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Table of Contents

STRATEGIC HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS: A CASE FOR MISSION-DRIVEN HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICES

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ABSTRACT

Non-profit organizations are faced with increasing pressure to make efficient use of their human resources, which if managed well can be a source of competitive advantage. However, we know little about how strategic human resource management unfolds in a nonprofit organization. The current qualitative study addresses this gap by examining the role of strategic human resource practices in a non-profit organization. We introduce the concept of mission-driven HR practices to underscore the importance of a 'values' approach to strategic HR management in non-profit organizations. We also investigate the mediating role of an inclusive environment in the relationship between mission-driven HR practices and volunteer retention and recruitment.

Increasing competition, globalization, and rapid changes in technology have all provided the impetus for organizations to reconsider the approaches they use to manage their diverse resources and capabilities, in order to achieve a competitive advantage (Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye, & Darcy, 2006). Nonprofit organizations (NPOs) are no exception. Faced with increasing pressure to transform themselves into 'professional' and 'business-like' entities that make efficient use of their resources, NPOs must implement strategies to differentiate them from competitors so as to create value for their various stakeholders (Anheier & Seibel 2001; Salamon 2002).

The strategic human resource management (SHRM) literature often relies on the resource-based view of the firm to explain the role of HR practices in firm performance (Colbert, 2004; Messersmith, Lepak, Patel, & Williams, 2011). Fundamental to the resource-based arguments within the SHRM literature, is the idea that the idiosyncratic combination of resources that are valuable, rare, inimitable and non-substitutable namely, employees' skills, knowledge, and behavior, combined with high performance work systems (HPWS), are difficult to imitate, and as such may be sources of sustained competitive advantage (Akingbola, 2013; Colbert, 2004). In turn, these competitive advantages should produce positive returns (Hitt, Bierman, Shimizu & Kochhar, 2001). Indeed, SHRM researchers have found a positive relationship between HPWS and organizational outcomes such as productivity, sales growth, profitability and turnover (e.g., Huselid, 1995; Zacharatos, Barling, & Iverson, 2005).

The context of NPOs however, presents a set of unique and distinct resources and capabilities for strategy formulation and implementation (Akingbola, 2013). Of particular relevance to HRM is the participation of volunteers in the human resource (HR) pool, creating a cost advantage, and hence a competitive advantage to NPOs that are able to effectively manage these resources (Akingbola, 2013; Hartenian 2007). Despite the pivotal role volunteers play in NPOs, it is surprising that existing research on SHRM has almost exclusively focused on for-profit organizations, with only cursory attention given to NPOs and organizations that are

volunteer-dependent (Akingbola, 2013; Colbert, 2004; Cuskelly et al., 2006). Yet, to assume that HR practices for managing paid employees can be directly applied to the volunteer workforce may be too simplistic (Laczo and Hanisch, 1999, Newton, Becker, & Bell, 2014). For instance, as Newton and colleagues (2014) noted, "levers for retention of paid employees such as remuneration, bonuses and job security cannot be applied in a volunteer context" (p515).

In light of these gaps in the literature, the current study was conducted to explore how SHRM unfolds in an NPO context using a case study approach. In exploring the process, we introduce the concept of *mission-driven human resource practices* – defined as internally consistent HR practices designed to attract, develop and retain volunteers, and motivate their commitment to the organization's mission. Further, we theorize that *mission-driven human resource practices* nurture an inclusive climate, which in turn promote volunteer retention outcomes.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

SHRM is premised on the notion that HR is critical to an organization's strategy and goals (Akingbola, 2013; Wright & McMahan, 1992). The majority of SHRM research focuses on the use of HPWS or systems of HR practices designed to enhance employees' competencies, motivation and performance, as a fundamental source of competitive advantage for organizations (Liao, Toya, Lepak, & Hong, 2009). Although the concept of HPWS has not been consistently and precisely defined in the literature, it has generally been used to describe a system of HR practices that are aligned with other HR practices and with the organizational strategy, such as recruitment, training, performance management and flexible job assignments (Messersmith et al., 2011).

