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m-Rig: A New Videography Rig for the Film Equipment Industry

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United States

Abstract:
The purpose of m-Rig is to produce a device that can implement external microphones, lighting equipment, tripod mounting, increased stability, and boom poles into a mobile phone. The m-Rig is constructed by using a billet aluminum design with phenolic plastic handles. It’s also anodized black to resist corrosion and to create an even surface finish. The m-Rig creates an affordable substitute for expensive film equipment for journalists and amateur videographers.

The m-Rig is a simplified fig rig made specifically for the iPhone, and will be implemented into other popular smartphones. The m-Rig strives to create an easy to assemble, portable, and stylish product that maximizes filming performance of mobile phones. Due to the m-Rig’s comfortable and stable design, people do not have to worry about dropping their phone while filming. By incorporating universal accessory mounting solutions, the product makes it easy to attach a wide range of products such as lighting and sound equipment.

This new product development incorporates financial, structural, marketing, and operational business plans and strategies, the findings will provide a guideline to future entrepreneurs in addition to existing equipment manufacturers.

The m-Rig will be expected to create skilled manufacturing jobs as well as create a low start up cost for amateur filmmakers or journalists. This product, however, has not been perfected yet; gaining customer interest is the most important part of this project. As further developments are made to the m-Rig, new features will be added to the m-Rig, inclusive but not limited to a shutter button for camera control, lens adapters, and adjustable neck straps.
Shadow Managers and Their Shadow Employees: Their Professional Relationship, Motivation, and Satisfaction

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Abstract:
A sub-set of employers and employees within undocumented economy was examined, specifically the workplace interaction between shadow employers and their shadow employees, their motivation and degree of satisfaction. A high degree of satisfaction was found among participants and relatively good relations between shadow employers and their shadow workers. Most considered their arrangements mutually beneficial and the compensation appropriate. It appeared that the illegality of the arrangement fostered more workplace negotiation and respectful behavior between participants.

The subject of this study was the shadow economy which is the network of legal businesses that provide legal products and services, but do not always fully report their income or labor expenditures and thus do not pay all the appropriate taxes and fees required by law. These shadow employers pay their shadow employees in cash, and do not record these financial transactions.

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to explore the working relationship between shadow employers and shadow employees. It was suspected that such an exploration, because it is an environment without the government strictures or taxes, would reveal some valuable insight into the natural and preferred relationship of employers and employees, and might enhance our understanding of human motivation.

This study focused on businesses that used shadow employees who are US residents and non-transitory stable residents of the local community. This study did not include illegal immigrants. This study lasted for over three years.

A total of fifty-five participants were interviewed. Twenty-two shadow employers were interviewed and thirty-three shadow employees were interviewed. Overall, a high degree of work and personal satisfaction among shadow employees, relatively good relations between shadow employers and their shadow employees, and very little evidence that these shadow employers or the shadow employees had any ethical or economic concerns about their conduct. The majority of shadow employers and shadow employees considered their arrangements mutually beneficial, the resulting compensation more reflective of their efforts, and although the situation was not ideal, both parties still found it satisfying, but in different ways. Three factors appeared to be keys to understanding these finding: (1) A shared conspiracy/shared risk, (2) the balance between the demand and the availability of labor, and (3) the absence of hourly expectations.

It appeared that, in most cases, their shared conspiracy to avoid legal strictures and taxes seemed to have empowered or encouraged both the shadow employers and their shadow employees to negotiate more as equals seeking a mutually advantageous arrangement. Not only was the legal status of employer and employee absent, in most of the shadow employees the traditional psychological status of being a
was lessened or absent. Additionally, in most cases, the shadow employer assumed a less superior attitude. Their legal and economic positions being somewhat more equally balanced, both sides negotiated more as entrepreneurs. A distinct entrepreneurial spirit was noted among shadow employees.

In most normal situations, a potential employer would expect multiple individuals to be seeking to fill a job opening. However, when an employer seeks a shadow employee the number of applicants will be fewer. Additionally, shadow employers have to carefully consider whether an applicant would be a reliable co-conspirator. In this study, most of the shadow employers limited their choice of shadow employees to highly skilled individuals or those with a reputation for fast, high quality work, and who have been reliable shadow employees in the past. The exception to this was the hiring of teenagers, which were based on family member’s or friend’s request. Essentially, the supply of labor was reduced to a level approximately equal or lower than demand for labor. This empowered the potential shadow employee to negotiate with their potential employer from a more advantageous position.

The standard work arrangement between employers and their shadow employees, specifically, the negotiating or assigning of tasks to be done, instead of hours to be worked, was a major source of pride and satisfaction for the shadow employees. To them this arrangement, which afforded them more personal flexibility, was evidence of their professional value.

According to self-determination theory (SDT) (Ryan and Deci, 2000), there are three universal, innate and psychological needs that drive humans to continue a behavior. These needs are competence, autonomy, and relatedness. Ryan and Deci also recognized that extrinsic rewards, such as compensation can lead to the required activity to attain the desired reward. We see in the comments of the shadow employees their pride in the quality of their work and a strong desire to do quality work. We also see them taking pride in the high degree of flexibility that they have in selecting and accomplishing their work. However, there is very little evidence of the need for psychological relatedness being fulfilled by social contact, and therefore it appears that social relations is not a factor in their high degree of satisfaction with their work arrangement. Most shadow employees were not psychologically or emotionally close to their employers or other workers. Instead, it seems their pride in the independence and separateness from others in the workplace contributed to their high morale. I suggest that their identification of themselves with the ideal of a free and independent contractor was sufficient to satisfy their need for relatedness. The shadow employees also took pride in being paid more than standard employee wage for such work. The common thread that links their satisfaction with their work arrangement seems to be the feeling of pride. Specifically, respect for one’s own work arrangements, performance, and the value they receive from it.

Taken as a whole, the shadow employers were economically satisfied with the arrangement, but less psychologically satisfied than the shadow employees. It is significant that most of the shadow employers felt that they were forced into the shadow economy and were more concerned than the employees were about the potential legal consequences of the arrangement. Perhaps the employers’ perceived need to work outside the bounds of legality and rely on shadow employees that negotiated as independent contractors did not contribute to their sense of competence or autonomy. Their highest degree of psychologically satisfaction came from their perception of themselves as resistors to a regime of excessive high taxation and regulation, and their positive perception of their relationship with their shadow employees. These two factors seem to align with SDT’s autonomy and relatedness needs. The employers’ perception of themselves as being part of a supposed resistance movement to unfair taxation imparted some self-perception of a degree of autonomy, and therefore pride. It is noteworthy that the employers perceived a closer and more personal relationship with their shadow employees than the employees perceived. It is as if the employers were rationalizing a false perception of themselves and their relationship with their employees so that they could maintain a higher degree of personal pride, and thus have some degree of psychological satisfaction with their situation. It appears that self-deception can
play a role in the degree of satisfaction one feels about their work arrangements, performance and relations.

The results of this study indicate that pride in a person’s working arrangements is key evidence of motivation and of a higher degree of psychological satisfaction. Also, for some people, labor laws, government regulations, and taxation are, to some degree, obstacles to achieving higher degrees of motivation and psychological satisfaction.

The base significance of this research is that it explored the management and motivation of a population on which little research has been published. However, the primary significance of this research is that adds to our understanding of the foundational nature of human interaction and motivation in the activity of exchanging labor for compensation and human

References
Using Employability Skills Assessment to Create a Win-Win in Talent Recruitment, Selection and Retention

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Abstract:
As the information world rapidly changes, so do the required skills and competencies that potential employees need to be successful in the workforce. There is increasing evidence of a gap between what employers desire in potential employees and the skills possessed by potential employees, especially college students. Therefore, it is important to identify the employability skills desired by employers, assess these desired skills in potential employees and determine ways to insure that potential employees not only meet today’s needs but also be prepared to adapt to the future needs. This will be a quantitative study built on previous research and aims to understand: 1) which skills are important to both employers and employees; and 2) the relationship between employability skills and organizational climate.
Content Analysis to Increase the Quality of Discussion Questions

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Abstract:
An ongoing issue for online faculty is incidences of plagiarism or lack of originality in online discussions. An improvement project was performed at a UK university which had recently updated the course objectives utilizing Bloom's Higher Order Thinking verbs. While the objectives had been updated, the discussion questions had not. The purpose of the project was to identify the probable causes for unintentional plagiarism and lack of originality, develop guidelines and implement the guidelines in an Accounting and Operations Management course for Information Systems Management students. The effectiveness of the guidelines were tested by performing a content analysis on a session of the course before the implementation of the guidelines and after. The variance in the percentage of Bloom's Higher Order Thinking demonstrated that it is possible to increase the critical thinking levels in the course but it is also important to do so on an ongoing basis.
The Housing Rental Market: 2013

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Abstract:
This manuscript is a descriptive analysis of the real estate rental market as of January 2013. The analysis examines factors that affect rental market, products, operations, and technology, marketing, and values. A specific focus is placed on business challenges in the residential rental marketing including forces that challenge the profitability of the industry. A value chain of the industry is included in the appendix along with several figures detailing trends in rental supply/demands.

Introduction
Rental housing can be described as landowner’s providing residence to non-owners for a monthly fee. Structures of ownership and management of residential rental property involve “amateur” landlords, large institutional investors and owners, and “social” ownership (Dubel & Taffin, 2011). Either considered a “rent-to-own” or a “pure” rental housing scheme, types of rental housing structures include single-family houses, duplex/townhouses, and multi-family dwellings such as apartments.

Business Challenges
Economic conditions in housing rental industry are one of the key factors that affect the market. In strong economies, consumer behaviors shift from renting to buying, and the opposite in weak economies. Therefore, when there is a growing demand for renting in downturn markets, rent prices go up (Hoovers, 2013). From the landlord’s perspective, weak economies might lead to falling property value, and inflexible market conditions might lead landlords to rent out their properties at a price which is much less than the market value (Hoovers, 2013).

In strong economies, it is difficult to convert real estate property to a cash asset, and it is even harder to establish in weak economies. This situation sometimes leads landlords to rent out their properties instead of selling. Entering the rental market as a new investor raises another challenge, which is competing with existing rental properties for tenants. Potential landlords need to consider this fact before they decide to become one (Hoovers, 2013).

Values
Property owners or landlords can increase their revenue by providing additional services such as laundry, professional cleaning, and concierge service to their tenants. In order to attract more residents, these services become very important, especially when poor economic conditions adversely affect rental market competition (Hoovers, 2013).
New Property management and maintenance technologies enable landlords to reduce their costs and improve their services. By adopting these new technologies landlords can make appropriate leasing and maintenance decisions in order to optimize their revenue (Hoovers, 2013).

Major Factors that Affect the Rental Market

Affordability - The younger generation entering the workplace after just having graduated from college and carrying loan debts cannot afford to buy a house in the near future but instead prefer to rent (Courtis, 2006).

Interest rates - The higher the interest rate, the more landlords prefer to rent out their properties, or can decide to sell their properties due to the high mortgage rates (Courtis, 2006).

Supply and demand - This relationship is one of the indicators of how the market performs. In the housing rental market, when there are more rental properties than demand, rental prices will go down. On the other hand, if there are not sufficient properties to meet the high demand, rental prices will increase (Courtis, 2006).

Suppliers

The housing rental market is primarily supplied by construction firms, banks, property management, and insurance companies. After the 2008 crisis, many construction workers with high skills left their jobs and returned as the market revived (Emrath, 2013). Now, landlords and real estate investor companies will have more options to choose from among construction firms, providing the industry with an advantageous position over its suppliers.

Competitive Rivalry

The market is highly fragmented as “despite the high costs associated with direct investments into residential rental property, barriers to entry within the industry are generally considered to be low. Smaller non-employer firms dominate the industry” (IBISWorld, 2013). Recently, large institutional investors have started capturing larger market share and having significant influence on the market (MacFarland & Smith, 2013). Short sales, foreclosures, unsold houses, and low interest rates attract investors to purchase properties. Big purchases from limited inventory by large investors restrict the buying ability of small real estate companies and individual investors (MacFarland & Smith, 2013).

Buyers

Current trends show most prospective homebuyers rent due to their low credit scores, the banks’ stringent credit standards, and high unemployment rates keep them from taking advantage of increasingly low mortgage rates. Large investors make big purchases and reduce the inventory of single homes or multifamily houses, causing home prices to increase, preventing individual purchase (MacFarland & Smith, 2013). High demand and restricted inventory lead landlords to have more control over tenants in terms of rent rates.

Substitution

Due to the aforementioned factors, millennial potential homebuyers choose to live in urban areas, where it has easy access to amenities such as transportation, schools, parks and gyms, and rent to cut living costs. The baby boomers who are on the verge of retirement, also are attracted to renting since they do not want to cope with property related issues, such as home maintenance.

New Market Entrants

Those starting real estate “businesses are the most likely to operate without employees … [and therefore] are able to avoid barriers to entry that are related to hiring, training, and creating a payroll system”
Some large private equity firms have started to make big purchases of single family or multifamily houses. In order to compete, new entrants will need to consider customer satisfaction and loyalty. These large companies place an immense importance on employee skills, training, and the use of advanced real estate technologies to gain competitive advantage. Government regulations are not considered as high barriers for new market entrants, though equipment expenses pose as a possible investment burden (Gershon, 2013).

Conclusion
Unstable external environmental factors will always affect the markets in different ways, and the housing market is no exception. It is therefore interesting to see how the key industry factors change the dynamics of the market and lead to new trends, how they interact with each other, and what kind of business challenges arise from these changes and interactions.

The full version of this paper may be obtained by e-mailing the first author.

References


Creating Successful Online Courses with Emerging Technologies

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Abstract:  
In America’s brick-and-mortar classrooms: a simple yet profound merger is taking place between virtual-school technology and the traditional classroom. Even though a large amount of students still attend the traditional physical schools, there are a large and increasing number of students who will take some type of online course during the course of their college careers. The goal of this writing is to discuss the need for integration of emerging technologies to enhance this student experience.
Personal Branding and Transitioning Back Into the World of Work

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Abstract:  
Branding is how you present yourself professionally and how others perceive you. Your professional title, what you do, and how well you apply your knowledge reflects your brand. People who are transitioning in their careers experience a challenge in developing their brand. The goal in this discussion is to review 3 different areas of branding and transitioning, higher education professionals, business professionals, women moving from domestic to work world, and military vets.
The Effects of the Nurses' Cultural Competency upon Patient Satisfaction

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Abstract:
BHC is a highly diverse employer that serves multi-diverse communities in Bronx, New York. BHC currently faces challenge in meeting the diverse patients’ needs in culturally competent ways while maintaining quality care. This study looked at correlation between cultural competency of nurses in BHC, using the Transcultural Self-Efficacy Tool (TSET) (Jeffreys, 2010), and patient satisfaction scores or HCAHPS (Hospital Care Quality Information from the Consumer Perspective, 2010).

