous teaching vehicles fail to provide as a source of viable learning. That void is the lack of synchronous interactivity with the source of learning, the relationship between the student and the teacher as well as the relationship between students. The results of this research study will provide information on the uses of applying different synchronous cognitive reinforcement capabilities that can produce significant course completion rates based on improved synchronous methodologies.

The purpose of this study is to provide empirical evidence that any large asynchronous course teaching methodology must also include a synchronous mode of learner reinforcement in order to successfully achieve its stated learning outcomes. This study will expose different sets of learners to large asynchronous course teaching courses with and without synchronous content reinforcement. It is intended that the results of this study will prove, or disprove, that any method of large asynchronous course teaching practice must require a form of synchronous reinforcement to be successful in achieving the stated course outcomes. As part of this study, it is expected that different methodologies will be identified, designed and/or revised to produce a set of synchronous reinforcement practices that will attenuate the low completion rates of large asynchronous courses. In order to properly distinguish between these two sets of learning conditions and to assess their value in the learning environment two hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis 1. Given a distance learning environment, there is a distinct quantitative improvement utilizing a synchronous learning mode between the learner and the teacher.

Null Hypothesis. Given a distance learning environment, there is no distinct quantitative improvement utilizing a synchronous learning mode between the learner and the teacher.

The study is bounded by the assessment of only the four graduate level project management courses that either have a synchronous element or do not have a synchronous element embedded. The study sample is comprised of over one-thousand graduate students taking the PM emphasis/specialty add-on to their MSIT, MBA, and MSM degree programs. These students have successfully completed their core courses and while they are candidates for graduation, have elected to expand their degree programs with a specialty in project management.

These four courses do not follow a cohort model but take each course according to their schedule. Therefore, any one student may or may not be in a course with a synchronous element or in a course lacking a synchronous element. This diversity of students across the study provides an unbiased consideration of the variables involved. However, the synchronous courses are instructed by a full-time

faculty member and the asynchronous courses are taught by adjunct faculty. Any potential weaknesses in this study as a result are unknowns.

A search was conducted for any research available that focused on delineating the comparative results of these two approaches. The vast amount of literature seems to be focused on experiential conclusions. A listing of the related literature can be found in Appendix A.

This study was a correlational research study comparing the outcome achievement between purely asynchronous classes of students and classes of students utilizing a synchronous instructor-student approach (called Virtual Office Calls or VOCs) over a period of four years (eight terms/year) beginning in 2009. The asynchronous classes received no identified direct contact between the teacher and the learner over this time. The VOCs were comprised of interactive dialogue between teacher and learners in an informal setting using Adobe Connect rooms with shared screens where the instructor shared his/her screen with the learners on their computer monitors. Audio interaction was through the chat box and/or the use of microphones by the learners and the instructor.

One hundred twenty-eight (128) classes were assessed during the academic years of 2009-2013. The population sample constituted 1941 graduate students over the four-year period. Graduate students were studied in that undergraduate students were required to attend a synchronous seminar weekly as part of their educational development. Including undergraduates with access to synchronous instruction was determined to pollute the needed correlative data for the study. The sampling was taken from a graduate population of approximately 24,000 students ("University," 2013).

A number of students' GPAs and CLAs were eliminated as a result of incomplete data as a result of course incompleteness, dropping, or withdrawals.

Different approaches or perspective were taken to eliminate any possible bias in the data. First the two different types of courses (synch/asynch) were filtered for their results in GPA averages of the four different courses according to the two types of instruction. Second the two types of courses were compared according to the average of the CLAs over the four-year period. Then to ensure bias was removed, the GPAs were considered by instructor and finally, the CLAs were considered by instructor. It was noted that instructors G and H had student data that was too corrupt to include. It was determined that this anomaly did not affect the results of the study.

The registrar's office provided a database of all graduate students' grades and CLAs in a hierarchical database that allowed for data manipulation using data field to correlate the data. In this manner student GPAs were averaged for the synchronous classes and separately for the asynchronous classes. All classes were assessed according to university processed assessments in the areas of Course Level Assessment (CLA) and Grade Point Averages ("School of Business," 2012). Field notes were written in conjunction with the data collection, follow-up interviews with SMEs from the Registrar's Office that collects the CLAs and GPA data. All data collected was study as aggregated data to ensure amenity and to focus on the correlation of synchronous and asynchronous advantages versus disadvantages.