The unique nature of volunteers that comprise a significant proportion of the human resource pool of many NPOs, including the fact that volunteers are unpaid, they act as community ambassadors for the organization, which subsequently contributes to recruitment of other volunteers, and they generally have a high level of commitment to the mission of their organization, underscores the importance of volunteers' recruitment and retention to achieving the goals of organizations in NPOs (Akingbola, 2013; Newton et al., 2014). Therefore the experience of volunteers in NPOs directly influences their willingness to continue volunteering with the organization and to recruit others to volunteer. As such, NPOs need to design a work system that not only ensures that employees have the ability, motivation and opportunity to perform, but also sustains their level of commitment to the organization.

A few studies have found a link between HR practices such as planning, orientation, training, organizational support and job characteristics, and volunteer retention (e.g., Cuskelly et al., 2006; Hidalgo & Moreno, 2009). Building on these studies, we examined the nature of HR practices that emerged in the NPO context and how they promoted volunteer retention and recruitment. We also propose a mediation based on the idea that mission-driven HR practices can play a key role in nurturing the inclusion climate of the organization, thereby fostering volunteer retention outcomes. As the society becomes more diverse, the attraction and retention of an adequate pool of volunteers will necessitate organizations to incorporate diversity into SHRM systems. Our research questions are as follows:

> RQ1: *How do HR work practices unfold in NPOs and how are these practices experienced by volunteers?*

RQ2:   How do mission-driven work practices nurture an inclusive environment and how does this contribute to retention and recruitment?

METHOD

The context for our case study was a Christian nonprofit organization, pseudo-name ABC, based in the U.S., committed to ameliorating hunger around the world. We drew upon multiple data sources, including publications, e-mails to volunteers, news media, onsite observations and 12 in-depth semi-structured interviews. This qualitative approach is ideal for gaining insights about exploratory questions such as our research questions (Yin, 1994; Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). Following a purposeful sampling approach (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), interviews served as our primary source of data in the current analysis. This qualitative approach is ideal for gaining insights about exploratory questions such as our research questions (Yin, 1994; Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). We interviewed 12 volunteers, selected to represent different identity groups (e.g., age, race, religion, and sex). We asked each participant questions about their perceptions of the various HR practices, the work atmosphere and their likelihood to return and or invite others to volunteer. The semi-structured design allowed for comparisons across interviews while follow-up questions allowed us to capture unique perspectives offered by specific individuals that shed light on their volunteering experience. All interviews were audio recorded and later transcribed. Our data analysis process involved coding interview transcripts. We followed template analysis procedures outlined by King (1998).

RESULTS

The interviews revealed that several of the HR practices associated with HPWS were also present in the nonprofit organization. However, most of them were infused with the mission, which contributed positively to the volunteers' experience and their willingness to return and recruit others to volunteer.

Recruitment

The ability of ABC to leverage their social networks including their personal and institutional connections e.g., "girls scout', "church", " high school swim team", allowed them to recruit from a diverse group of people which was highly valued and was a source of competitive advantage. Irrespective of how volunteers heard about the organization, ABC's mission was instrumental to their recruitment as illustrated by the quotes below:

It was a requirement that I volunteered as part of the football team….. It was very community-driven so you felt compelled to participate and to offer your services for a cause that was obviously very noble and genuine." [Black, Millennial, Male, Non-religious]

I actually heard about it from one of my friends …. She just told me that they would give the food to under-privilege countries. …. I realized how good of an organization it actually was and that it was benefitting people. [White, Wireless, Male, Christian]

Orientation/Training

The orientation and training provided volunteers with enough information so that they felt competent to carry out their tasks efficiently as illustrated below:

...and because everything was so very well explained we could grab items that were needed, all very easy to do and even the clean up was no problem at all. It was all very well done, well organized." [White, Gen Y, Female, Atheist]

In addition to providing clear directions and information on what to do, the orientation/ training session was mission-driven which contributed to retention as illustrated:

"During their preview they went over how they packed food for people in other countries ... really motivates me to go back there time and time again." [Black, Male, Wireless, Christian]

Task Significance

The meaningfulness of the task that volunteers were performing was by far the most motivating aspect of volunteers' experience and their willingness to return and tell others about the organization as illustrated by the following quote.