Purpose of the Study
Hospitals face new challenges and problems that have worsened over time. In spite of limited economic resources, stakeholders continue to require quality services. In addition, newly discovered diseases and bacteria, and advancing technology continue to challenge effective delivery of care. There is increasing migration of healthcare workers and patients. The resultant workforce and patient diversity necessitates different approaches in ensuring patient satisfaction. Cultural competency of healthcare staff is becoming increasingly important due to impact on patient satisfaction (Ngo-Metzger, Telfair, Sorkin, et. al. 2006).

Effective selection of cultural competency and ongoing development programs are contributing factors to low employee turnover in diverse organizations (Vaughn, 2007). The call for vigilance in reshaping patient care to meet the expectations of diverse population should lead to efficient use of resources and creative leadership that will look at factors affecting patient care and satisfaction. This study looked at correlation between cultural competency of nurses and patient satisfaction at BHC, a hospital in Bronx, New York. Results would be used to design a cultural competency program for nurses in BHC.

Research Design
The research was meant to answer “Is there a relationship between the competency of medical-surgical nurses and patient satisfaction scores?” The study included the 8th, 9th, 10th, 15th, 16th, and 17th medical-surgical units. The Transcultural Self-Efficacy Tool (TSET) by Jeffreys (2006a) was used to measure the cultural competency of nurses. TSET is a 3-subscale survey that measures cognitive, practical, and affective skills of nurses in caring for patients from different cultural background. Patient satisfaction scores or HCAHPS (2010) of the units were compared. The hypothesis was there is a positive relationship between higher level of cultural competency of nurses and higher level of patient satisfaction.

Nurses in the six medical-surgical units were recruited to join. Every nurse who gave consent was included in the study. Research flyers were posted on units and recruitment letters were distributed during change of shifts for two weeks. Completion of TSET did not require disclosure of personal identity. Consent to join the study was at the beginning of Survey Monkey and participants were given an opportunity to check off the yes box if they chose to participate.

Methodology
The nurses in BHC include Black, Hispanic, Asian, and European ethnicities. The TSET (Jeffreys, 2010) was chosen because it was developed to measure cultural competency of nurses from school, hospital, clinic, and other healthcare settings. The patient satisfaction scores were obtained from the results of HCAHPS survey by Center for Medicare and Medicaid Services (CMS). HCAHPS scores were specific to each medical-surgical unit. HCAHPS surveys were randomly sent to the house of patients to rate the
care they received during hospitalization. As of 2013, patient satisfaction results will determine portion of hospital reimbursement.

**Results and Analysis**

There were 118 nurses who joined the study. Eighty percent hold Bachelor’s degree in nursing; 20% masters, 16% associate, and 2% other degree. More female participated. More males rated above median on knowledge in interviewing diverse clients on discrimination and bias experiences. The subscale 3 of TSET showed more male nurses in all units have higher degree of confidence in accepting differences between cultural groups and appreciating role of family in providing healthcare compared to female. Proportions of respondents based on ethnicity did not differ significantly for all units. The practical and affective TSET subscales showed smallest proportion above median for nurses working at BHC for 0 to 5 years. Distribution of age groups differs significantly and there were TSET statements that showed significant differences based on age.

Responses showed significant differences on 3 subscales of TSET in 9th floor. More 9th floor nurses scored above median on most of the cognitive, practical, and affective subscales. The unit has more nurses working in BHC for 10 to 20 years and over 20 years, which rated more comfortable in caring for patients from different cultures. There were fewer nurses working for 0 to 5 years and age less than 35 years.

More nurses on 8th and 16th floors scored above median on majority of TSET 3 subscales. There was more nurses working for more than 10 to 20 years and greater than 20 years, which group greatest proportion above median in part 3 of TSET. There were less nurses working for 0 to 5 years. Such floors have significantly higher percentage of nurses over 45 to 55 years than the 15th and 17th floors. The group of over 45 to 55 years has the greatest proportion of respondents that rated closer to being very comfortable on majority of TSET statements.

More 15th floor nurses scored higher than median on knowledge of socioeconomic background of patients from different cultures and awareness of own biases and limitations. The 10th and 17th floors showed higher percentage of nurses working for 0 to 5 years. The practical subscale showed smallest proportion above median for nurses in group of 0 to 5 years working at BHC. Such units have significantly higher percentage of nurses who are less than or equal to 35 years of age compared to 8th, 9th, and 16th floors. The less than or equal to 35 age group has more respondents that rated least comfortable on TSET cognitive subscale. The 17th floor showed significant small proportion of nurses who scored above median on the 3 subscales of TSET. The 10th floor scored the least in all subscales of TSET except for the item on ability to show understanding of religious practices and beliefs of diverse patients.

In 2012, there were about 350 HCAHPS responses. The 9th and 8th floors scored low on HCAHPS item on communication with nurses on explanation of medications compared to the other units. The 16th floor got higher score but there were 4 months when without survey response. The HCAHPS scores showed 9th, 8th, and 16th floors higher than 10th, 15th, and 17th floors.

**Conclusions and Recommendations**

The low scores of 10th floor in 3 subscales of TSET do not conclude lack of cultural competency. The 10th floor has the lowest response rate of in compared with other units. More unit responses may provide more descriptions of the ability of the nurses to provide culturally competent care. It was difficult to definitely conclude which of the medical-surgical units has more nurses that are culturally competent due to limited subjects. A study with more subjects may lead to more definitive conclusions.

Small sample size made it difficult to answer the research question “is there a relationship between the cultural competency of the nurses and the patient satisfaction scores in the different medical-surgical
units?” However, data showed that there were TSET subscale items that were predictors of increase in HCAHPS. In spite of lack of direct relationship in looking at the data and the hypothesis, data showed that the medical-surgical unit that has the highest HCAHPS score in 2012 also has high scores in TSET subscales. These findings can assist in developing a cultural competency program for the nurses, which can lead to increase patient satisfaction scores. Repeated responses in all units showed same characteristics of the nurse. The results were shared with the Chief Nurse Officer and Director of Nursing Education to be used for designing cultural competency program.

Answering the TSET provided self-evaluation to participants of their cultural competency, own biases, weaknesses, and strengths in dealing with diverse cultures. It reminded nurses to make effort in providing culturally competent care and to know its effects on patient satisfaction. The results described the cultural competency of the medical-surgical units inclusive to BHC. Same study at neighboring hospitals in Bronx would verify the effects of nurses’ cultural competency upon patient satisfaction. At present times when patient satisfaction is important, this type of study will give a new perspective on how to care for diverse patients.

References
Abstract:
Linear changes in the environment, based on observable trends, are obviously easier to anticipate than non-linear events which are by nature unexpected. Non-linear events created by technological change can put some companies out of business at the same time they create new business opportunities for others. A non-linear change is taking place with respect to U.S. domestic energy supplies – a change resulting from employment of a new technology for extraction of petroleum and natural gas. This is an information paper describing that change.
Organizational and Institutional Change in Health Care: From Turbulence to Integration

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Abstract:
Over recent decades, environments for health care organizations have grown more turbulent, leading researchers look for new ways to understand industry change. We use institutional theory to craft a conceptual understanding of turbulence and organizational change in healthcare. Using emergence of integrated health delivery systems as a focus for this discussion, qualitative evidence from two competitive healthcare markets is used to illustrate and explore this framework, and suggest avenues for further research and theoretical development.
Embracing Change from a Complex Adaptive Systems Perspective

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Abstract:
This workshop explores organizations from a complex adaptive systems perspective along with several organizational change theories to develop organizational change strategies. Theoretical information on change, organizational environments, and systems will be covered as well as a complex adaptive systems model; all of which will be used in a set of activities for workshop participants to begin to outline change strategies for their organization.
An Empirical investigation of U.S. Employees’ Perceptions and Attitudes about Frequency and Types of Employee-Perpetrated Information Sabotage

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Abstract:
Information sabotage is an act of aggression by employees and managers that is ubiquitous in U.S. organizations and takes many forms. Surveyed respondents appear to accept some acts as less severe, necessitating only moderate or no punishment. Most respondents do not tolerate direct, overt acts that physically damage computer hardware and software, alter files or impair organizational security. Many respondents tolerate so-called “softer” acts of sabotage, such as misdirecting information or modifying requested information for personal or organizational gain.

Introduction and Purpose
Hafer and Gresham (2012) published a pilot study on managers’ and senior executives’ perceptions and attitudes about the types of employee-perpetrated information sabotage in their organizations. The findings from this study suggest that “information sabotage, in one or several forms . . . appears ubiquitous, regardless of firm size.” Nearly one of three respondents personally knew a saboteur, and over fifty percent reported purposely delaying transfer of information, creating misinformation about a co-worker or manager and withholding critical information, such as passwords to critical systems. The most interesting and revealing findings from the pilot study are that the most common forms of sabotage, such as withholding, diverting and modifying information, are generally the least traceable and most passive, relative to direct and overt damage to critical targets such as computers and software. This was not expected and provided the authors with the impetus to pursue a larger sample so that findings might be more generalizable to a larger population of U.S. managers and workers.

The purpose of this article is to report the preliminary results of a broad empirical study investigating U.S. employees’ perceptions of the frequency of occurrence of employee-perpetrated information sabotage, their attitudes towards different acts of sabotage by information saboteurs, and their personal participation in acts of sabotage.

The Survey
This survey of U.S. employees follows a previous survey reported by Hafer and Gresham (2012) that investigated 19 forms of information sabotage conducted with alumni from the Executive Masters of Business Administration of one of the author’s college of business. The questions were previously compiled and modified based upon the forms of information on sabotage originally published by Giacalone and Knouse (1990) and Richardson (2008).
A random sample of 3000 U.S. employees from both private and public firms was contacted to participate
in this study. Of those surveys returned, 164 were usable and formed the basis for the findings in this
article.

Preliminary Findings
The findings reported in this article address Section I of the survey. In this section, we asked respondents
about their degree of tolerance for each act of informational sabotage outlined in Table 2. For example,
the scenario described for each of the acts began as “Someone in your company (e.g., maliciously alters
files) so as to harm a targeted person, department, customer, program or organizational change.”
“Complete the following statement ‘I would consider this to be a ....’” The respondent can choose to check
any one of the following responses: Minor Offense (Warning is sufficient), Moderate Offense
(Disciplinary Action Required), Major Offense (Termination Should Result), or This Offense is not
worthy of any action).

The preliminary findings in this research offers some interesting parallels to earlier work reported by
Hafer and Gresham (2012) with managers graduated from the Executive Masters in Business alumni from
one of the author’s college of business. Of particular note, and as observed in the manager survey, it
appears that the less traceable and physically damaging act of sabotage, the lower the degree of
punishment expected (On a continuum of “not worthy of any action” to “termination should result”).

Those acts rated by a majority of this survey’s respondents as a minor or moderate offense requiring a
warning or no disciplinary actions are shown below. The number in parenthesis is from the pilot study
survey of managers by Hafer and Gresham (2012).

“Purposely delays transfer of information” – 60.7% (73.2%)
“Purposely misdirects information” – 46.4% (60.0%)
“Creates information about a coworker or manager” – 50% (61.0%)
“Gathers information in a slow manner . . . “– 75% (69.0%)
“Holds information hostage, i.e., passwords to critical systems” – 42.8% (54.2%)

The worst offenses (e.g., maliciously alteration of files, malicious hacking, altering or erasing backup data
and public releasing proprietary data) appear to involve direct, overt, destructive activity. The least
offensive acts of sabotage (delaying, slow to gather, creating misinformation or inaccurate information,
and misdirecting information are more passive and generally less traceable.

Clearly, some forms of sabotage are not considered as offensive and deserving of punishment. Is it only
coincidental that the acts considered least offensive) are also the least traceable?

Discussion
This article reports the preliminary findings of Section I of the survey that investigated the level of
tolerance to 19 acts of sabotage among U.S. employees in a variety of industries. As suspected, the
“softer” acts of sabotage, such as purposely delaying or misdirecting information, were considered by the
majority of respondents to be more tolerated than overt and physically damaging acts including malicious
hacking and altering the contents of files. These finding are similar in magnitude to the earlier findings
among managers by Hafer and Gresham (2012).

Sensitive topics are generally considered serious impediments to high response rates (Catania, et al 1990;
Richardson 2010), but are probably better received by respondents in paper and pen format because of the
anonymity assumed. The received, but non-usable surveys, all omitted some or all of the questions
regarding the respondents’ participation in acts of sabotage. Although anonymity was expressed in the
cover letter, which also listed the lead author’s name, affiliation and email address, the calculated
A 7.1% response rate is not surprising considering the current atmosphere of fear and concern for intrusive monitoring of communications in today’s business environment. Thus, the sensitivity of the topic and the general atmosphere would suggest that the response was indeed remarkable.

Many of the questions in this survey are quite sensitive. This is reflected in the fact that some respondents refused to complete Section VI of the survey that asked about their own participation in acts of sabotage. Tourangeau, Rips and Rasinski (2000), p. 257, explain that answers may be biased if respondents believe their responses will negatively reflect on their social desirability, if they mistrust intrusive questions and if they fear of too much disclosure to third parties. Bradburn, et al (1978) state that it is usually assumed that respondents’ conflict with questions that have social norm implications, and this situation will cause them to bias their responses towards the socially desirable state. These findings were also found by Chung and Monroe (2003). Intrusive questions such as those regarding religion, sex, personal finance and behaviors with social implications are well recognized in the academic literature as sensitive topics that invite bias responses. Disclosure to third parties is generally recognized as another sensitive topic that may impact survey results.

References
Employee Engagement: An Analysis of Trends and its Potential Impact to a Company’s Finances

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Abstract:
Employee engagement is a buzzword among the executive community, encompassing concepts such as morale and employee job satisfaction. This study was performed to evaluate the evolution of this concept and to determine if there were any direct ties between a company’s financial performance and the level of employee engagement found within the staff. The study was executed as an applied research project encompassing reference studies completed between 1955 and 2008 with articles referenced up to 2011. The author’s contention was that employee engagement is a mutually beneficial state, in which the company reaps the benefits of taking care of their employees. This study proclaims an improved bottom line and an inherent advantage over competitors with lower amounts of interest within their employee base. This hypothesis was determined to be inaccurate until the late 1990’s with firm evidence being loose until the mid 2000’s.