Although a number of Course Level Assessment data was not available to the researchers, there was enough data between the instructors of the two types of courses where the data was available to make a comparative analysis for CLA effectiveness by type. There were four percentage points between the effectiveness of the synchronous courses as compared to the effectiveness of the asynchronous courses. The differences between the synchronous courses and the asynchronous course, when comparing the average GPAs of the student lacked enough separation for a valid distinction. Comparisons by instructors, showed a distinct difference in grading. However, there wasn't enough difference to

determine if this was a result of the two types of course instruction or if it was a result of individual personality types.

The population sample was considered large enough to affect a valid comparison between the synchronous and the asynchronous courses. The findings showed that, under the conditions being studied there was not a significant difference to the GPAs of students between the synchronous course offerings and the asynchronous courses offering. However, there was a slight improvement in Course Level Assessments in the synchronous courses over the asynchronous courses. This indicates that there is some form of improvement in outcomes mastery in courses using a form of synchronous interaction as compared to courses not having some form of asynchronous interaction between the instructor and the learner. It must be remembered that in each of these courses whether synchronous or asynchronous, no cohort of learners was considered. The school has only had one cohort of students in the years under consideration and it was felt that this did not provide a large enough sampling to provide valid findings. No bias was found in the different instructors being considered in their courses whether synchronous or asynchronous even though some data was not available or was corrupted.

The comparison of the effectiveness of synchronous courses to asynchronous courses involves much more a high-level quantitative analysis. There are more factors to be considered such as conducting a comprehensive qualitative-quantitative analysis that included the study of cohorts, control groups, GPAs, CLAs, Post-Course Assessments (from students and faculty), interviews of students and faculty just to mention a few considerations. While this study was high-level and limited due to limited resources, availability of data, time constraints, and other distractors, there was still enough information in the finding to suggest that synchronous instructed courses do have an effect over courses that lack the interactive contact between the learner and the instructor.

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Leveraging Cloud Technology to Introduce Human Capital Management (HCM) into a Human Resource Management (HRM) Curriculum

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Abstract:

The study of human resource management (HRM) has been of interest for decades. Over the years, HRM has evolved from emphasizing the core HR processes, e.g., the recruitment, selection, training, and rewarding of employees, to emphasizing the human capital of employees, e.g., their knowledge, skills abilities, and other characteristics. This evolution has resulted in a movement to recognize and maximize the value that employees create in an organization through effective human capital management (HCM). Not surprisingly, managing and capitalizing on this value has been facilitated through the use of evolving technologies, from Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) systems to cloud computing. The premise of this paper is to describe how leveraging technology, i.e., HCM cloud-based solutions, can be useful in introducing HCM into a traditional HRM curriculum. Additionally, the benefits of using this technology, not only to enhance the study of human resource management, but also to highlight the value of human capital, are presented.

Transformational Leadership Style and Employee Well-Being

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Abstract:

This research was designed to examine the relationship between leadership styles and subordinates' well-being in a manufacturing environment. The participants were 71 employees from two manufacturing companies in Northeast Ohio. The study findings revealed that transformational leaders can impact followers' well-being in a positive way. The primary significance of this study is that it sheds light on the specific transformational leadership behaviors that positively impact employee well-being.

The subject of this study was transformational leadership style and follower's well-being in a manufacturing environment. An individual's experiences at work (e.g., physical, social, mental, emotional, etc.) affect the person while in the workplace impinging on employees' psychological and physiological health. Existent research suggests that employee well-being can impact organizations' performance and financial health significantly by affecting costs related to illness and health care absenteeism, turnover, and job performance, just to name a few.

The purpose of this quantitative research study was to explore the relationship between transformational leadership style and employee well-being in a manufacturing environment. Even though leadership represents one of the most researched topics in the organizational sciences (Massod, Dani, Burns, & Backhouse, 2006; Yukl, 2006), there is a paucity of research involving leadership and well-being (Arnold et al., 2007; Nielsen, Yarker, Brenner, Randall, & Borg, 2008). Even the most researched leadership style—the transformational leadership—has received little attention with regard to its association with facets of well-being (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Page and Vella-Brodrick (2009) argue that research on employee well-being has been limited largely because of its “near exclusive focus on the measurement of employee job satisfaction” (p. 442).