It re-conceptualizes the way that I personally view philanthropy in that that organization is the only one that I know or that I have participated in the past that I know exactly what I am doing to impact a very concise and defined cause and so in the future, I feel as though my volunteering efforts will be focused in on causes that I am having a direct impact on and I can measure the impact of my input. It has given me a shining model of what a true charitable organization should be... [Black, Millennial, Male, non-religious]

Mission-driven HR practices and an inclusive climate

The HR practices also nurtured an inclusive climate as illustrated below:

I don't want it to be that you have to profess Christianity to benefit from the services or to volunteer. [Recruitment]

I know whenever I've gone if there are people and they are really concerned.... oh I can't stand and when they [the staff] come out and say that you can put labels on and sit there ... And there are always guys you know they want to carry the boxes. I do like that they explain ahead of time that there are different roles for people and I like that they have different roles depending on what you want to do. *[Orientation/Training]*

I've always done it with kids – it is nice because there are jobs where everyone can do. It is important, because after you have measured for a while, then you can weigh, I think it is good, I like how it is arranged, it allows for people to do different things. There are a lot of things that even kids can do or people with learning disabilities. *[Job Design]*

CONCLUSION

This current study provides further support for the relationship between HPWS and organizational effectiveness by showing how SHRM unfolds in a nonprofit context. We introduced the concept of mission-driven HR practices to underscore the importance of a 'values' approach to NPOs and how they can use it for competitive advantage. Finally, we

provide evidence of how mission-driven HR practices can nurture an inclusive climate, which should contribute to the positive experience of volunteers and ultimately increasing their retention and recruitment of other volunteers.

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FIRST CENTURY GROUPTHINK: AN EXEGETICAL CASE STUDY

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ABSTRACT

Certain groups discussed in the New Testament are exegetically tested for the purpose of determining whether or not symptoms of groupthink are evident. Robbins (1996) methods of social and cultural texture analysis are used along with ideological texture analysis to examine the underlying constructs impacting certain Christian and Jewish groups. The group known as the Sanhedrin is explored considering passages from the Gospel of John. The group called the Judaizers is similarly explored in consideration of passages from the books of Acts and Galatians. Janis' (1982) work on the groupthink theory construct informs the findings of nine separate evidences of the groupthink theory in these first century groups which are summarily categorized. New Testament insight into overcoming groupthink is also briefly discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Groupthink is a relatively new concept in group, team, and organizational studies having been popularized in Janis' (1982) writings on the subject which focused primarily on political fiascoes from the latter half of 20th century American politics. Case study methodology has become a primary means of studying the theory at work in groups. However, exegetical case studies analyzing the groupthink phenomenon are needed in order to both test the theory and provide biblical insight for overcoming groupthink tendencies when they exist. As such, this exegetical case study analysis focuses on two important groups from the first century. The Sanhedrin was both political and religious and formed the governing body of the Jewish nation. The Judaizers were a less organized but influential group which impacted the thinking of the early Christian church. Using both of Robbins (1996) social/cultural texture and ideological analysis methods, these groups are studied for the purpose of establishing whether groupthink existed within each group. Multiple groupthink examples are cited and certain methods for overcoming groupthink are discussed.