This research concluded that it is beneficial for companies to engage their employees, and the benefits of employees being engaged are measurable financially. It was determined that companies actively participating in engaging their employees were more likely to have higher levels of profits than other companies whose levels of engagement were lower (www.towerswatson.com, 2009).
Examining the Application of Mentoring with Service Learning

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Abstract:  
When implementing service-learning endeavors at a small rural institution, a major limitation often presents itself as only a few students are readily available or initially willing to participate. As such, receiving consideration for scholarly publication becomes a challenge as most argue the sample size is too small. To remedy to this situation, faculty members have modified a local community service-learning initiative in which the application of mentoring is the focus rather than the pedagogical perspective within a specific discipline. To date, this has appeared quite successful for the select few students capitalizing on the opportunity. While these select few have received numerous awards, been highlighted by campus and surrounding media outlets, and have even received monetary stipends, further discussion and research on how to effectively convey the results of such projects is warranted, as are the possibilities of how to increase the number of willing participants.
Employee-Employer Communication in an Aircraft Maintenance Repair Organization

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Abstract:
The revenue earned by one of the leading aircraft MROs, The Company, fell from $1.050 billion in 2008 to $1.006 billion in 2009, a loss of 3.5%. However, The Company reported a profit of $1.11 billion in 2011. The problem is the lack of understanding of whether and how the employer-employee communication policies in The Company contributed to the profitability decline in 2009/2010 and improved revenue in 2010/2011. The purpose of this qualitative action research study is to explore employees’ perceptions of employer-employee communication policies in The Company and profitability decline in 2009 and improved revenue in 2010/2011. The results may help organizational leaders determine if employee-employer relations contributed to The Company’s change in revenue earned between 2009 and 2011.
Strategies for Integrating Business and Management Degree Programs into Four-year Liberal Arts Colleges

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Abstract:  
Small liberal arts colleges that have traditionally focused on undergraduate education in the liberal arts are feeling market pressure to offer professional education, such as business degree programs. These business programs in liberal arts colleges are sometimes poorly aligned with the mission of the college and fit awkwardly into the college’s selection of degree programs. This paper reviews the literature on this problem of integration, surveys the options for designers of Business programs in small liberal arts colleges, and identifies the key challenges. It argues that one sometimes-overlooked challenge is the issue of values: many liberal arts faculty perceive that Business education inculcates asocial, amoral, instrumental values that are incongruent with the pro-social values traditionally promulgated by liberal education.

Introduction  
This paper investigates the strategic problems facing a “specialist” liberal arts college that feels market pressure to add degree program in Business Administration. I use the term “specialist” here to denote a college that awards at least 40% of its degrees in the traditional disciplines of the liberal arts (see Breneman, 1990); if the college awards less than 40% of its degrees in the traditional disciplines I will refer to it as a “comprehensive” liberal arts college.

Specialist liberal arts colleges are niche players in the higher education industry of the United States: they account for only 130 of the roughly 4600 Carnegie institutions, and serve less than 1% of America’s 17 million college students (Baker, Baldwin, & Makker, 2012). Many of them feel market pressure to adopt professional degree programs, but they resist. Why do specialist liberal arts colleges resist business programs, and what can be done to integrate business education into the curriculum of such a college?

I present here a historical perspective on the relationship between specialist liberal arts colleges and business education in the US. I compare the history of liberal education to the history of business education, and I argue that there is a conflict between value systems: that American liberal arts colleges have traditionally emphasized the development of “character” and “citizenship”, which conflicts with an amoral, asocial ethos transmitted – or perceived to be transmitted – by business education.

History of Liberal Education. Bruce Kimball (1995) interprets the later history of liberal education and in terms of two ideal types in liberal education. Kimball’s first ideal type, the ars liberale ideal, emphasizes character formation, citizenship, and the skills needed for public life. Kimball’s second ideal type, the liberal-free ideal, emphasizes truth and knowledge – positivistic intellectual development as opposed to the normative character development of the earlier ars liberale ideal.

Kimball argues that the center of gravity of liberal education has swung back and forth between these two ideals like a pendulum. European churchmen in the middle ages originally adopted the ars liberale ideal, but in the 19th century liberal-free ideal became dominant in Western higher education and remains so today. Kimball’s elucidation of the historical ars liberale ideal is good news for business education at a specialized liberal arts college: it implies that liberal education need not be impractical.
History of Higher Education in the United States. The first colleges in the USA, in the 1600s and 1700s, aimed at “Christian character formation” in the artes liberale tradition. During the 1800s, these liberal arts colleges spread across the eastern states and the Midwest. Concurrently in the 19th century, the American economy industrialized and a mass market for higher education emerged. This led, in the later 1800s, to changes in industry structure: universities emerged and departmentalized around newly-formed academic disciplines; “electives” and “majors” were created; the concept of “general education” was devised to retain some element of liberal education. The liberal-free ideal rose to prominence and the artes liberale ideal of character development receded into the background.

These 19th-century changes in higher education were intimately related to the emergence of two new social institutions: the concept of a “middle class” and the concept of a legitimized “profession” (Bledstein, 1976). Sociologically speaking, a social institution is said to be “legitimized” if society at large perceives “. . . congruence between the social values associated with or implied by [an organization’s] activities and the norms of acceptable behavior in the larger social system” (Pfeffer & Dowling, quoted in Khurana, 2007, p 14). A “profession” is an occupation that has been legitimized as a social institution and awarded a special status: in return for mastering a specialized body of knowledge and adhering to an ethic of service to society, professionals may debar non-professionals from offering competing services. Bledstein (1976) argues that, in the later 19th century, higher education evolved symbiotically with the emerging professions: colleges and universities conveyed the requisite body of knowledge, credentialed the graduates, and helped to establish the codes of professional ethics.

During the 20th century, overall demand for higher education continued to grow and demand for professional education boomed. Professional degrees rose from 30% of total degrees before World War I to 60% after World War II (Brint, 2005).

In response to the demand for professional education, some liberal arts colleges became universities, while others became comprehensive liberal arts colleges. By the 1980s, only 211 of the 542 liberal arts colleges in Breneman’s (1990) sample actually awarded 40% or more of their degrees in a traditional liberal art (and thus qualified as “specialist” by my definition). Today only 130 liberal arts colleges still qualify as specialist (Baker, Baldwin, & Makker, 2012).

Specialist liberal arts colleges, almost by definition, are those that have resisted the industry trend towards professional education. Why do they resist? Rakesh Khurana’s (2007) provocative sociological history of business education, From Higher Aims to Hired Hands, suggests that the problem that the problem lies in a clash of value systems.

Khurana’s thesis. Khurana (2007) argues that business educators, like educators in other professional disciplines, set out in the early 20th century to establish business as a profession. Unlike the educators in other professional disciplines, however, business educators failed. Business education boomed but business failed to develop into a profession; it lacks a specialized body of knowledge, restricted access, and an ethic of service to society. Thus today we may speak of a “Certified Public Accountant” or a “licensed Professional Engineer” but there is no ‘Certified Business Administrator” or equivalent designation.

Khurana attributes the failure of business to achieve the status of a profession to the invasion, in the 1970s, of agency theory and the accompanying ethos of shareholder capitalism. These robbed business of a legitimate social purpose and thus derailed the effort to legitimize business administration as a profession. As Abraham Flexner put it, “Modern business . . . does not satisfy the criteria of a profession . . . it aims . . . at its own advantage rather than noble purpose . . . What university school of medicine would dare to define its ideals and results in such terms?” (Flexner, 1930, quoted in Khurana, 2007, p 132).
For an undergraduate business degree program at a specialist liberal arts college, Khurana’s critique of business education implies a serious problem: the lack of a social purpose. The *artes liberale* ideal permits practicality, but requires a social purpose. If, as Khurana argues, business education transmits asocial, amoral, individualistic values, then it has no place in a liberal arts college.

*Business education at a specialist liberal arts college.* Khurana’s thesis suggests that we view the problem in terms of values and cultural “fit”. For a specialist liberal arts college that wishes to address the market demand for practical education while adhering to its pro-social values, I see five generic options:

- Add extracurricular activities to traditional liberal arts degree programs – e.g., add internships or “business boot camps”.
- Add degree programs in the liberal arts that are relevant to the professions – e.g., add Managerial Economics or Leadership.
- Add degree programs in professional/practical fields that are perceived as being aligned with the mission of a liberal arts college – e.g., add education or social work.
- Add conventional degree programs in business administration and attempt to integrate them into the larger college as best they can – i.e., become a comprehensive liberal arts college.
- Create new programs in business or management, attempting to retain fit while meeting the demand for professional education:
  - Develop a program in management rather than business – i.e., use a plan/organize/lead/control framework rather than a functional framework.
  - Develop a program in “non-business administration” – i.e., apply the functional framework of business administration – Finance, Marketing, etc. – to organizations in the not-for-profit sector.

The optimal strategy will vary, but all specialist liberal arts colleges share an opportunity: having no existing business programs, they are free to innovate.

**References**


Major League Leadership: A Case Study of MLB Managers and Players

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Abstract:
Picture yourself on a warm, early, spring morning in Arizona or Florida. The sun is rising and you love the peaceful sounds of the ballpark where only the grounds crew, vendors, and a few select employees (and you) roam the concourse. This is the setting for this case study – Spring Training for Major League Baseball. The purpose of the study was to determine how MLB managers gain trust from the players, what are the most important qualities of a major league manager, what it takes to inspire a diverse team, when to lead by the numbers and when to lead from the heart, where to find energy and strength to manage competing demands, and how to regularly engage their team. Issues to overcome in this study included gaining access, working with gatekeepers, and gaining confidence of the participants. The result is ten leadership practices that transcend the world of baseball and are applicable in sports, business, non-profit, and personal leadership development.
Next Generation Manufacturing & Sustainable Development: Arizona A&D Supply Chain Study

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Abstract:
Green and sustainability practices are increasing in popularity because they are environmentally friendly, and they also offer competitive advantages. Green practices refer to those which are friendly to the environment, and sustainability involves protecting the environment as well as attention to the social and economic impacts of production. All three, green practices, sustainability, and competitive advantage, together are referred to as the triple bottom line. This survey research investigates current industrial practices, with a focus on triple bottom line practices currently implemented in Arizona's aerospace and defense supply chain. Results indicate progress is being made toward implementation of Next Generation Manufacturing (NGM) strategies.
Open Educational Resources Workshop – A Case for Openness in Education

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Abstract:
College textbooks have become nearly unaffordable to many students. From 1986 to 2004, the price of the average textbook increased 186%. During this same period overall consumer prices grew by just 72%. For the 2003-04 academic year, on average, a full-time student at a four-year institution paid $898 for textbooks, or about 26% of the cost of tuition and fees. Students attending two-year colleges paid slightly less, $886, but their textbook costs amounted to nearly 75% of the cost of tuition and fees at their schools (United States Government Accountability Office, 2005). In a 2011 survey of 1,905 undergraduate students from 13 campuses, 70% of the students stated that at least once they had not purchased a required textbook for a course because the price was too high. One solution to the problem of rapidly rising textbook prices is for authors and creators of educational materials to choose to make their materials openly accessible and free for teachers and students to use. Such open and free educational materials are often being referred to as “Open Educational Resources” or “OER.”

Purposes of Workshop Session

a) To acquaint attendees with the concept of Open Educational Resources and Creative Commons Licensing
b) To show examples of resources already available and to demonstrate for attendees how to find and evaluate such materials
c) To allow attendees to consider and share how open educational resources might be used by them and by their institutions to improve the educational experiences for students and teachers.
The Motivational Power Of Incentive Travel: The Participant’s Perspective

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Abstract:
This paper reports the results of a survey given to 1003 participants who were eligible to receive travel incentives. Both recipients of the incentive (714) and non-recipients (289) replied to questions regarding what makes a travel incentive motivating, what could make the incentive more motivating, and how travel’s motivational appeal compares to other incentives offered by companies. In addition, participants were asked to ask how they felt about the firm offering these incentives.

Introduction
Incentive travel can be defined as “exceptional travel experiences to motivate or recognize superior performance” (IRF, 2007, pg. 1). This market was $13.4 Billion US in 2006 and when motivational meetings and special events are included, this number rises to $77.1B (IRF, 2007). Past research on sales force motivation has shown that travel is a more effective motivator than cash and merchandise but this research fails to examine the specific elements of travel that make it motivating (Caballero, 1988). While other research has asked sales person’s opinions of the sales program and for their preferences for rewards (e.g. Beltramini & Evans, 1988), the author believes that this is the first paper that actually asks the recipients of travel incentives what it is that makes this incentive motivating. This paper is unique in the sense that it addresses the viewpoint of recipients of incentive travel rather than the opinions of those who provide these incentives. This provides an unbiased viewpoint on how travel truly motivates employees.

Method
Invitations were sent to 120,869 potential participants. Of those asked, 24,669 attempted to qualify by answering screening questions. Participants were allowed to continue with the survey if a) the potential participant had been eligible to earn travel within the last 5 years, b) an employee or dealer/distributor of the program sponsor, c) was the person to whom the travel was rewarded, and d) the participant was 25 years of age or older. A total of 1003 participants passed through all of the screening questions and completed the survey.

Overall motivational impact
In response to the question: “In general terms, how motivated are you to earn the current travel award offered?” nearly 77% of respondents were either motivated or extremely motivated with only 1% responding that they were not at all motivated by the potential to earn travel. Interestingly, sales people were more motivated by travel than non-sales employees, Tukey HSD p < .05. This may be a result of familiarity with incentive travel.

The question of overall motivation level was further analyzed by splitting responses between those who had earned travel and those who had not. Unsurprisingly, earners found travel more motivating than non-earners, t(1001) = 4.12, p < .001 and earners reported being more motivated by future opportunities to earn travel. Specifically, both groups were asked “How will your level of motivation change when working towards the next travel award opportunity (assuming the same destination)?” On a 5 point Likert scale with 6 being strongly agree and 2 being strongly disagree, those who had earned an incentive had a higher mean response of 4.62 than those who did not earn the award who had a mean score of 4.47, t(1001) = 2.48, p < .05. This question was asked again but participants were asked to assume a different
destination. The pattern here was repeated, with earners reporting higher levels of motivation than non-earners, \( t(1001) = 7.4, p < .001 \).

While these results may suggest that non-earners were discouraged, responses to another question tell a different story. A large majority of non-earners (68%) reported that their motivation would either increase or significantly increase while less than 3% said that it would decrease or significantly decrease, \( \chi^2(4) = 467.6, p < .001 \). This suggests that even when employees do not qualify for a travel event, they remain motivated to earn it in the future.

Elements of travel
Respondents said that the recognition value of travel is more important than the other aspects of travel that were asked about. Over 85% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement regarding travel making them feel recognized. This was significantly higher than those responding positively to the other aspects of incentive travel. It was more motivational than the opportunity to spend time with executives, \( t(1001) = 13.7, p < .001 \), relationships with peers \( t(1001) = 7.9, p < .001 \), and the ability to experience a unique experience \( t(1001) = 8.6, p < .001 \).