The workforce is a massive social reality (Martin, 2010) and the social environment at work can have both positive and negative effects on people (Bowling & Beehr, 2006). Work related stress cost US companies nearly \$300 billion dollars a year due to absenteeism, productivity loss, turnover, and health care costs (APA, 2006). The World Health Organization estimates that stress costs American businesses \$300 billion dollars a year (Martin, 2012). In the UK, the cost of ill-health is draining the coffers and resources of both employers and employees, not to mention the UK economy (Pruyne, 2011).

Many factors contribute to work related stress and poor employee well-being. Some of the many factors include workload, ongoing organizational change and restructuring, leadership support, and management style. In UK, management style accounts for 38% of the work-related stress in manufacturing and production companies, and 33% in private sector services (Pruyne, 2011).

The notion that low-quality leadership (i.e., leadership characterized by negative or unfair treatment of employees) has negative effects on employees is not new (Day & Hamblin, 1964). Results from research studies reveal the link between leadership and employee psychological well-being (Densten, 2005; Tepper, 2000), anxiety, depression, and psychosomatic symptoms (Hoel, Rayner, & Cooper, 1999). The effects of poor leadership also extend to physical outcomes such as increased blood pressure (Wager, Feldman, & Hussey, 2003) as well as sickness absenteeism and presenteeism (Nyberg, Westerlund, Magnusson Hanson, & Theorell, 2008).

A total of 71 employee participated in this quantitative, nonexperimental, cross-sectional correlational study utilizing standardized instruments. Study participants assessed their immediate leader's behavior utilizing the short version of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). The MLQ instrument contains the following transformational leadership scales: idealized influence (attributed), idealize influence (behavior), intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, and inspirational motivation. Participants rated their immediate leader by answering 45 questions in the MLQ (5x-Short) Rater form regarding the frequency at which their immediate leader exhibited each of the behaviors described in the transformational leadership style scale. The answers that participants provided to the questions in the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-28) allowed me to assess the participants' overall well-being. The GHQ-28 has four subscales (Somatic Symptoms, Anxiety and Insomnia, Social Dysfunction, and Severe Depression). Utilizing the GHQ-28, participants were asked to report if they have had any medical complaints and how their general health had been over the past few weeks. Scores were coded such that lower overall scores indicate better mental health.

The results from this study revealed that transformational leadership style positively impacts employee well-being. The correlations between transformational leadership style and employee well-being was significant at the 0.01 level. Of all the transformational leadership dimensions (idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), idealized influence (attributed) impacted the overall employee well-being most. As a whole, transformational leadership style had a most significant (in a favorable way) impact on employees' anxiety level and quality of sleep (insomnia).

The leadership of the great men (and the great women) of history has usually been transformational, not transactional (Bass, 1985). Burns (1978) portrays transformational leader as people who are able to lift followers up from their petty preoccupations and rally around a common goal to achieve things never thought possible. A central thesis of Bass' (1985) theory is that transformational leadership goes beyond exchanging inducements for desired performance by developing, intellectually stimulating, and inspiring followers to transcend their own self-interests for a higher collective purpose, mission, or vision.

Many studies results revealed significant impact of leadership style on various outcomes. Leaders play important role in followers' live because leaders are the ones with position power. Immediate leaders are the ones who can punish and reward their followers, delegate tasks, allow more job control, exert less pressure, and so on (Offermann & Hellmann, 1996). In addition, the interaction between leader and followers is more important to followers than it is for leaders (Glasø & Einarsen, 2006). Not surprisingly, poor relationships with leaders are among the most common stress factors (Tepper, 2000).

Other researchers found a link between leadership style and various measures of employee well-being as well. Arnold et al. (2007) found that transformational leadership of supervisors exerted positive influence on the psychological well-being of employees. Findings from a longitudinal study (Nielsen et al., 2008) also presented evidence for the link between transformational leadership and psychological well-being. In another study, Nielsen et al. (2008) found that transformational leadership was positively associated with job satisfaction and well-being in staff caring for older people. Van Dierendonck et al. (2004) presented evidence for a causal link between leadership behavior and follower's well-being. In their longitudinal study, the authors found a reciprocal relationship whereby followers who reported higher levels of well-being also reported that their manager had a more active and supportive leadership style over time.