GROUPTHINK

A discussion of groupthink theory necessarily includes an overview of one of the theory's pioneering thinkers, Irving Janis. The basic premise of Janis' groupthink theory addresses how group decisions are adversely affected by a "detrimental phenomenon" ('t Hart, 1991, p. 247). Groupthink theory includes consideration of antecedent factors, symptomatic realities, and the associated outcomes. Janis (1982) identified three causal conditions which can lead to groupthink, and these three conditions include high levels of group cohesiveness, faulty organizational structure, and situational contexts (pp. 176-177). Janis claims only one causal condition always exists when groupthink is present—highly cohesive groups (p. 176). Janis further noted eight distinct symptoms of groupthink may be observed but clearly stated that all eight do not have to be present for groupthink to occur (p. 174). To further clarify the various symptoms, Janis classified them into three types including the group's overestimations, close-mindedness, and

pressures to conform (pp. 174-175). Each of these three types include differing sorts of these observable symptoms. According to 't Hart (1991), the overestimations of the group can be observed by the group's illusion of an invulnerable status or by the group's belief in its own inherent morality (p. 257). 't Hart notes how the closed-mindedness type can be seen through stereotypical considerations of outsiders or through the group's own collective rationalization processes (p. 257). These two types include half of the overall groupthink symptoms while the final type includes the other half. In the third category of groupthink symptoms, groups tend toward self-censoring behaviors, self-declared mindguards, the exercising of pressure on those who dissent, and, finally, the illusion of group consensus ('t Hart, 1991, p. 257). What Janis is saying and 't Hart is clarifying is that specific, observable symptoms will be present when groupthink is occurring.

METHOD

Robbins (1996) notes how a text reflects a society or culture's established "attitudes, norms, and modes of interaction" (p. 126). The second category of social/cultural analysis described by Robbins, common social and cultural topics, provides the primary exegetical tools used for the social/cultural aspect of this analysis. This method involves discovering the common social and cultural topics present in a text offering clues concerning families, patron-client interactions, cultural norms, and the cultural symbolism involved in daily life (Robbins, 1996, p. 184). This analysis considers these norms, symbols, and interactions providing a clearer understanding of both the Sanhedrin and Judaizer groups. In addition to social/cultural analysis, Robbins' method of ideological analysis is used concerning the ideologies involved within the text. Robbins clarifies these methods as involving the discovery of how the ideologies within the text affect individuals including emerging conflicts, systems of differentiation, dominant and submissive groups, individual objectives being pursued, the institutionalization of power, etc. (p. 196). Therefore, these ideological areas are also considered in the exegetical analysis.

ANALYSIS

Several New Testament passages need examination in order to clarify context. Considering the background of John 3:1-10, 7:45-51, and 19:38-42 provides insight regarding the Sanhedrin and the role of Nicodemus. Reviewing Galatians 2:1-14 and Acts 15:1-5 adds value in understanding the role of the Judaizers in the early Christian church and Paul's response.

From the social and cultural perspective, three primary themes underscore the passages from John considering the Sanhedrin. These three themes include the desire for adherence to Torah law, ritual purity, and considerations of fellowship with common people. There are four primary themes evident from an ideological perspective when considering the Sanhedrin's dominance of Jewish life. The four themes which emerge involve authority, power, conflict, and institutionalized boundaries.

As a sub-group of the early Christian church, the Judaizers professed a very legalistic understanding of the social and cultural construct which should characterize those first century believers. Three primary considerations emerge including circumcision, table fellowship, and the social integration of Gentiles. The ideological slant of the Judaizer group is evident when considering the power, influence, and conflict which encompass their interactions within the text. The Judaizers demonstrate their power and influence over other sub-groups within the first century

Christian church. The leaders of the church in Jerusalem were significantly influenced by the Judaizers.

RESULTS

When considering the contextual realities of the verses from John, Acts, and Galatians and the social/cultural and ideological implications of the texts, there is ample evidence of groupthink. Janis (1982) claimed that eight distinct symptoms of groupthink may be observed but clearly noted that all eight do not have to be present for groupthink to occur (p. 174). Nine examples of groupthink are found in the texts related to the Sanhedrin and Judaizer groups. Table 1 demonstrates Janis' eight symptoms and which symptoms are applicable to each group.