The survey went on to ask participants how incentive travel could be improved to make travel more attractive to them. Respondents said that having more destination choices (44.5%) and increased leisure time (44.9%) are the items that would most improve motivation among participants in incentive travel programs.

Attitudes towards sponsor
The survey asked participants a number of questions regarding their attitude towards the company offering incentives and the people who earned them. Non-recipients were asked to agree or disagree with the statement “I am envious of the people earning the award.” Twenty-nine percent agreed or strongly agreed with that statement, while 42% disagreed or strongly disagreed, \( t(287) = 3.1, p < .01 \). Interestingly, envy was not strongly correlated with the desire to work towards receipt of the incentive in the future. The correlation between envy and the level of motivation reported was .13 for the same destination and .14 for a different destination. Although statistically significant, \( p \approx .02 \) for both, they do not rise to the level of practical significance. This implies that social comparison is not driving employees to work harder to earn travel.

Non-earners were also asked to agree or disagree with the following statement: “It seems to be the same people earning the travel each year”. While not an overwhelmingly large number, 36% of non-earners stated some level of agreement. This response was also not significantly correlated with a willingness to work harder in the future which means that while there may be some perception of it always being the same winners, that belief does not significantly decrease the motivation to earn travel in the future. The responses to this question are somewhat correlated with the feelings of envy, \( \rho(289) = .28, p < .001 \) which suggests that feelings of envy may be driven by the perception that the same people win every time.

Finally, non-earners were asked how they felt about the company who provided the opportunity to earn travel. Only 9% of non-earners felt bitter towards the company and 11% reported feeling unfairly treated. This suggests that people feel personal responsibility for not earning the award rather than any ill will towards the firm offering the rewards. This sentiment is consistent with responses to the question regarding engagement with the company. Only 18% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that their overall level of engagement with the company was lower, while 52% disagreed or strongly disagreed with that statement.

Questions regarding attitudes towards the firm were also asked to employees who had earned travel incentives. The results showed that travel incentives are successful in driving positive attitudes towards
the firm that provides them. The highest of these was in response to the question “Earning the travel award made me feel appreciated”, with 88% agreeing or strongly agreeing. The receipt of a travel incentive also increased feelings of loyalty (7.17%), feelings of “belongingness” (76.1%), and feelings of trust (62.4%). These statements suggest that Perceived Organizational Support is increased by the provision of these incentives (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). Given that perceived organizational support increases commitment to a company; this result provides another good reason to provide travel incentives (Shore & Wayne, 1993). The results also showed a high level of correlation between responses to all of the questions, indicating that travel incentives can create an overall positive attitude in employees who earn them.

Conclusion
The results reported in this paper show that travel incentives still deserve a place in a firm’s motivational portfolio, even though there is an apparent increase in stated preference for gift cards and cash. Incentive travel motivates employees by making them feel valued and giving them the opportunity to enjoy a unique experience that they would have a hard time replicating on their own.

Finally, the provision of incentive travel increases positive feelings in those who earn the incentive towards an employee’s firm without running the risk of disappointing those who don’t qualify for travel. Since these positive feelings can increase organizational commitment, this provides another positive reason to keep incentive travel in the firm’s motivational tool kit.

References
Beyond Self-Reporting in Empirical Research: Studying Questions of Interest to the Field of Organizational Behavior in an Experimental Economics Laboratory

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Abstract:
The field of Experimental Economics has been using laboratory experiments to study behavior in an economic context for years. Recently the fields of Supply Chain Management and Marketing have adapted these methods to study behavior in their related contexts. This paper addresses the potential usefulness of conducting research in a experimental economics laboratory to address questions of interest to the field of Organizational Behavior. A brief history of Experimental Economics is offered followed by a description of a potential application of this methodology to study ethical behavior in the laboratory.
Whom to trust? A case study on disciplinary decisions

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Abstract:
Trust is a necessary ingredient for effective relationships in both personal and organizational relationships. This paper examines some of the ramifications for organizational trust when a higher-level management official refuses to honor a commitment made to an employee by the employee’s supervisor. This resulted in the employee being terminated, the filing of a grievance, and a subsequent arbitration hearing. The incident undermined the trust between employees and management, resulted in turmoil in the community and school system, and cost thousands of tax-payer dollars.

Introduction
The organizational setting for this case study is a large public school system. The incident occurred shortly after a new Director of Schools (DOS) was hired for the school district. The preceding Director of Schools had followed a hands-off approach to management. She relied heavily on principals at each school to make personnel decisions. Many issues were played out in the local press, contributing to the impression that administrators of different schools responded inconsistently to similar situations. In addition, financial issues of the schools were receiving scrutiny. As a result, the Board of Education bought the time remaining on the Director’s contract and a new DOS was appointed. The new DOS, a recently retired military officer, did not possess a terminal degree, possessed very little experience in educational organizations, and had no experience as a DOS. During his interview, he stated that he would “get tough” with any problem employees and would quickly respond to any issues confronting the system. The new DOS arrived about three weeks before the fall term started and quickly began to tackle the most pressing problems.

One problem involved a request by an elementary school teacher with 15 years of experience for approval for personal leave to attend an annual out-of-state church convention during the first five days of school. The teacher had received written approval from her principal to attend the conference each of the past five years. However, the most recent request was denied and was signed by her principal and the new DOS. The teacher met with her principal to discuss the issue. The principal advised her that if she attended the conference the principal would issue a written reprimand, stating that she had failed to follow instructions and that any future failure could lead to suspension or termination. The teacher decided to attend the conference without approval. During the week of the conference her absence was brought to the attention of the public and the DOS. Taking questions from the local press, the DOS said he would be waiting at the airport with a termination letter when she returned, and the letter was delivered as stated. The letter included appeal instructions and directions for the teacher not to report back to her school. She was given
30 days to appeal the termination and was provided an opportunity to appear before the full board of education.

The school board approved the termination decision at its September meeting. The grievant requested an opportunity to make a verbal appeal at the November meeting, which was granted. The board upheld the previous decision and the termination became permanent. The professional organization representing professional and non-professional employees in the district filed a grievance in accordance with the Collective Bargaining Agreement (CBA). The grievance moved quickly through the grievance process and was denied at every level. An arbitration hearing was scheduled for May, the last month of the school year.

Arbitration Hearing
The attorney for the school district acted as management’s advocate for this case. He stated that the arbitration case never should have been brought forward and was a waste of taxpayer money. He pointed out that the arbitration literature has consistently held that management has the right and responsibility to direct the work force, and said that if the arbitrator did not uphold this authority in this particular case, chaos would occur.

He presented management’s view that this was an open and shut case. The grievant, a long time employee of the district, requested five days of personal leave to attend a non-school related conference. Her written request was denied in writing by both her principal and the DOS and was returned to her through proper channels. It was evident by her written request that she was aware that her superiors possessed the authority to approve or deny the request. In spite of the written denial she attended the conference. The advocate said that the teacher’s behavior was an undeniable example of gross insubordination that could not be justified. No witnesses were called to testify for management. The advocate requested the grievance be denied.

The union advocate argued that the DOS had severed the bond of trust between the grievant and her principal. The action lowered morale throughout the school district and undermined the trust of all school district employees. Furthermore, the action was evidence of a hostile work environment that had lowered employee morale to the point that employees were unable to perform their work at the highest level.

The grievant appeared as the only witness for the union. She stated she had attended the church conference for the past six years and served as the second highest elected official in the organization. The conference brought in educational experts during three half days and a primary focus was on the latest classroom teaching methods, unrelated to religion. She always attended the workshops and gained a wealth of teaching method materials for her classroom. She had taught under the same principal for the past three years and knew him to be a reliable, trustworthy person. He had told her that if she went to the conference he would have to discipline her for insubordination. She asked what the discipline would be and he stated that it would be more than just a verbal admonishment because of the involvement of the new DOS. Later in the day, after speaking with the Human Resources Manager, he told the teacher the discipline would be a written reprimand in the form of a letter. The letter would state that further insubordinate behavior could lead to a suspension or termination. She decided that this would not deter her from attending the conference. She testified that she had never received a disciplinary action in her 15 years of employment with the district and felt stressed by the fact she was putting both herself and her principal in a bad position.

In closing remarks the union stated that the grievant had been treated in an arbitrary, unfair and capricious manner. She and her family had been embarrassed in her church and community because the personnel action had been played out in the press and was not handled discretely. Her professional career been
ruined by the action and her personal reputation had been tarnished. It was requested the grievance be sustained.

The testimony and information summarized above will be used by the arbitrator as he prepares his written decision. Your input is requested to provide additional insight concerning how to weigh the evidence and testimony, and to help answer the following questions.

Teaching Notes and Discussion Questions
This case study provides supplementary material for textbooks and lectures on how management officials in both public and private sectors can better manage the difficult task of disciplining employees. The case study is appropriate for college and university undergraduate and graduate classes in the areas of management, industrial psychology, labor-management relations, organizational behavior, etc. It would also be valuable for management and union officials.

Many bargaining agreements contain a Management Rights section. The following is typical of what is often agreed upon by the negotiators.

The right to hire and discharge employees and the management of all equipment, buildings, vehicles, offices, and all other departments, and all properties is reserved by the Company and shall be vested exclusively in the Company. The Company shall have the right to determine how many employees it will employ or retain, together with the right to exercise full control of all work assignments and discipline in the interest of proper service and production and the conduct of its business except as expressly restricted in this contract.

Termination or separation of an employee is a serious decision for all involved. The person terminated no longer exists in the organization and in many cases finds it difficult to gain other meaningful employment. Arbitrators give close attention to termination decisions. Points of special interest in this case include the long-time service of the employee and the fact the action was played out in the news media.

Discussion questions
1. Did the principal betray his subordinate’s trust?
2. Did the DOS place the principal in an embarrassing and untenable position with other teachers in the school? Explain.
3. Trust is often identified as a necessary ingredient in establishing and promoting effective relationships. Do you agree or disagree? Explain.
4. The new DOS came into the position a very short time prior to the start of the school year. Was he wise to get involved in leave approval so quickly? Discuss why or why not.
5. Proponents of alternative dispute resolution, which includes arbitration, maintain that it is quicker and less expensive than solving disputes through the court system. This termination decision was affirmed in September and the arbitration hearing did not occur until May. Does the time lag support this argument?
6. Should the grievant’s years of service and the fact that she had no previous disciplinary record have been taken into consideration by management in the termination decision?
Embracing Learning in a Culture of Service: A University Case

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Abstract:
The study details the active engagement of scholars and community partners to develop a campus-wide service learning initiative in a university recognized for community service.

Introduction
The research plan involves preparing an organizational change case study about one university’s introduction of service learning into its academic practice. The university’s history is one of lengthy and intense community service, but little, if any, measured service learning. The incubator opportunity will assist the researcher, who has an interest in the case, to develop the correct methodology for researching and presenting the case. The unit of analysis is the university’s culture regarding community service and service learning.

Among the procedural questions that will be addressed are:

• Which type of case is appropriate given the situation: explanatory or descriptive?
• What approaches to triangulation are best suited to the single case being researched?
• What are the recommended approaches to assuring construct validity?

The presentation will include:
1. A brief history of the organization/institution. – 3 minutes
2. The institution’s current status in community service and the development of its interest in service learning – 3 minutes
3. A description of the key administrators involved in both areas – 2 minutes
4. A timeline of activities leading to the introduction of service learning – 3 minutes
5. Description and dissemination of data-gathering instruments, procedures – 4 minutes
6. A researcher-facilitated question and answer period – 15 minutes
   a. types of cases – 5 minutes
   b. triangulation – 7 minutes
      i. data gathering instruments/procedures
   c. construct validity – 3 minutes

Literature Review
Construct validity – Yin (1994)
Format of the case (Yin, 1994; Tellis, 1997):

1. Case study protocol
2. Required skills
3. Application of recommended procedures
   a. Overview of project
   b. Field procedures
   c. Case study questions
   d. Guide for case study report (outline and format)
4. Conduct the case study, prepare data collection, distribute questionnaire, conduct interviews
   a. Types of evidence
5. Analyze case study evidence
6. Develop Conclusions, recommendations, and implications based on the evidence
7. Summary
A Contrarian View of Synergy: Successful Merger and Acquisition Activity Based on the Military Tactics of COIN

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Abstract:
Merger and acquisition (M&A) activity is a research area where consensus has yet to be reached. What is clear is that at least half of all M&A activity is viewed as unsuccessful. One of the most-cited reasons for M&A activity is the concept of synergy. A contrarian perspective is presented that contends synergy is unrealizable without one firm dominating the other and imposing its management control. We propose that the most effective method of realizing intended benefits of mergers and acquisitions is the utilization of counterinsurgency (COIN) tactics as employed by the United States military and others.

This paper proposes that synergy is in fact unrealizable without one firm dominating the other and imposing its management control. We propose that the most effective method of realizing intended benefits of mergers and acquisitions (hereafter referred to as acquisitions) is the utilization of counterinsurgency tactics (COIN) as employed by the United States military and others.

The COIN model is viewed through a lens that reveals similar issues between problems encountered by occupying military forces and firms acquiring others. COIN emphasizes the need to win the hearts, minds, and acquiescence of the population. Acquisition research emphasizes the need of the dominant firm to overcome people problems with the acquired firm if antecedents are to be achieved. The COIN expert employed for this proposal is Kilcullen (2006). While all of Kilcullen’s (2006) points are not applicable to acquisition integration, several are relevant to overcoming these people problems.

Exploring COIN
Kilcullen defines counterinsurgency as “a competition with the insurgent for the right and the ability to win the hearts, minds and acquiescence of the population” (2006; p. 29). While the employees of target firms are rarely referred to as insurgents, it is clear that acquiring firms face some of the same challenges in integrating operations as occupying military forces face. Although Kilcullen’s (2006) twenty-eight points do not map corporate needs, such as the need for Combat Service Support, the key themes serve as a checklist that any acquisition team would do well to follow if they hope to succeed in their efforts. Themes include preparation, first impressions (the golden hour), continuing actions (groundhog day), and completion (getting short) are all phases that must be mastered for a successful transition.

Key points of Kilcullen’s (2006) recommendations include: Know your turf (economy, history, and culture), diagnose the problems (what makes people tick, what are the issues that worry people), organize for intelligence, prepare for cross functional operations, find a “cultural advisor,” have a game plan ready to execute day one, maintain a strong presence, build trusted networks, work to extend your influence, seek early victories, avoid backsliding, remember that the world (or at least other stakeholders in the industry) is watching, regularly analyze the situation and make adjustments, work to blend cultures, and, finally, keep the initiative (control the environment). Serious dangers include isolation from the local...
populace (McNeil, 2009), lack of security (Burton & Nagl, 2008), failure to include the local populace in planning and implementation stages, and lack of coalition building. The findings of this new research led to the updated US Army/Marines Counterinsurgency Field Manual (Nagl et. al. 2008) which outlines the strategy and implementation techniques that have come to be known as the Petraeus doctrine.