Unlike transformational leadership, poor leadership (e.g., laissez-faire leadership style) has been identified as a root cause of workplace stressors (Kelloway, 2005). The consequences of poor leadership (e.g., role conflict, role ambiguity, and the perceptions of low-quality interpersonal treatment by the leader) are in the form of stress reactions and strain. The link between leadership style and well-being seems plausible for at least two reasons. First, results from cross-sectional studies revealed strong

evidence for the association and causal relationships (de Lange et al., 2003) between a number of work characteristics and employee health and well-being. Second, those work characteristics could be heavily influenced by leaders (Nielsen et al., 2008).

The results of this study indicate that leaders' leadership style can impact significantly impact their immediate employees' well-being. Extensive evidence indicates that employee well-being has a significant impact on the performance and survival of organizations (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). Employee well-being has become an important concern for organizations (Grant et al., 2007) due to the financial burden directly and indirectly attributable to work-related mental ill health and poor well-being (APA, 2006; Bejean & Sultan-Taieb, 2005; French, Zarkin, Gray, & Hartwill, 1999; Greenberg et al., 2003; NIOSH, 2006).

The base significance of this research is that it explored the relationship between transformational leadership style and employee well-being of a population on which little research has been published. As stated earlier, 38% of the work-related stress in manufacturing and production companies in UK is caused by managerial style (Pruyne, 2011). However, the primary significance of this study is that it sheds light on the specific transformational leadership behaviors that positively impact employee well-being. Researchers suggest that transformational leadership style can be learned (Nielsen, 2008) by training leaders to exert certain behaviors. Considering the employers' rising interest and investment in workplace health promotion (Grawitch et al., 2006), it is important to know what leaders can do to enhance their followers' well-being.

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Exploring New Possibilities and Exploiting Old Certainties of Knowledge to Innovate

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Abstract:

In this paper, I have suggested a framework to picture each firm in its existing mode of knowledge search, to suggest where firms require further improvement in their 'knowledge search'. The various determinants of exploration and exploitation of knowledge have also been explored in this paper. Amongst other potential future research areas, I have suggested a model to measure the relative effect of the different organizational capitals and capabilities on exploration and exploitation of knowledge.

Experiential Exercises in Statistical Sampling

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No One Escapes Statistics

Anon.

Teaching undergraduate statistics and research methods courses is a constant challenge. Students today quickly tune out if they are only playing a passive role in the learning process. To prevent this some faculty try to be entertaining: teaching students how to lie with statistics (Huff, 1982), using playing cards or poker examples to teach probability (Wharton, 2011), and using interesting “parlor games” to demonstrate certain statistical concepts (Birthday Problem, Monty Hall Problem). Anecdotal comments from students find these techniques to be fun, however they lack student engagement.

Research shows that experiential exercises are an effective way for students to learn a variety of management concepts because they allow students to be actively engaged in the learning process (Potter, 2009; Sims, 2002). For many students, understanding the materials covered in a course is facilitated when the instructor provides them with concrete, realistic examples of the often abstract concepts through case-based learning, business simulations, or experiential exercises. In addition, research on undergraduate education generally supports that these types of assignments and experiences are beneficial to students because they promote deeper learning through a hands-on exploration of the material (e.g., Bowen, Lewicki, Hall, & Hall, 1997; Diamond, Koering, & Iqbal, 2008; Sparling, 2002).

This paper discusses an experiential exercise that has been developed to compare and contrast various statistical sampling methods. The paper presents the exercise and discusses variations in its use. The exercise is appropriate for use in an undergraduate statistics course or an intermediate research methods course.

Statistical Sampling

An understanding of sampling is important as the basis of inferential statistics; making a conclusion about a population from data collected from a sample drawn from the population. Experiential exercises provide an excellent way of understanding the role of, and difficulty in, obtaining good samples in the design of research studies and their findings. By designing the study and collecting their own data, students go beyond simply learning and applying formulas. They experience the entire process of an inferential statistical study and the challenges involved.