Table 1 EXEGETICAL CASE STUDY First Century Groupthink Symptoms		
Janis' Groupthink Symptom	**The Sanhedrin**	**The Judaizers**
Illusions of invulnerability		
Unquestioned belief in inherent group morality	X	X
Rationalization of warnings	X	
Stereotyping of out-groups	X	X
Self-censorship		X
Illusions of unanimity	X	
Direct pressure on dissenters to conform	X	X
Mindguards		

DISCUSSION

The basic research question of this exegetical case study concerns whether groupthink existed in the first century Christian and Jewish faith systems. The evidence from the analysis demonstrates that groupthink did exist. With this question answered in the affirmative, one cannot escape from a brief consideration of how certain leaders within these faith systems were able to overcome their groups' groupthink tendencies. While not an exhaustive consideration of this topic, it is worth noting how the actions of Nicodemus and Paul are tutors for individuals today who find themselves in a groupthink scenario.

Nicodemus began within the group affected by groupthink. Janis (1982) advises that one step in the prevention of groupthink involves the necessity of examining all effective alternatives (p. 265). The exploration of these alternatives should consider all rational perspectives ('t Hart, 1991, p. 249). Nicodemus seems to provide an example of an in-group member who pursued the exploration of all effective alternatives from a very rational perspective. The very fact that Nicodemus found it vitally necessary to meet Jesus in John 3 provides ample evidence. Nicodemus clearly understood the potential penalties associated with his quest for understanding. However, he also clearly understood the great benefit of exploring alternative viewpoints. Nicodemus' exploration seemed to have changed him. He offers a tentative defense of Jesus in John 7 and finally helps to bury Christ in John 19. Nicodemus' desire to explore alternatives may have led him to completely disassociate with the Sanhedrin group.

Paul was opposed to the Judaizers but as an outsider or a member of a rival group. As with many large organizations, the early Christian church developed several sub-groups which did not entirely agree. These sub-groups are actually very effective in combating groupthink tendencies. According to Janis (1982), organizations should establish several independent groups which would

all focus on a common problem or task (p. 264). While the Christian church did not purposefully set up the various groups in its midst to solve the problem of how to include Gentile believers, the groups did develop nonetheless and served a similar purpose. In Acts 15:1 (NASB), Luke records the men from Judea and separately the brethren clearly differentiating the two groups. Paul as a leader of the group of brethren took charge of combating the Judaizers' views even to the point of confronting the Apostle Peter at Antioch. 't Hart (1991) refers to the process of creating independent groups with a common focus as "organizational choice" (p. 249). The point being that the independent groups will produce viable options for the greater organization to consider. The Judaizers presented the choice where salvation depended on circumcision and adherences to the law, whereas Paul and the brethren presented salvation through faith in Christ alone. In Acts 15, the larger organization's governing body, the Jerusalem Council, is presented with the two alternatives by each group and a course of action is embraced.

CONCLUSION

This exegetical case study considered the groupthink evidence in the first century Jewish and Christian faith systems both from a social/cultural method and from an ideological perspective. This study has limitations and opens avenues for future exploration. The primary limitation of this study involves the fact that groupthink antecedents or causal agents were not addressed. This study does not attempt to ascertain what caused the groupthink in either group. Rather, the symptoms of groupthink were explored for the purpose of establishing the existence of groupthink only. This provides a future research opportunity where the accepted groupthink antecedents could be exegetically tested considering these two groups' groupthink situations. Another limitation exists in this study relative to the section where overcoming groupthink is discussed. Again, the primary purpose of this analysis was to discover groupthink in the New Testament but not to address in detail the ways in which these groups overcame the phenomenon. As such, yet another excellent opportunity for future research is developed. Although the groupthink theory was not introduced into organizational and group studies until the latter half of the 20th century, the evidence clearly indicates its existence in the first century.