Key issues to be managed include comprehending the target’s basic business operation and source of competitive advantage, melding the financial control systems and information technology assets, and delving into the corporate culture of the target firm in pursuit of real understanding. As Gutknecht and Keys (1993) also point to the importance of people issues such as maintain employee morale after the acquisition, integrating conflicting organizational values, structures, climates, and roles. One methodology for this integration is COIN. Based on his personal experience and research, Kilcullen’s (2006) COIN fundamentals are most relevant when considering utilizing COIN in firm to firm acquisitions. We have modified one of Kilcullen’s models, the three pillars of counterinsurgency and modified it for use in an acquisition scenario.

Conclusion
While synergies may be apparent on paper when strategists formulate a course of action, those synergies are rarely evident to all the stakeholders involved. This is especially true among the employees in the target organization where uncertainty is often the source of negative rumors and speculation. In this environment, the most able employees often leave the organization for what they perceive as either better or more stable opportunities. Employees without such options often become entrenched and begin a counterinsurgency as they attempt to hold on to the status quo and resist change. The US Military faces an analogous situation when confronted by insurgents. With recent actions in Iraq and Afghanistan the military has been forced to revisit counterinsurgency and update their models. The resulting strategy, known as the Petraeus doctrine has been recognized as an improvement over previous counterinsurgency efforts and led to greater success for the US military. While no model can be perfect in such a chaotic and epistemological scenario, the updated military strategy has demonstrated improved results. As such, we have recommended that a modified version of the military model be developed to aid managers attempting to consolidate an acquisition. The model that we have described, if properly implemented, will make it clear to individuals where they stand with the organization, inform them about both their future and the future of the organization, and make it clear to external stakeholders the direction the merged organization will take.

References
The Job Hopper Construct

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Abstract:
The purpose of this research is to understand the behavior of people who change jobs frequently, or job hoppers. Based on literature reviews, we have determined that the behavior of job hoppers hasn’t been studied previously. This paper is an idea incubator, and will lead to the development of the construct of job hoppers. Our initial observations are that although managers are reluctant to hire job hoppers, their performance often exceeds those who have longer tenure in their previous job positions. Once the construct has been developed, it is expected that there will be articles guiding employers on whether to hire or not hire job hoppers as well as articles focusing on whether job hopping is a wise career development strategy from the perspective of the employee.
Learning to “Turn and Face the Strain” of Change

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Abstract:
Organizations of all sizes face dire challenges that demand resilience, especially given the rapid pace of change in recent years. New and emerging leaders must have the tenacity to continue their good work despite economic, social, political and organizational constraints that can derail even the most committed leaders and followers. Resilience, or the capacity to “bounce back” from adversity and change, seems to be the factor that makes or breaks individuals, groups, and organizations. In organizational leadership contexts, resilience has also been defined as “constructive reaction to disappointment and failure” (Friedman, 2007, p. 64). However, questions remain as to how we foster it in leaders, and how we encourage it in organizations.

After sharing seminal research on resilience at the individual and organizational levels, this panel will begin a dialogue to generate ideas for practical applications of resilience research and models in leadership development and leadership education curriculum. We also hope that this workshop will encourage new research in the area of leader resilience and change. Linkages from multiple sources, disciplines, and frameworks will allow for synthesis and actionable strategies from this session.

Therefore, we must examine where resilience emanates from and how to encourage more of it. This examination must take into account that many leadership theories and models do not address resilience as a necessary or desirable leadership quality. Many would-be leaders take on leadership roles armed with plenty of positive leadership theories and models but they are not necessarily prepared for how hard it is to stay true to these leadership theories and models. Likewise, they may not be prepared for the rejection, disappointment, and setbacks they are sure to encounter. Conversely, change in the form or rapid organizational growth and increased performance can also bring on unexpected feeling of nostalgia and sadness that come with thoughts of simpler times. As noted workplace psychologist, Harry Levinson stated, “All change is loss and all loss must be mourned”.

During this session we will ask such questions as: How does hardy, resilient individual level leadership ultimately make an organization resilient? What can organizations do to develop resilient leaders and cultures? How does your organization or leadership curriculum address resilience as an aspect of organizational learning and performance?
Social Entrepreneurship Education as Fourth-Level Prosocial Leadership: Teach Those Who Teach a Village to Raise Fish

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Abstract:
Prosocial leadership behavior (PSLB) has roots in prosocial behavior, prosocial organizational behavior, socially responsible behaviors (SRB), organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), servant leadership, positive organizational behavior (POB), and prosocial leadership (PSL). PSLBs are learned, enduring, effective behaviors that help the leader, the organization, and others. PSLB has four levels: Give a man a fish. Teach a man to fish. Teach a village to raise fish. Teach those who teach the village to raise fish.
The Barriers and Benefits of Change: Systems and Technological Paradigms

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Abstract:
This panel discussion will offer multiple perspectives on embracing change in both academic and business environments. Panelists will discuss change from dynamical systems, whole systems, and social networking perspectives. Theories, models, and frameworks of change will be covered as needed to enhance discussion. Barriers, behaviors, and benefits of change will be discussed in each of these paradigms. Panelists will appreciate questions and interaction is encouraged. Change is essential -- it's time to embrace it.
Enhancing the Use of Consequence Analysis in the Decision Making Process

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Abstract:
It seems as if many decision makers have lost track of the notion that they make decisions that have consequences and there needs to be much more serious and comprehensive analysis of these consequences before final decisions are made. This paper proposes a methodology to be used across a five-step decision making process that explains how consequence analysis could be utilized in order to improve the decision making process. Answers to what, when, and where questions about consequence analysis being used in the five-step decision making is the approach taken to explain the methodology in this paper.

Introduction
The hypothetical proposal to be advanced in this paper is that the decision making process can be positively impacted and improved by increasing the systematic use of consequence analysis and expanding its internal scope across and within the decision making process steps. Clearly, many people have lost sight of the simple linear, sequential relationship which progresses as follows: decisions require actions that in turn have consequences and these consequences are generally viewed as beneficial or costly to the decision maker and other people affected or impacted by the decision. Consequences attempt to indicate the aftermath effects of a decision put into current or future action. The notions of goals, objectives, or desired outcomes are different than the notion of consequences. They reflect what the decision is expected to achieve in some future realm of thinking. As a general classification, consequences are usually identified as positive or negative. It is incumbent upon the decision maker to identify both sides of a decision which recognizes that any ethical decision produces both positive consequences for some decision recipients as well as negative consequences for other recipients. In other words, it is highly unlikely that any decisions will result in producing only positive consequences or only negative consequences for all the decision makers or recipients of the decision.

There are more refined and specific consequence distinctions the decision maker could make. Harris (2002) suggests that three types of consequences be identified so that more realistic assessments of benefits and costs can be made. His first type assesses both direct and indirect consequences. When a decision is made it carries direct consequences for everyone impacted by the decision, but there are usually secondary effects or indirect consequences. The decision sets in motion a chain of consequences or events that ultimately will produce consequences in further aftermath situations.

His second type of consequence assesses physical consequences and the more allusive assessment of social consequences. A physical consequence of a decision is what making the decision might cost, how long it might take, what it might save, what resources are needed, etc. Assessing social consequences is much harder and more complicated when it comes to assessing people’s sense of safety, increased or reduced stress, or job satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

His final type of consequence assesses short-term and long-term consequences. Getting past the short-term perspective that motivates many decision makers is behind the desire to also have long-term consequences assessed.
Another type of consequence assesses decision failure. Harvey and his colleagues (1997) suggest that there are two types of solution failure-related consequences. One assesses the negative impact of implementation failure of a solution and the other assesses the negative failure effects of the solution itself.

The decision maker now has to decide from the following list of consequences: positive and negative, direct and indirect, physical and social, short-term and long-term and the two failure-mode consequences.

Three things remain as to what conducting a consequence analysis ought to include besides determining what types of consequences to assess. The first item relates to the decision rule to be made at the end of a consequence analysis. Some kind of final evaluation of all the consequence feedback information has to be made and this role is taken on by the decision maker utilizing the decision rule at the end of a consequence analysis which is represented by either pursuing a maximization, minimization, or combinational format.

The maximization decision rule implies the decision maker decided to focus on the major positive consequences across any of the initially derived consequence categories and intends to see mainly the positive benefits. The minimization decision rule implies that there are a host of major negative consequences mounting up across the various categories of consequences and they overshadow the positive consequences. The combinational decision rule represents a decision where both some major positive consequences are visible and at the same time, some major negative consequences are also quite visible.

What kind of form should the analysis take is the second thing to consider. The posture is to conduct an “As Is Consequence Analysis” in which nothing is changed regarding the central issues, boundaries, resources, environmental context, organizational rules and policies, implementation plans, etc. as the decision is perceived to be put into action.

A different thinking style is the third thing needed to conduct a successful consequence analysis. Since a decision is usually made to cause a change in action sometime in the future and the decision maker in conducting a consequence analysis before deciding to actually install or put that particular decision candidate into live action, there are very few actual consequences taking place. The thinking required to make assessments of these future action consequences will therefore, have to be extended, assumption-based, boundary-pushing, inspirational, provisional, anticipatory, prophetic, hypothesizing, and futuristically exploratory.

What then, in a summary fashion, represent the essential components of performing a consequence analysis? First off, is the need to have people who are comfortable and talented in using the futuristically anticipatory thinking styles previously mentioned. They will need this creative thinking energy to then consider a wide range of different types of consequences that are really germane and central to the decision environment in which the consequence analysis is being assessed. Holding steady the parameter of any potential decision in order to conduct an “As Is Consequence Analysis” and finalizing the analysis with a decision rule and understanding what to do if either the maximization, minimization, or combinational decision rule is chosen.

To be fully inclusive in its use in the decision making process, consequence analysis has to be applied within each of the five major process steps, not just the last two solution-related process steps. This means that the consequences that could be attributable to the decision actions coming from each process step have to be analyzed and a final decision (generated by the consequence analysis decision rule) is made as to whether or not that process step’s final decision action is the best. Consequence analysis should therefore be applied to the following decision making process steps: 1) situational analysis, 2) challenge
framing and causal analysis, 3) generate solution ideas, 4) choosing a solution set, and 5) implementation and aftermath planning.

Because each decision making process step requires a final decision about what will constitute the final output of that step which then becomes the input into the next sequentially related decision making process step, numerous and rather important decisions are being made throughout the entire decision making process. And because each step is linked linearly and sequentially to the next-in-line process step, faulty information dealt with in one of the earlier steps can create damaging consequences within the remaining process steps. Therefore, and given a desire to negate the premise of “garbage in, garbage out” across the decision making process steps, a comprehensive consequence analysis should take place in each process step and consider the consequences of the final output issue in the respective step.

In summary, the use of consequence analysis within and across all five decision making process steps has been advocated as a way to improve decision making at a managerial and strategic level. Decision making is a process that creates decisions and decisions impose consequences. This has been a look at what analyzing these consequences might contribute to the decision making process.

References
References will be made available upon request.
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Abstract: 
This conceptual article examines the absence of the customer-centric, consumer knowledge management (CKM) tool within the marketing mix rather than as an instrumental strategic partner for a competitive advantage. With dynamic technology changing the marketing model and information systems an important part of customer relationship management (CRM), organizations are still not properly taking advantage of the tools, with $220 billion of expenditures in technologies. Possible causes noted are within the realms of organizational psychology, the cultural idiosyncrasies, management skepticism, and technical opportunism, via prior research.
Abstract:
It is not enough to change for the sake of changing. Companies and organizations change for a variety of reasons, but it is always to replace the current situation. Change occurs because something is wrong or leadership desires a change in a goal, but change must be sustained to make a difference. In today's business environment, the pace of change within organizations is frequent. Many leaders tasked with change management acquire their philosophical foundation while in higher education. Universities do not always provide the best example of a change management model. Newman (2012) wrote in a study of universities that change sustainability has to start with universities at the ground level and across all organizations within the university. The study found that most universities taught and practiced sustainability on the academic level but not with the support staff such as food service and maintenance. Universities that teach change management should be able to look at themselves as the model. When universities do not practice change management from the top down it is a bad example (Newman, 2012).

Leadership
Just as a baseball team needs a manager or a football team needs a coach, an organization needs a leader. Leaders can be found in communities, churches, and homes. The topic of leadership has been studied for many years, and researchers have used behavior and the ability of leaders to motivate workforces to be the definition of a good leader (Yukl, 2012). The study of leadership is not a new concept. Burns (1978) studied transformational leadership and how leaders understood employees, and employees understood their leaders. Burns broke down leadership into two categories: a) transactional leaders and b) transforming leaders. Transactional leaders lead in a tradeoff scenario where a favor is given for a favor.

The study of leadership is about the influence of leadership (Yukl, 1998). Transformational leadership practice includes determining and motivating constituent higher level desires in the pursuit of mutual systemic goals. “In this view, leaders exchange promises of rewards and benefits to subordinates for the subordinates’ fulfillment of agreements with the leader” (Bass, 1990, p. 53). Transformational leadership increases employee motivation and commitment through a values-based process (Burns et al., 1978). Transforming leadership “occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality” (Burns, 1995, p. 101).
Through inspiring trust, loyalty, admiration and respect, transformational leadership motivates followers (Yukl, 1998). Central to Burns theory of transformational leadership is Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (1970). Transformational leadership arouses the interest of followers to identify and reach for their own self-actualization.

When change management is complete and employees have transitioned to different roles and goals, and the organization landscape employees become accustom to seeing is different, there needs to be something in place to drive continued success. Knowledge of organization abilities and talents is a good starting point for any organizational leader to set the ground work to succeed. Leadership has to be able to recognize the organizational intelligence to ensure placing employees where they will be successful.
(Jabar, et al., 2011). Knowing what makes employees happy is the key to having them be productive, and leaders need to understand what makes employees happy. Mone, Eisinger, Guggenheim, Price, and Stine (2011) suggested a thoughtful, honest attempt at engaging employees to determine their roadblocks and successes. Employee engagement gives a voice to employees and options to leaders trying to make change a success.

Change Management
Change management activities can be as simple as moving employees around within organizations or as drastic as downsizing the workforce. The stress of change uncertainty can cause employee health and physiological problems (Feuerhahn, Kühnel, & Kudielka, 2012). Changes in organizations can cause an increase in workload due to employee reductions. Staff reductions could mean increased work for the remaining employees leading to many costs and lost production due to overwork of remaining employees. Studies have shown increased health care cost contributed to higher workloads at work leading to stress (Györkös, Becker, Massoudi, de Bruin, & Rossier, 2012). Change management has been an effective tool of change for many cost initiatives. However, if done incorrectly or change too often it can be counterproductive and be a cost instead of a benefit.