As the quote above suggests, one cannot escape statistics. Everywhere you turn, you see in a variety of fields, and in daily news, reports of surveys where a relatively small sample is used to infer the behavior of a much larger population, e.g., which candidate will win the election [RealClearPolitics.com], how

many people watched the Super Bowl [Nielsen.com], how much confidence consumers have in the economy [The Conference Board, Consumer Confidence Index®], labor force characteristics such as employment [Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey], and what activities people are doing with their time [American Time Use Survey]. A common component of such surveys is that someone had to determine how the sample was to be drawn from the population. An experiential exercise will help students gain an understanding of the importance of this step.

Sampling Exercise

Shown below is the basic template for the experiential exercise developed. This can be modified extensively based on the audience. For example, the current exercise was used in an intermediate HR Research Methods course. In the exercise students develop and carry out their own sampling plan for data collection. Statistical analysis has been simplified by selecting a few variables that can be analyzed by basic statistical techniques. This shifts the focus mainly on the sampling procedure. The open-ended nature of the assignment allows them to explore many different ways of sampling and data collection. Under this scenario a major topic of discussion is the various methods, their advantages and disadvantages, and under what conditions might various sampling procedures work best.

Experiential Exercise in Statistical Sampling

Experiential Exercise

(Prior to this exercise, sampling methods, estimation and Chi-Square contingency tables should be discussed or, in the case of an upper level class, reviewed.)

The purpose of this exercise is to compare and contrast various sampling procedures using a small set of variables. Each group will collect data using three different sampling methods. The three methods include simple random sampling, convenience sampling, and stratified sampling. The groups will design, collect, and interpret their findings for each method.

In addition each group will collect data, on the same variables, using social media (e.g., Twitter, Facebook, e-mail, etc.). The groups will design, collect and interpret findings using the social media of their choice. *(Optionally each group can be assigned a sampling method and social media.)*

Sampling Students at a University

Variables:

Gender (Female, Male)
Status (Full-Time, Part-Time)
County (Oakland, Other)
Age Group (< 23, 23+)

Desired Statistical Test:

Estimate Population Proportion
Estimate Proportion of Full-Time Students
Are Gender and County Independent?
Are Gender and Age Independent?

Design and Data Collection. Be creative. Think about the different types of random, stratified, and convenience samples that you could use. What are their advantages, disadvantages? Is your sample random? Will your results show bias based on your sampling method? Are some methods easier to do than others? Which will give you a better representative sample? How long will data collection take? What are the costs associated with your designed data collection methods?

What size sample is necessary? What are the tradeoffs you need to consider in determining a sample size?

Using Social Media. Social media is becoming an increasingly important part of student's daily lives. As part of this exercise you will collect information about the variables under study. Design an approach, using social media, to collect a sample of 100 observations. You may use multiple types of social media to collect your data. What are the advantages and disadvantages of collecting data in this manner? Do you "trust" your results? What type of sampling method does this approach fall under?

Statistical Analysis. Develop a brief description of your data using some basic tables, charts, etc. Perform the four statistical tests listed above. Interpret the statistical output: What do the results mean? Was there a statistically significant result? If there was a statistically significant result, what does that mean? If there was not a statistically significant result, what does that mean? Compare the data collected using social media to the other approaches. Which do you think is more representative of the population data?

Class Discussion. An important part of this exercise is to compare your group's results to those of the other groups. Are your results similar? Why or why not? How do you rate your sampling methods in comparison to the methods used by other groups? Compare and contrast traditional sampling methods to the use of social media for sampling.

Write-up (Optional). This section varies based on the type and/or level of course. For example, in a basic statistics course you may present a list of questions that they answer. In a research course, you may have them write the exercise as a case analysis, including a scenario as to why they are collecting the data, specific recommendations related to the scenario, and an executive summary.

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The Effect of National Cultural on the Motivational Properties of Tangible Incentives

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Abstract:

In the last few decades different theories and models have argued that behavior is a complex function of internal processes, and environmental factors (Engel, Blackwell and Minard, 1996; Howard and Sheth, 1969; Markin, 1974; Nicosia, 1966). Moreover, years of research in behavioural economics, and cognitive psychology show the unquestionable power of rewards, and incentives (Bandura, Timberly and Allison; Foxall, 1992). Cognitive psychology, need satisfaction models, field theory, psychoanalytic models, economic models, and stimulus-response models have all provided scientific developments directed to predict and control behavior through appropriate motivational practices (Nord and Peter, 1980; Bandura, 1978). Much of the research has focused on incentives, or rewards in increasing or triggering behavior; and have recognized that individual differences play a pivotal role in the efficacy, and effectiveness of an incentive program. The intensity of an incentive or social reinforcement depends on individual differences. However, individuals' differences are shaped by their learning history, and cultural values.