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MOBILE AUDIENCES, SOCIAL MEDIA AND ACTION RESEARCH: AN EXAMINATION OF NON-PROFITS AND MOBILE ENGAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

Non-profit organizations in the United States are becoming more dependent on the use of social media accounts, to market to their mobile audiences, because they are free to use. With the constant advancements in technology, True Friends marketing department struggles to keep up with the lack of staff and necessary resources. The researchers chose to investigate how True Friends Organization could improve the quality of their mobile engagement through the analysis of their social media and Google analytics accounts. Specifically, the researchers implemented action research to evaluate if the increased use of Instagram expands True Friends mobile audience. The researchers evaluated how technology helps to create unique cultures amongst mobile audiences, as well as why social media as a medium is so important. Participants of this study included True Friends mobile audiences on Google Analytics, Facebook, Twitter, Pinterest, and Instagram. Their mobile audience consists of participants from California, England, Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, New York, and Wisconsin. The study meticulously focused on social media as a medium for True Friends to communicate with their mobile audience, and how each of their accounts helps to create a distinct culture.

HOFSTEDE THEORY AND SUBCULTURES

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the African-American subculture using Hofstede's five dimensions: individualism/collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity/femininity, power distance and Confucian dynamism. The results show that African-Americans score higher in some dimensions and lower in others when compared with Hofstede's indexing of the U.S. The purpose of this paper is to show that subcultures are an important factor when promoting and implementing diversification in the workplace.

INTRODUCTION

Hofstede's cultural dimensions has been applied across various disciplines. Musambira, and Matusitz (2015) applied it to human development and technology. They found a positive correlation between individualism and communication technology as well as a positive correlation between individualism and human development. In the area of accounting, Deyneli's (2014) and Branson, Chen, and Anderson (2015) used cultural dimensions. Deyneli's (2014) study showed that cultural dimensions could actually affect tax morale. Branson, Chen, and Anderson (2015) concluded that Hofstede's dimensions of individualism and uncertainty avoidance, by which professional accounting agencies operate, assisted in predicting the acceptance of an international accounting code of ethics. Swaidan (2012) used the Hofstede model to investigate consumer ethics across subcultures and found consumers who score high on collectivism, high on uncertainty avoidance, low on masculinity, and low on power distance scales reject questionable activities. Understanding the subculture variable is vital for the development of successful strategies in promoting and implementing diversification in the workplace. This study focuses primarily on the African American subculture using Hofstede's five dimensions.

African-Americans have been in the United States close to 400 years. During the 2014 Census, African-Americans made up 18% of the total population. Currently, the United States Census Bureau (2014, July 1) estimates that the total African American population is 45.7 million. Upon the African-Americans arrival in 1619, they were denied the right to exercise and pass down their culture from one generation to another. As the original group passed away leaving little or no cultural information to their decedents, one might conclude that the African American population should be fully acculturated or totally reprogrammed. Acculturated/acculturation as used here means a multidimensional process resulting from intergroup contact in which individuals whose primary learning has been in one culture take over characteristic ways of living from another culture. (Hazuda, 1988)

If this is the case, the results of this study should show little or no difference between the positions of the African American findings to that of U.S. findings in the five dimensions. In regards to cross-cultural psychology, whose aim has been to demonstrate that cultural factors do influence the development and behavior of individuals, would also concluded that under the African-Americans' circumstance, the outcome of culture-behavior relationship should be somewhat predictable. Meaning that individuals generally act in ways that correspond to cultural

influences and expectations (Berry, Poortinga, Segall, & Dasen, 1992).

The purpose of this study is to show that more attention should be given to subcultural differences with regards to Hofstede's dimensions. This study shows that subcultures are an important factor when promoting and implementing diversification in the workplace. This study also affirms Hofstede's statement that characterizing national culture does not mean that everyone in that nation will have all the characteristics assigned to that country (2001).