Organization change is often stressful. Lower-level employees are anxious about unknown transition-resulting outcomes, and leadership is tasked with change success. Smollan (2011) examined the research on leadership in times of change and showed at leadership felt the stress of change out of frustration from their direct reports resisting the change. In a study to reduce anxiety for everybody involved communication and input into the change helps ease the anxiety and stress felt by everybody involved (Smollan et al., 2011)

Sustainability
The process of recognizing change, determining how the change will occur, to be enacted and implementing the change for success, is hard enough; but sustaining the success is the ultimate goal. Employees are an influential ingredient in the success of change, so the employee is one of the key ingredients for a recipe for sustaining success. Company executives can look to incentives such as social media time, flexible scheduling, and worker friendly work environments to keep employees happy (Eccles, Perkins, & Serafeim, 2012).

After an organizational change, leadership sets the organization and the leaders place the employees. The change is in full swing but what happens when some of the key retained employees leave? A study by Ratna & Chawla (2012) explored 107 employees from random companies to determine the methods for retaining employees. Effective productive employees like to be aware of changes and included in changes and for open communication during organizational changes Ratna & Chawla, 2012). Transformational leaders take the vision statement, identify employee’s needs and work towards success of the vision. Transformational leaders give as much as they get from the trade off with the employee building a trust the employee can relate to and share in the common goal of organization success.

Conclusion
Leadership from a systems perspective is about energizing followers to pursue a better mutual goal than they had individually thought possible. It is about creating and communicating in understandable language a values-based web large enough to encompass the various perceptions and interests of followers, but focused enough to direct all their energies in pursuit of a common cause. The leader’s communication of this mutually shared understanding and meaning, and the follower’s repeat communication of the same, furthers the system’s web and ability to impact the organization as it encompasses the organization to promote organization understanding and motivate the achievement of mutual goals. The systemic understanding of a leadership paradigm is most important as values are later practiced in the context of the organization.
References

Understanding Modular Learning: Developing a Strategic Plan to Embrace Change

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Abstract:
The purpose of this descriptive paper is to research information related to understanding modular learning and implementing it so faculty members embrace the change. The review of literature will address questions including: What is the educational meaning of modular learning? How does modular learning fit into educational pedagogy? What are the challenges and benefits of creating this learning environment? What best practices exist for informing and preparing faculty members to implement and embrace modular learning?
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Introduction
This proposal suggests a semester long multipart project that offers a realistic experiential simulation that allows students to obtain a foundation in management while learning and practicing essential managerial tasks. This session will give a brief overview of the semester project but will focus on the exercise used to introduce the semester project. The opening exercise encourages participants (students) to accept that doing things differently is helpful, realistic and should be the basis for the project.

Making small shifts in the structure of assignments, feedback loops, and the inclusion of choice make the classroom a reasonable and realistic simulation of what they can expect at work. Students are challenged to abandon their expectations of how the class “should” be structured and how the professor “should” facilitate the course. The intent of this project is to socialize students into the profession of management and cause them to struggle as students so the on-the-job struggle can be minimized.

Management scholars have demonstrated an increased interest in exploring applied capabilities of effective managers and it is widely agreed that being an effective manager requires more than conceptual knowledge (Baldwin et al 2011). Some studies show that less than 25% of managers regularly exhibit the fundamentals of effective management (Tulgan, 2007; Baldwin et al, 2011). Applied management knowledge results from experience much more than conceptual knowledge (McDaniel, Schmidt, & Hunter, 1988; Quinones, Ford, & Teachout, 1995; Baldwin et al, 2011).

If we want to increase the action potential of knowledge we need to change something in our teaching (Blood, 2006). Implementing a project such as recommended in this proposal is a solution to improve the ability of the management educator to change something in their teaching. Project that demand involvement and rigorous engagement and have been found to be an invaluable pedagogical tool that aides in achieving learning outcomes (Devasagayam, Johns-Masten, & McCollum, 2012). Experiential learning is often misunderstood as a set of tools and techniques missing the point that experiential learning is above all else a philosophy of learning (Dewey, 1938; Kolb & Kolb, 2005).

Kolb and Kolb (2005) establish these nine educational principles for the creation of learning spaces:

1) Respect for learners and their experience
2) Begin learning with the learner’s experience of the subject matter
3) Creating and holding hospitable spaces for learning
4) Make space for conversational learning
5) Making space for development of expertise
6) Making spaces for acting and reflecting
7) Making spaces for feeling and thinking
8) Making space for inside-out learning
9) Making space for learners to take charge of their own learning

I propose a tenth principle appropriate for the management classroom:

10) Treat them like employees

Managerial tacit knowledge is created in the intimacy of lived experience and combined with direct instruction may lead to a performance advantage (Baumard, 1999; Sternberg et al, 2000; Armstrong &
Mahmud, 2008). The best work spaces are full emersion experiences and we should expect no less from
of learning spaces. Management educators must create programs that merge learning and practice.

The Session
The session will simulate how the first hour of the class for a new term opens. After welcomes and brief
introductions the class is challenged to discuss how well college prepares them for work and how they
challenge themselves to prepare for their careers. Once attention is focused on this caricature the class
will be introduced to the changes in the class structure, performance requirements, feedback and
evaluation methodology that will be used in this course.

The class is transitioned into a discussion about preconceived notions, bias, and expectations about future
events based on past experience. Students are encouraged to challenge the efficacy of these cognitive
devices in obtaining quality outcomes and asked to consider why they are so pervasive in the face of
being so ineffective. Several exercises will be utilized. These exercises will demonstrate how we can be
wrong in small but profound ways. It might be that we are making similar errors in the design and
structure of the classroom. Even the expert can grow!

The case for creating a classroom that more closely approximates the environment graduates will inhabit
upon graduation would provide our students with advantages they and employers will find useful.
Extending the learning space to include a more robust realism that demands more active participation
from students, creates the conditions for more consequential outcomes, and demands more face to face
interaction between students and faculty.

Instructions for Presenting the Exercise
The session requires a projector with sound and a white board or pad and easel. The session is designed to
be facilitated in thirty minutes, but forty-five would be ideal. The session can accommodate as many
participants as might attend but twenty-five to thirty would be ideal. The exercise is targeted to an
undergraduate class and the instructor, in determining to use the exercise, would need to individually
assess how many students they could manage. The instructor would need to make sure they are
comfortable teaching breathing and sitting.

The goals of the session are to provide a series of brief reflection activities that are consistent with the
criteria established by Eyler and Giles (1999) in the service of creating a more realistic learning space:

1. Connect experience and knowledge;
2. Stimulate continuity of reflection before, during, and after the experience;
3. Make sure the context applies to real life situations;
4. Challenging students’ perspectives; and
5. Mentor and coach the students.

The overreaching goal of the session is to encourage management educators to provide a more robust
realism in their classrooms so students can learn and practice skills they will be expected to demonstrate
on the job. It is important to turn the auto-pilot off and put aside preconceived notions and experience-
based expectations and try something new. We should all be mindful about what we are doing and why
we are doing it. Bringle and Hatcher (1999) establish that effective reflection should:

a) make sure course content is linked to expected learning outcomes;
b) offer clear descriptions, expectations, and the assessment criteria;
c) occur regularly so students can develop the capacity for more thoughtful and broader examination of
issues;
d) the instructor must provide feedback to help students learn how to improve their critical analysis and
reflection skills; and
e) Challenge students to explore, clarify, and alter their personal values.

The overall aim of the session is help improve the value, realism and time reflecting on management as a discipline and management as a practice.

References
Abstract:
This study focused on trying to determine if there is a relationship between virtual student learning team personality composition and team performance. The tool used to determine personality types was the Insights Activity tool. The student learning teams were taken from business students who completed the GB500, Business Perspectives course at Kaplan University, using secondary data from the course. A general quantitative research methodology was used for the study with t-Test and ANOVA used for data analysis.
Embracing Change: Risk-Taking in Today’s Business Market

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Abstract:
The author argues that SMEs have lower risk bearing capabilities than larger enterprises and will explore higher risk. How does risk bearing capabilities of SMEs impact local economies? What demographic factors such as education, age, or gender impact risk bearing capabilities? Is there a need for a risk bearing capability scale? This paper will present a literature review on risk taking and change management and describe the research design and methods in preparation for research. To explore this issue, the author proposes developing a risk bearing capability measurement scale for SME to measure risk tolerance and perceptions. Further study and critical analysis is needed, particularly examining SME stability and viability in economic contexts.
Strategic Philosophy in Iraq: An exploratory assessment

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Abstract:
Individual differences associated with strategic decision-making are encapsulated in the phenomenon known as strategic philosophy. Studies have addressed strategic philosophy in various national contexts, but there is a dearth of published research related to the topic in emerging economies, particularly in Iraq. Managers reporting the greatest satisfaction with organizational performance were likely to view strategy from an artistic perspective and to emphasize the importance of strategic consistency over time.

Strategic Philosophy
The strategic making process is intricate, difficult to manage, and long-term. In most organizations, executives have access to an abundance of information as a prelude to decision making. Their strategic choice usually reflects different perspectives on the nature of the strategy and on the way it should be methodically achieved (Beaver, 2003; Kotey & Meredith, 1997; Parnell, 2006; Smircich & Stubbart, 1985). An individual manager may have a different point of view because of diverse experiences and the obligation to perform effectively (Marginson, 2003). Individual differences associated with the approach to strategic decision-making are encapsulated in the phenomenon known as strategic philosophy (Parnell, 2005).

The study
This exploratory analysis investigates strategic philosophy in Iraqi organizations. Three specific facets of strategic philosophy are addressed: (1) Whether strategy is viewed as a science or an art; (2) the significance of viewing strategy as a consistent or flexible process (i.e., rigidity versus flexibility); and, (3) strategy as a top-down or bottom-up process—either an activity that begins at low levels and progresses upwards or one initiated by board and top executive decisions and passed down the management hierarchy.

This study utilized the strategic philosophy developed and validated by Parnell (2005). Managers in Iraqi organizations in various industrial sectors were randomly selected for participation. To execute the study, 120 questionnaires were distributed to managers in person, 105 of which were completed and returned. The sample consisted of 105 Iraqis, 91 of whom hold management positions. The majority of respondents (61%) were males and the mean levels of managerial (19.8 years) and organizational (17.8 years) were
high. Middle (42.9%) and lower level managers (42.0%) were most prominent in the sample. The majority (51.9%) of respondents earned a college degree, while most (34.9%) of the others possessed a high school education. Respondents represented service (46.2%), government (31.1%), and manufacturing (21.7%) sectors. Most (76.2%) organizations represented were Iraqi-owned.

Findings
The positive correlations between the art and science perspectives, between consistency and flexibility, and between top-down and bottom-up approaches suggest that Iraqis might not perceive mutual exclusivity. Put another way, Iraqis might view strategy as both art and science, they can emphasize both consistency and flexibility, and they see no need to choose between either a top-down or a bottom-up approach to strategy development.

Discussion
Several limitations of the present study should be acknowledged. It did not account for variables such as age, gender, organizational experiences, and industrial experiences. Our sample reflects the views of managers across companies in Iraq and it could not be generalized. Further samples and studies that investigate single industries are germane. Nonetheless, the present study provides keen insight on strategic philosophy as an important, but largely under-researched region of the world.

There is value in balancing competing perspectives on strategy. For example, those who take up the “strategy as art” point of view may be unwilling to take into account the value of strategy as a science. Additional research is needed to clarify how the various perspectives can be integrated most effectively.

Top managers who regard strategy as a science often do so because of their education and training; they believe that they are making logical decisions based on the best available evidence at the time. Lower level managers may view strategy as an art because they are not involved directly in the process and are unfamiliar with techniques that have been used by the top management team in formulating the strategy. While the evidence suggests that both perspectives have merit, bridging the gap in practice remains an important concern.

The preference for consistency and flexibility may be a function of management level. Top managers tend to prefer flexibility because they are aware of myriad strategic opportunities available to the firm and believe that they are in the best position to direct the future of the organization because they understand the entire organization and its intricate competitive environment. Middle and lower-level managers tend to prefer consistency because they are charged with the task of executing the strategy. Moreover, they are in constant contact with employees, customers, products and services.

This study also supports the idea that the opposite extremes for these three dimensions of strategy should not necessarily be viewed as such. Strategies that consider the complexity of the business environment should have both artistic and scientific dimensions. In a similar vein, organizations should employ both flexibility and consistency depending on the needs of the market. Top-down and bottom-up approaches can also be complementary and effective.

References


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A Study of the Ability of Teaching and Social Presences of the Community of Inquiry to Explain Motivation and Self-Reported Learning with FTF and Online MBA Students
Herbert Pollard
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United States

Lorrie McGovern
Saint Leo University
United States

Jeffrey Anderson
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Abstract:
Does motivation mediate the impact of teaching and social presences within the community of inquiry model on self-reported learning among face-to-face and online MBA Students?

This study examined the role of motivation as a mediator of the impact of teaching and social presences within the community of inquiry model on self-reported learning among face-to-face and online MBA students. The study surveyed 1472 online MBA students of whom 270 students responded to the survey. In addition, the study surveyed 126 face-to-face MBA students of whom 114 students completed the survey. All students were completing core courses in the MBA program at the same institution.
Herbert Pollard
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United States

Maria Minor
Kaplan University
United States

Andree Swanson
Ashford University
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Abstract:
A change in the Community of Inquiry (COI) framework with an addition of an instructor social presence is suggested. The sample included 137 students in the School of Business of an online university. The independent variables were teaching and social presences from the COI framework and instructor social presence from an instrument developed for this study. Dependent variables were community and the learning environment as measured by the Rovai Classroom Community Scale. Instructor social presence reflected a significant impact on community and the learning environment. A need for more research into the impact of instructor social behavior in online and blended formats exists.

MOOCs—The New Way of Teaching: Is This For You?

Veena Prabhu
Abstract:
Massive Open Online Courses is emerging as the new form of teaching with several Universities espousing it. This professional development workshop aims at not only providing insight into what exactly is MOOCs, its impact on student learning but also and more importantly will focus on whether this form of teaching is for everyone. The aim of this workshop is in no way to undermine online teaching but to specifically address the ramifications of using MOOCs without knowing whether it is the right form of instruction for your students. The aim is to engage the audience and have a rich and productive discussion about what factors must be taken into consideration before espousing MOOCs or refusing to adopt it. Furthermore, short discussions on what kind of online teaching formats can Universities benefit from if they do not wish to adopt MOOCs.
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Abstract:
Discussion boards are at the heart of an asynchronous online learning environment and can have a great impact on the learning experience for the student. Research which contributes to increased effectiveness of virtual discussion boards will result in greater student involvement and success in learning new skills. The study is Phase 1 of a multiphase applied research effort. The results of the data analyzed through information gathered in this phase will become the basis for additional studies on this topic.