How Rewards, and Social Reinforcement Operate through Cultural Differences

Justifiability

Often companies use incentives that are items that a person would have a hard time purchasing with their own funds. In other words, they could not clear the "justification" hurdle either to themselves or to a significant other. Therefore, the ability to earn this incentive for hard work provides a relatively guilt free way to enjoy something that the employee would value. Culture can explain how individual differences can be attenuated using the GLOB dimensions. For example, in cultures where power distance is low, such as North America, tangible incentives might work better, and would be easier for individuals to justify having them. The possession of items or artifacts that usually only managers have, will give employees status and prestige to due to the sense of hierarchical lessening. Employees will feel proud, and empower by showing off their rewards to others. In less egalitarian cultures, tangible rewards would be contingent upon the gender that has more privileges to own certain artifacts, and the rights of individuals to display publically the possession of these artifacts. Some cultures will punish the position of items of less powerful gender, or be offended if in the other hand they receive a tangible reward that has been previously associated with the less privileged gender.

Social Utility

Beyond the pure consumption value of an incentive reward, employees enjoy the recognition that comes from peers, family, and friends knowing about the receipt of the incentive. In addition, people are better able to discuss the performance that led to receipt of the incentive because there are fewer social proscriptions discussing items as compared to the discussion of cash. Finally, this type of reward has

trophy value, as they provide artifacts beyond the simple reward (e.g., the ability to invite friends to a barbeque using a prize awarded by the firm).

In more collectivistic cultures cooperation is more valued than competition. For Indians training a colleague is an opportunity for advancement, and learning while in north America this is usually perceived as an extra task assigned that will be time consuming, and will make it harder to achieve personal goals. In this case, for the Indians there might be high social utility in the cooperation process, and the achievement of a common goal for the group will result in a positive consequence. In the other hand, for the more individualistic culture, there is no social utility in helping a colleague but in being better than the colleague. In cultures where power distance is high, individuals will attach more value to social recognition that comes from managers or leaders. Figures of authority have a more critical role of models in social learning, and individuals will tend to imitate more their behavior. Also, the social value of reinforcement can be affected by how egalitarian is a culture. In some cultures with low egalitarianism, if social reinforcement comes from a female and the employee is a male, this might be perceived as not valuable, or even offensive; and vice versa, if the male is recognizing a female, this recognition will turn very valuable by the employee, and would probably give her a sense of prestige and equality within the social group.

University Student Engagement: Does Having a Disability Make a Difference?

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Abstract:

The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) survey was used to explore the question of whether students with disabilities were as engaged as their non-disabled peers. The responses of 1806 students, 146 (8.1%) with disabilities, were compared on multiple measures of student engagement: outside the classroom educational activities, and Social Change Behaviors. Students with disabilities were found to not be less engaged than students without disabilities, and to be significantly more engaged in Social Change Behaviors, especially hours spent in community service, communicating with campus or community leaders about a pressing concern, and working with others to address social inequality.

“Creating welcoming inclusive environments for students with and without disabilities is a higher education imperative” (Myers, Spudich, Spudich, & Laux, 2012).

Being part of a campus community offers many opportunities for student engagement. Student engagement can contribute to feelings of belongingness and create opportunities for group membership and connections on campus. Often individuals with disabilities have challenges in developing a sense of belonging in any organization, including a school environment. This research compares how university students with and without disabilities participate in various opportunities for community engagement while attending school. Specifically, the following research question is examined:

1. Do university students with disabilities engage differently than those without disabilities?
 - a. If they do engage differently, how do these differences occur? For example, do they vary by type (e.g. as part of a class or voluntary), time commitment, or professional interest?

In today’s educational environment that is centered around increased student retention and graduation rates on college campuses, the question of engagement is important. Engagement has been shown to positively impact both student retention and graduation, and professional success (Tinto, 2012).

Method

The research questions were tested based on data collected in winter 2010 at a medium-sized Midwestern university, as part of the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL), an international research program examining the influences of higher education on college student leadership development. An adapted version of Astin’s (1991) inputs–environment–outcomes college impact model served as the conceptual framework. The MSL survey instrument was designed to capture data consistent with the conceptual model and underwent extensive pilot testing to validate the psychometric rigor of all measures (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Dugan, Komives, & Associates, 2009).

Data

Demographics. Demographics were calculated for the sample of students, and are reported in Table 1. The sample size and distributions as they varied by question are noted within the table. For the main demographic variable of interest, disability, the percentage of students who reported having a disability was small in this sample. The number of students who answered yes to the question “Do you have a long-

lasting condition (physical, visual, auditory, mental, emotional, or other) that substantially limits one or more of your general life activities (your ability to see, hear, or speak; to learn, remember, or concentrate)?" was 146 or 8.1% of the total sample. According to the U.S. Census in 2010 approximately 20% of the U.S. population report having a disability (Brault, 2012).

Engagement. Student engagement was measured with a variety of variables where students indicated their level of participation in educational activities outside the classroom. The items and differences between students with and without a disability are detailed in Tables 2 and 3. Table 2 include those activities that center around an educationally related engagement activity. Table 3 details those items that indicate an engagement activity centered on community service or social action. Each item on the outside class engagement activity had a response anchor of 1 = Yes and 2 = No. Each item on the Social Change Behaviors scale had a response of 1 = Never, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Often, 4 = Very Often. The items in Table 3 comprise the Social Change Behaviors scale. This is a very reliable scale; two recent studies which used the scale obtained Cronbach's alpha reliabilities of .90 at the University of Maryland (Chowdhry, 2010), and .91 at St. Louis University (Foley, 2012). We obtained a Cronbach's alpha for the Social Change Behaviors scale of .91.

Results

To test whether students with disabilities were significantly different in their engagement, a Chi square test was used with community service as the dependent variable. There was no significant difference between disabled and nondisabled students, $\chi^2(1) = 2.36, p = .124$, with 46.6% of disabled students reporting having done some community service, compared to 40.1% of the nondisabled students. When the number of hours doing different types of community service was examined, it was found that the number of hours spent significantly differed both as part of a community organizations unaffiliated with their school, $F(1, 723) = 17.68, p < .001$, with 2.38 hours for disabled students compared to 1.72 hours for nondisabled students, and for hours spent doing community service on their own, $F(1, 725) = 8.38, p = .004$, with 2.41 hours for disabled students in an average month compared to 1.97 hours for nondisabled students.

Compared to other the other students, students with disabilities appear not to be significantly different with respect to being involved in community service, having no significant difference in doing community service, and significantly more hours of community service than students without disabilities, on their own or as part of community organizations.

Universities offer additional learning experiences other than classes. A Chi square was calculated on each of seven outside the classroom learning experiences asked about by the survey. None were significant, indicating that students were not marginalized in these types of activities.

Discussion

Individuals with disabilities are not the only people often considered at the margins of social life. Those in traditionally protected classes (i.e. women, minorities, and those with non-heterosexual sexual orientations) might also be less likely to engage in opportunities for campus engagement and therefore missing out on these experiences and their benefits. While not the main focus of this research, these groups also warrant attention in future research as they may be negatively impacted by reduced campus

engagement. We tested overall engagement for these other groups and did not find any meaningful differences when testing for the differences due to sex, sexual orientation, nor race.

This research is an early start in examining how school engagement may vary between students with and without disabilities. Future research could be used to further explore not only the differences to discern the types of engagement where students may vary, but also examine how this engagement may be predictive of graduate rates and professional success. Additionally, the research could be used to distinguish if these differences occur by different types of disability. For example, for those engagement opportunities that require teamwork, extensive time or other personal demands, may be more or less appropriate for certain types of disabilities.

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Table 1
Demographics of Sample

Variable		N	%
Disability		1,806	
	Disability	146	8.1%
	No Disability	1,660	91.9%
Gender		1,806	
	Male	623	34.5%
	Female	1,183	65.5%
Race		1,605	
	White	1,137	70.8%
	Middle Eastern	70	4.4%
	African American / Black	140	8.7%
	American Indian / Alaska Native	2	0.1%
	Asian American / Asian	70	4.4%
	Latino / Hispanic	24	1.5%
	Multiracial	142	8.8%
	Race / Ethnicity not included above	20	1.2%