Embracing Change in a Developing Community through Leadership

Carolyn Salerno
Abstract:
World communities continue to be challenged with economic poverty, socio-cultural poverty and spiritual poverty. A leadership model that embraces change by opening minds to new ideas and possibilities, assisting in shaping destinies for emerging opportunities, encouraging different thinking, and preparing future generations for the changing knowledge-based environment and emerging network economy will be presented. Previously, this leadership model was presented in a developing country, resulting in their first democratic elections last year. Additional concepts are included in the proposed pilot program; management, entrepreneurship, and academic skills.

Content:
The freedom to learn must never be taken for granted. This freedom is especially important for individuals who have been denied the necessities of life, but have with every generation continued the quest for knowledge and education. A collaborative, personal centered leadership model that offers new knowledge, new ways of thinking, and new ways of looking at situations will be presented. Personal centered collaborative leadership will change the lives of individuals by fulfilling their thirst for knowledge, providing satisfaction in accomplishing goals, searching for educational opportunities, and finding meaning in the lives of their community members.

Challenge: More than 33 % of youth in developed rich countries of the world complete university requirements or tertiary education, compared to just 5% in most of the developing countries (United Nations website, 2011). Among the developing nations, the world’s poorest four billion people are at the Bottom of the Pyramid (BOP) of wealth. Without leadership and educational opportunities, youth in developing nations cannot secure global sustainable economic development. Investments in studies and programs that emphasized the role of education in combating and eradicating these anti-growth
phenomena have been a major focus for several decades, since the World conference on Education For All (EFA) in 1990 and the Dakar World Conference of 2000. However, the emphasis has been on Universal Primary Education (UPE) with many highlights on secondary education attainment for children, women, and girls in particular.

Few intervention programs are designed to improve academic performance among the marginalized youth aged 18-24, with less affluent parents in the developing countries. These marginalized youth are generally unemployed with no opportunity to pursue tertiary education.

In parts of the Bottom of the Pyramid (BOP) countries, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa, parents cannot afford to pay for higher education. Parents might be disillusioned about higher education attainment, because they fail to see the economic advantage, as their adolescent youth are unemployed and still dependent on them after graduation from secondary schools. In other developing communities, families do not have enough to eat and their children do not have the opportunities to go to school, while their affluent counterparts attain tertiary level, obtain higher status jobs, and immigrate to a developed country and prosper.

Pilot Program Proposed: The proposed personal centered leadership model will facilitate an unfolding experiential process that will lead to a deeper understanding of leadership, management, and entrepreneurship and is shaped by purpose and allows for renewal throughout life’s experience. Our mission is to open the minds of youth to new ideas and possibilities through the objectives of leadership, social entrepreneurship, academic performance, and health. These four objectives focus on talents, hopes and dreams, and shape character, discipline, and dedication to make a difference in their community, their economic future, and destinies for whatever opportunities arise and to increase exposure to college choices in the United States. This mission, to prepare youth for exposure to college choices and/or community businesses, will be accomplished through a pilot program using the following conceptual foundations: collaborative leadership, entrepreneurship, educational practices, physical health, spirituality, assessment, and teacher mentoring.

The collaborative and personal centered leadership series consists of four interrelated presentations that lead to the collaborative leadership journey: (a) making meaning of who we are, (b) exploration of inquiring, envisioning, and enacting, (c) discovering the cultural heritage and evolutionary nature of leadership, and (d) synergizing knowledge. In four weeks of experiential instruction, participants will be guided to propose new business opportunities for their communities, explore educational foundations, establish health guidelines, and accept the opportunity to seek college education.

Instructors will facilitate the academic model using an unfolding experiential process that will lead to a deeper understanding of leadership, management, entrepreneurship and health that is shaped by purpose and allows for renewal throughout life’s experience. The series consists of four paths that lead a collaborative and personal leadership journey based on four philosophical perspectives: (a) personal philosophy, (b) cognitive philosophy, (c) social philosophy, and (d) behavioral philosophy. The learner will accomplish the following nine learning objectives aligned with the four program objectives: (a) leadership, (b) social entrepreneurship, (c) academic performance, and (d) health.
1. Identify and articulate their driving interests and passions for their future.
2. Identify the efforts in the program toward personally and socially relevant outcomes and contributions they hope to make and talents that will lead them toward their goal through social entrepreneurship.
3. Use their skills to earn a passing score on the SAT exam.
4. Raise a personal awareness of health, talents, capabilities, passion, and values.
5. Explore the opportunity to use talents, capabilities, and potentials to engage in the new talent-based workforce generation through the construction of knowledge.
6. Explore team support of health and well-being.
7. Understand personal centered leadership and the freedom and opportunity they have to use talents, capabilities, and potentials to engage in the new talent-based workforce generation, to assume a role of leadership, and to influence the renewal of their communities through social entrepreneurship.

8. Raise an awareness of the spiritual, moral, and ethical dimensions of leadership used throughout history through literature.

9. Practice leadership that is: (a) continually learning, (c) service-oriented, (c) radiates positive energy, (d) believes in other people, (e) leads balanced lives, (f) sees life as an adventure, (g) is synergistic, and (h) is self-renewal.

The outcome of the collaborative and personal-centered leadership pilot program will inspire transformational change to assure success in the mission to prepare youth for the fast-paced changes in the socio-cultural and economic future.
Cyber Bullying in Higher Education: Implications and Solutions

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Abstract:
Bullying has extended beyond the schoolyard into online forums in the form of cyberbullying. Cyberbullying is a growing concern due to the effect on its victims. Current studies focus on grades K–12; however, cyberbullying has entered the world of higher education. The focus of this study was to identify the existence of cyberbullying in higher education, reveal the existence of students bullying instructors, and determine its impact. Three hundred forty-six online instructors from the undergraduate, graduate, and doctoral programs at the school of management at a large online university were surveyed. Of the respondents, 33.8% said they had been cyberbullied by students, 4.4% of respondents were unsure, and 61.8% said they had never been cyberbullied by students. Over 60% of the participants did not know what resources were available or felt that there were no resources available to help them should they encounter cyberbullying by students in the online classroom. Results indicated concerns about reporting cyberbullying, ranging from fear of not getting further teaching opportunities to dealing with it and decreasing the rate of student retention.
Adding Voice and Infographics to Your Classroom or Feedback

Andree Swanson
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Paula Zobisch
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Abstract:
Here is an opportunity to learn about adding voice and infographics into your class or student feedback. All of these features are free!
The Future of Emotional Intelligence within the Financial Planning Context

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Abstract: none supplied
Civilized Suicide: Death by Entitlement

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Peter Lorenzi
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Abstract:
What is the government’s role in the creation and distribution of wealth? Since the government does not create wealth, how does it balance its promotion of wealth creation with its responsibility to facilitate the common welfare, which inevitably involves wealth re-distribution? The current American federal budget shows that the primary role of government today is wealth re-distribution, which crowds out voluntary charity and strangles economic growth and wealth in the private sector. This paper examines the role of public leadership to assess and optimize the role of the government in wealth creation and distribution. History and economics show that a government focus on wealth re-distribution is unsustainable.
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Charles Benish  
Bellevue University  
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Abstract:  
The purpose of this workshop is to demonstrate how residential and online, management students can be challenged and motivated to think critically across disciplines by using common pedagogic methodologies, such as multiple choice examinations, essay tests, online videos, and applets in creative, unexpected and uncommon ways. Our examples will address both graduate and undergraduate levels of analysis, focusing on the most complex categories of thinking and feeling in the cognitive and affective domains of Bloom’s taxonomies. Participants will discover and practice multiple teaching approaches and activities that have been demonstrated to excite higher order thinking habits of the mind, including applications in organizational behavior, law, and statistics. In addition to an interactive presentation, the audience will be provided with a handout of means and resources for further implementation. Participants are encouraged to come prepared to share their own expertise and creative practices.
The Use of Large Asynchronous Course Teaching Practices as Education Vehicles Must Provide a Synchronous Element to be Considered a Viable Source of Instruction

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Abstract:
The goal 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. 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.
A Theoretical Analysis of the Tenets of Multinational Enterprise (MNE)

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Abstract:
In this paper, we analyzed the basic tenets of multinational enterprise (MNE) from a theoretical perspective, shedding light on the growing significance of MNEs in today’s global economy. The concept of MNE has been reviewed. We examined two theories of MNE – the trade theory and the transaction cost or internalization theory, in line with emerging global trends. We conclude that no single theory can explain MNE, rather, a combination of theories.
Abstract:
Human Resources (HR) represents not only a typical functional area of business, but also the human capital employed in the business. Hence, HR is charged with creating value for a company and building the competitive advantage. To gain the competitive advantage, a company's talent, i.e., its people, must be managed. Not surprisingly, the talent of its management and workforce is often the primary determinant of a company's success. Talent management, therefore, has become an extremely important strategic goal for organizations. It includes a host of HR processes, from employee entry to exit. Further, the processes must be integrated to demonstrate the value both of the HR function and human capital. Indeed, continual process improvements create challenges for today's evolving organizations. As in so many areas of process management and control, analytics and technology are offered as part of the solution. The premise of this paper, therefore, is to demonstrate how using HR analytics with technology can not only help improve talent management, but also facilitate the integration of the HR processes in the talent management cycle.
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United States  

Peter Lorenzi  
Loyola University Maryland  
United States  

Abstract:  
Antisocial behaviors are addictive, self-destructive, and harmful to others. People who choose to partake in antisocial behaviors rather than prosocial behaviors are negatively affecting themselves and the community around them. Prosocial leaders make prosocial decisions and “do good” by reducing antisocial behaviors. Antisocial behaviors such as the consumption of alcohol and marijuana are ideal candidates for sin taxes, to generate tax revenue while curbing demand. Effective sin tax collections can trump the costs to ignore, admonish, prohibit or prosecute sin. The legalization and taxation of marijuana and other illicit substances and addictive antisocial behaviors is a moral, sustainable prosocial policy decision. Sin taxes curb antisocial demand while generating tax revenues for prosocial activities that serve the common good.
T. J. Wharton
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United States

Abstract:
The use of calibre in teaching and research is demonstrated. calibre is a free, comprehensive e-book management system. Its features include, e-book library conversion and management, syncing to e-book readers, a comprehensive e-book reader, download and conversion of news sources to e-book format, online access to e-book collections, and online links to e-book sellers with price comparisons. Although calibre is typically used for its news-source retrieval and e-book management abilities, its diversity and search capabilities makes calibre a valuable tool for use in teaching and research. This presentation highlights, using actual class materials, assignments, and research materials, the features that make calibre a complementary addition to other online teaching and research resources.
Jennell Wittmer  
University of Toledo, College of Business and Innovation  
United States  
James Martin  
Wayne State University  
United States  

Abstract:  
Organizations express concerns about employing older workers because they may fit the stereotype of having lower psychological involvement. This study expands Partial Inclusion Theory by utilizing Gender Ideology to hypothesize differences in involvement across twelve groups of employees (age: older, middle-aged, younger; gender; and work status), finding that older workers experience more involvement than middle/younger workers. Also, personal attachments (time, flexibility, involvement outside of work, and income dependency) predict involvement better for older workers.
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Conna Condon  
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Sara Kimmel  
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Angela Young  
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Abstract: none supplied

Strategic Approaches for a New Typology of Patent Portfolios
An Empirical Test of Strategic Groups: Predicting Organizational Performance
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Abstract:  
The concept of strategic groups was tested using payroll data to classify NFL teams into four strategic groups and on-field performance data. These groups were then examined to see whether spending on offensive and defensive player talent was related to organizational performance as measured by winning percentage, points, and yards. While the data indicate that groups, based on talent investment, do exist, membership within a particular group was not a significant predictor of future performance.

The 401(k) Exercise: Encouraging Retirement Readiness

Kenneth York
Abstract:
In a 401(k), employees must manage their own money for retirement, but many employees lack the knowledge to effectively manage it. In Part 1 of this exercise, students fill out a 401(k) enrollment form, choosing how much of their paycheck to allocate to the available funds. In Part 2, students discuss how to create an effective retirement education program for employees, based on their experience in the first part of the exercise.
Abstract:
Emotional decisions are made daily by consumers. The power and impact of emotion on the buying process is an emerging field. Marketers must turn from the traditional marketing strategies based on cognitive abilities of the consumer to also include the role of emotions in the buying process. A review of literature on consumer behavior and emotional intelligence is presented and a summary of a baseline study on consumer behavior and emotional intelligence.
Keywords: Emotional Intelligence, Consumer Behavior, Survey

Introduction
Ramanathan and Shiv (2001) suggested traditional consumer decision models have been grounded in the underlying premise that consumers make rational choices. Boone and Kurtz (2010) agreed and have described consumers as passing through a series of sequential steps when making a consumer decision. The traditional study of consumer behavior focused on the cognitive processes (Erasmus, Boshoff, & Rousseau, 2011) when making a decision to purchase. Traditional study of consumer behavior, however, did not consider the impact of emotions on consumer buying decisions and the resulting implications for marketers. Kidwell, Hardesty, and Childers (2008a) designed an instrument to measure the effect of emotions on consumer buying decisions, the Consumer Emotional Intelligence Scale (CEIS). The CEIS measures emotions and allows an individual to recognize emotional patterns when making consumer buying decisions. Since reason leads to conclusions and emotions lead to action, the impact to marketers is to communicate with the consumer in such a manner as to evoke a positive emotion that leads to a favorable buying decision (Kotler, Kartajaya, & Setiawan, 2010).

Literature Review
The purpose of this literature review was to identify what articles were available in current literature in the field of emotional intelligence (EI) and consumer behavior (CB). The search for EI and CB revealed very few articles specific to this area of inquiry.

Emotional Intelligence
The theory of EI emphasizes different items: ability (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) or trait characteristics, such as Reuven Bar-On (Bar-On, 2007). The theorists who follow the trait-ability approach refer to EI as something that can be scored such as an intelligent quotient (IQ) or emotional quotient (EQ). “Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso's Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) and BarOn's EQ-I are two assessment instruments that exemplify such approaches” (R. Hammett, personal communication, Dec. 12, 2012).

Cherniss and Goleman (2001, p. 4) posed the question: “Is emotional intelligence distinct from IQ?” Bar-On provided convincing evidence that EI is located in a distinct area in the brain. If Bar-On is accurate, consumers do not react on their emotions, but use their EI to assess the situation making appropriate choices.
Nelson and Low (2011) expanded on the concept of the ability approach and developed a person-centered, experiential method of considering any situation, the Emotional Skills Assessment Process (ESAP). The ESAP stressed that EI is a skill that can be learned and refined, much different than EQ.
“Specific emotional skills are used to understand and develop, on a practical level, each of the five domains” (Nelson & Low, p. 192).

Consumer Behavior

Traditional consumer buying models dismiss the role and power of emotion when making a buying decision. Peter and Krishnakumar (2010) found a correlation between EI, impulse buying, and self-esteem. Consumer emotional intelligence (CEI) has been recognized as a combination of cognitive and emotions used by consumers in the decision to buy (Bell, 2011).

The traditional view of consumer decision making is one that views the rational consumer making a rational buying decision (Ramanathan & Shiv, 2001). More literature exists suggesting emotions have a much greater effect on consumer buying decisions than previously believed. "The decision to buy and be loyal to a brand is greatly influenced by emotions" (Kotler, Kartajaya, & Setiawan, 2010, p. 170).

Contemporary marketers have turned their focus to the role of emotions during the consumer buying process (Bell, 2011). CEI has emerged due to a renewed interest of inquiry regarding the impact of emotions and CB. At least three types of consumer decisions exist and are made primarily from emotions (Ramanathan & Shiv, 2001): "low road," which are impulsive and, "high road," which are controlled decisions (Shiv & Fedorikhin, 1999). Ramanathan and Menon (2006) suggested a third decision is made by a complete absence of cognition.

Impulse behavior is also a factor in affective or cognitive consumer decision making (Shiv & Fedorikhin, 1999). Any factor that reduces processing cognitive resources, such as loud music, will affect buying. Marketers who sell emotionally-driven products may favor a loud or distracting environment that will likely increase the probability of impulse buying. Shiv and Fedorikhin suggested impulse buying may be encouraged by short waiting times in checkout lanes. Ramanathan and Menon (2006) stated the pursuit of gratification leads to extreme hedonic behavior resulting in impulsive individuals. Hedonic behavior in consumers with EI ability, however, may show a temporary increase in a desire for a product, but this desire will quickly fade. If marketers could identify the emotional shopper with the tendency to make impulsive buying decisions, a focused effort on marketing to such a shopper could likely occur (Ramanathan & Menon).

Hsee and Kunreuther (2000) suggested consumers develop affection "toward products and services just as they do toward other individuals or toward their pets" (p. 49). Their study revealed pet owners would purchase the more expensive medication for their pet when the pet was held in higher affection than when they were not.

While instruments such as MSCEIT can measure EI in an individual, this model is not a good measure of emotions and consumer behavior (Peters, Kransler, & Rossen, 2009). Kidwell et al. (2008a) developed the Consumer Emotional Intelligence Scale (CEIS), an instrument designed to measure EI as it relates to CB. Kidwell et al. defined consumer EI as "a person's ability to skillfully use emotional information to achieve a desired consumer outcome" (p. 154). The Kidwell et al. model allowed marketers to have a better understanding of the role emotions play in consumer decision making.

Peter and Krishnakumar (2010) found a correlation between EI, impulse buying, and self-esteem using the CEI model. Implications for marketers included consumers with high CEI have a tendency to delay making a purchase decision if a shift in mood is experienced. Marketers may need to design a strategy to mitigate this tendency. CEI could be used to eliminate or at least reduce undesired outcomes when attached to negative emotions (Kidwell et al., 2008a). Kidwell et al. demonstrated that emotions play a dominant role in consumer buying decisions, especially for consumers with a low consumer EI who are the least likely to use their emotions to make a good buying decision.
Research Question
Based on a review of the literature, the following research question guided the investigation of this study: Is a consumer buying decision made through a cognitive process, an affective process, or a combination of the cognitive and affective processes?

Hypotheses
Based on the above research question, the study examined the following hypotheses:
H1. Consumer buying decisions are impacted by cognitive and affective processes.

Research Methodology
Using social media to reach out for participants, the researchers used Survey Monkey. Participants had no physical or mental risks and remained anonymous. The researchers conducted the survey during February and March 2013.

Survey Results
Marketing Implications
Marketers could educate consumers regarding the role emotions play in the decision-making process, especially when delaying critical medical testing. Marketers could work with restaurants to include positive promotional materials to encourage healthy eating decisions. Emotional CB could be used to promote consumer well-being and to reinforce positive behaviors such as a healthy lifestyle (Kidwell, Hardesty, & Childers, 2008b). A difficult challenge for marketers is to avoid using emotions to affect consumer buying decisions. Using EI, marketers who understand the impact of emotions on vulnerable consumers could implement ethical marketing strategies. These methodologies are ethical and avoid the exploitation of vulnerable consumers.

Limitations
Limitations of the study included few available studies using CEIS, a lack of literature, and data segments by demographic or psychographic segmentation. The truthfulness in participant responses was also a limitation.

Conclusion
The responses of the participants did not correlate with the findings of the study. Although 94.2% of the participants indicated the ability to recognize and manage emotions or behavior, 100% of the participants made impulsive buying decisions. This supports the hypothesis indicating emotions are a strong influence on making consumer buying decisions. Marketers must turn from the traditional marketing strategies based on cognitive abilities of the consumer to also include the affective role of emotions in the buying process. While appealing solely to emotions may result in a temporary increase in sales, a combination of cognitive and emotion appeal offer the highest level of sustained sales and market share.

References


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**Embracing Change: Higher Education Learners in the Virtual Teaming Environment**

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Abstract
After teaching business school online for close to seven years, it is interesting how undergraduate level student learners appear to be apprehensive about the process of virtual teaming projects. This behavior is learned from past unsavory experiences either in the workplace and or from higher education course requirements. The challenge is to motivate and help the learners to create their own rules of the road in how to work together in virtual team projects, and to conduct and realize effective meetings in goals and objectives setting. This involves a dynamic change for some learners and how models can help them embrace it. The idea is to share a model of the rules of the road for teamwork efficiencies and a quality-oriented process to schedule and facilitate meetings in general emphasizing best practices i.e. PAL.

Introduction
After teaching business school online for close to seven years, it is interesting how undergraduate level student learners appear to be apprehensive about the process of virtual teaming projects. This behavior is learned from past unsavory experiences either in the workplace and or from higher education course requirements. The challenge is to motivate and help the learners to create their own rules of the road in how to work together in virtual team projects, and to conduct and realize effective meetings in goals and objectives setting. This involves a dynamic change for some learners and how models can help them embrace it. The idea is to share a model of the rules of the road for teamwork efficiencies and a quality-oriented process to schedule and facilitate meetings in general emphasizing best practices.

Setting the Stage
If this sounds familiar, there is an approach to help higher education learners adapt to and adopt the virtual teaming environment that is presented in on-line courses taught. It is a good idea to allow the learners to vent in the live course Seminar when discussing the teaming assignment or project. Share real-world experiences from both the learners and instructor. The teaming may occur over a few weeks or just one. There are pre-existing conditions that have painted the learners’ perceptions when thinking about any type of team work in general. These conditions may have developed from the workplace, academia, and or other organizations / clubs whether in an on-site or virtual environments. Learners who have chosen to realize their dreams in earning higher education degrees must become masters in time management when balancing life in general, family, work, and the new challenges presented from an academic curriculum.

One of the biggest complaints from learners is team members who do not pull their weight once assigned tasks and deadlines. There is something to be said about responsibility and accountability. Another issue is that of having to meet over multiple time zones. Scheduling team membership meetings to discuss and plan for an assignment or project can be daunting for virtual learners, especially if they have never had this type of teaming experience. Time is precious but if managed effectively, the life balance can be realized; maybe not easily, but it is possible. In most cases, learners are excited about meeting others who share the common goal through higher education.

In the past, some research has been conducted through control group experiments relative to virtual teams in the workplace (Kostner, 1998) (Friedrich et. al, 2011). Factors that influence virtual teamwork are:
- Trust within the team is important.
- Building relationships through sharing knowledge.
- Create a common spirit by defining a clear purpose / set of objectives.
- Share the same information among all team members simultaneously. (p. 159)
Internal and external factors also challenge a virtual team. External factors (virtual team givens) are distance, time, and technology which are outside the team’s control (p. 160). Internal factors (virtual team creations) are culture, trust, and leadership which are within the control of the team (p. 160).

Virtual Teamwork in the Course Room
In one of the courses that the author teaches, the focus is upon team dynamics and managing conflict. Learners quickly understand the differences between a group and a team in the first unit week. It is a bi-directional continuous four or five stage cycle of which a group transforms into a functioning team i.e. forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning (Zeus & Skiffington, 2008, p. 134). Allow the learners to become acquainted with the team members to discover personal and professional backgrounds, common interests, strengths, and challenges. This provides a wonderful arsenal and foundation for the virtual team to effectively move forward. A sense of comfort and belonging begins to surface within the membership. Slowly the original perceptions of a team shared by the learners start to acquiesce and an appreciation of each member is realized.

In the virtual classroom, the team members should have a place within the course to initially share their backgrounds and the like in an asynchronous team discussion board area. Albeit this sounds trivial, it is essential to the membership for bonding and empathy purposes. Learners might choose to plan the first meeting via chat rooms, Skype, Adobe Connect, instant messaging, and other well-fitted social media platforms. Assignment of roles and responsibilities should be conducted in the initial meeting to build the structure of this small organization such as Team Lead, Team Facilitator, Team Scribe, Team Project Manager, or any other applicable roles that are necessary for the project. The idea is for the teams to get their tasks completed and build upon these to support the common goal, the assignment or project. All of this while still having fun too.

One method learned in conducting meetings, virtual or on-site, is to utilize a PAL (Purpose Agenda Length). How many times have you been invited to a meeting where it turns into a marathon and eats up hours of your valuable and precious time? The PAL is a business or academic tool that should be created and sent out via email or some type of meeting maker to all concerned team members, at least 48 hours before. In the workplace, meetings might have to be scheduled out at least two weeks in advance due to a very diverse membership and or industry environment. In the case of virtual learning, the turnaround will be determined by the assignment or project.

The PAL should present the attendees invited or required; it should clearly state the purpose of the meeting; the agenda should list the items of discussion; and the length of the meeting should be listed in minutes and or hours. Figure 1 lists a sample PAL for a meeting.

Such simple steps can go a long way to engage team membership as well as allows for all invitees to fully understand what items will be covered and how to properly prepare for the event. There is an item in the Figure 1 Agenda that lists out the term, Parking Lot. This is where issues or concerns raised during the meeting that do not fit into the agenda are set aside for later in the meeting, time permitting, or at another meeting date. Generally the Team Facilitator will make note of this and anyone in the membership can call the raised topic to be placed into the Parking Lot. The Parking Lot can be the grease board, easel, laptop, scratch pad, or tablet where new ideas, thoughts, or concepts shared are captured for discussion after the meeting or at another time and date. The Facilitator will also watch the clock and alert the Team Leader when it is either time to move to the next item or start to wrap up the meeting, say five to ten minutes before time is up. This virtual teaming process enables the membership to effectively practice meeting management (Beyerlein et al., 2008; Reina & Reina, 2006; O’Neill et al., 2008; Obradovich & Smith, 2008; Duarte & Tennant Snyder, 2006).

Conclusion
Since the sharing of the PAL with virtual learners in the aforementioned course, the teaming experiences realized have been positive and some have adopted this best practice in their own workplace. The virtual learners have embraced change; a new way to meet and collaborate across the digital divide. When used, these learners specifically realized that their co-workers and superiors actually enjoy attending these PAL oriented meetings, on-site or virtually. PALs are gold nuggets that can be added to anyone’s business toolkit whether higher education learners and or professionals in the workplace.

References

Mentoring: What Women Really Want
Abstract:
Women have made impressive advancements in the past decades, yet they are still underrepresented in higher management or leadership positions. Ongoing advancements in today’s highly competitive and male-dominated business environments have provided keen challenges for women in the workforce. Mentoring provides women seeking to advance within corporations with an extremely valuable resource, offering guidance and ongoing networking connections. The purpose of this pilot study was to discover what women really want from their mentors; to establish the benefits of mentoring for women; to identify the critical elements of successful mentoring; and to outline alternative ways to design mentoring infrastructures.

Introduction
Women have more opportunities for advancement in business organizations right now, in 2011, than ever before, yet they still encounter many unique and ongoing challenges and obstacles, thus they need especially strong support systems, reliable guidance and vibrant, professional networks (Laff, 2009). Effective mentoring relationships can provide women with the type of support, guidance and valuable professional networking systems they need in order to advance and excel. In fact, mentoring can fulfill a critical need for women who are striving to advance within their careers, in spite of the ongoing obstacles they face, because effective mentors offer guidance, support, insider-knowledge, education and personal coaching. Clearly, women stand to benefit a great deal from effective mentoring relationships.

There were a total of thirty-two people who began the survey; however, nineteen individuals completed the survey for this pilot study. The nineteen completed surveys are what the results are focused on. There were three proposed hypotheses for this pilot study. These proposed hypotheses results were examined. For hypothesis one, the focus was on analyzing career women and the gender of mentors within this pilot. A chi-square test of goodness-of-fit was performed to determine whether career women preferred same gender mentors.

Preference for same gender mentors was not significant and was not equally distributed in the population. For hypothesis two, career women preference for mentors with executive or senior management experience was significant. This pilot study indicated the importance of upper management experience for mentors of career women. This seems to have important implications on the training and development of mentors. For hypothesis three, career women preference for in-house mentoring programs was not significant.
Top characteristics of what respondents wanted to see in a mentor were the following: the person challenged them (58%), having the person be a leader (53%), the person was encouraging (37%), coached them (42%), and was motivational (37%).

Conclusion
As more and more women seek to advance and excel in corporate environments, the need for mentoring programs specifically designed to meet the unique needs of professional women is becoming greater and should certainly be seen as a high priority item. However, this is still a relatively undeveloped area in many corporate organizations and, thus, there is ample opportunity for improvement and growth. While much research has been done in this area already, the bulk of literature focuses mainly on the characteristics and benefits of standard mentoring programs; there is very little information concerning women’s specific needs or insights regarding essential elements of mentoring programs. This pilot study provided important findings and unique insights that corporations may be able to utilize as they strive to address the needs of their valuable female employees and help them to realize their full career potential. Furthermore, based on the information presented in this pilot study, corporations that successfully meet this growing need for women-centered mentoring programs will be promoting cultures of support, stability and ongoing professional growth.

The pilot study indicated that career women have a preference for mentors with executive or senior management experience and that they prefer mentors who challenge them; possess strong leadership qualities; and who are both encouraging and motivational. Businesses and corporations should utilize this information as they strive to identify successful mentors, develop training and development opportunities for potential mentors, and create effective mentoring programs as well. Future research should focus on expanding on the study parameters with a larger sample and more simplified waiver to encourage participant involvement. Also, investigating the characteristics of who would be the most successful mentors will aid in both the selection and training of mentors in future leadership programs.

References
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