LITERATURE REVIEW

It is certain that demographic characteristics play a major role across the five dimensions. Hofstede's states, that the nationality of the respondent; their occupation, gender and age affected the scores to his questions (2001). In the Power Distance dimension he found females in clerical positions had less preference for a consultative manager than did males (Hofstede 2001). And in the Uncertainty Avoidance dimension women showed higher stress scores than the men. In the Individualism/Collectivism dimension, Hofstede (2001) found that women in individualistic cultures expressed emotions of guilt, joy, shame, anger and disgust more strongly than did men and in collectivist countries women expressed their emotions less strongly than did men (2001). In the Masculinity (MAS)/Femininity component, which is measures the gender role differentiation, Hofstede's findings concluded that countries with high MAS the values of men and women in the same occupations tended to be more different than in the countries with low MAS (2001).

Hofstede (2001) noted that when people grow older they tend to become more social and less ego-oriented (or low MAS) and at the same time, the gap between women and men's MAS values becomes smaller, and around age 50 it has closed completely. And this is attributed to the fact that at this age a woman's role as a potential   child-bearer has ended. Thus there are no more reasons for her values to differ form those of men. (2001, p. 289)

Hofstede (2001) also notes that gender role socialization starts in the family. It then continues in peer groups and in school. It is furthered through the media, starting with children's literature and reinforced by motion pictures, television, and the press. Women's magazines, in particular, are obvious gender role socializers and mental health professionals have considered gender role-confirming behavior healthy (Hofstede 2001)

Hofstede (2001) also found that gender differences in work goals, men and women's answers were compared and a significant difference tended to appear. One is that gender differences in work goal importance may easily be confounded with educational and/or occupational differences (Hofstede 2001). Goal differed by gender and by occupation, but occupation differences outweighed gender differences. Secondly, Hofstede (2001) noted that the samples from the US, the Netherlands, and France showed women compared with men tended to score interpersonal aspects, rendering service, and sometimes the physical environment as more important, and advancement, sometimes independence responsibility, and earnings as less important. In regards to the job content women scored no different from men, although they might value different detail aspects (Hofstede 2001).

With regards to studies that focus purely on African Americans and the cultural dimensions, Gushue and Constantine (2003) just recently conducted a study that examined the relationship between individualism/collectivism and self-differentiation. The respondents were African American college women attending a predominantly white university. Their study revealed that aspects of individualism and collectivism were differentially related to self-differentiation.

HYPOTHESES

African-Americans have been in the US for a quite a lengthy time period. It might be expected that they will have very similar scores to those reported in the US by Hofstede's five cultural dimensions. The hypotheses tested several demographic variables across several of these dimensions.

H1   *African-American males rank higher than females in individualism, masculinity, and power distance but lower in uncertainty avoidance.*

H2   *The younger African Americans rank higher in individualism but lower for power distance.*

H3   *African American business majors have higher scores than non-business majors in the areas of individualism, masculinity, power distance, and long-term orientation.*

H4   *African American students with higher GPAs will score lower in uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, and power distance.*

H5   *African American seniors have lower uncertainty avoidance scores than underclassmen.*

H6   *The African Americans scores will be lower than the US ranking in individualism and masculinity but higher in uncertainty avoidance, power distance, and long-term orientation.*

METHODOLOGY

Marketing research students from Jackson State University distributed surveys in classes and collected the data. Five hundred sixty-seven subjects returned completed questionnaires, for a response rate of over 95%. Participants signed consent forms and were provided contact information in case they had any questions regarding the survey instrument. Among the 567 questionnaires, 524 were usable. Questionnaires were excluded if subject indicated that they were not African-Americans, or if they were only partially completed. Of the 524 questionnaires received subjects reported being females were 57.1 %, single 90.8%, non-business major 72.1%, senior classification 31.7%, GPA from 2.50 to 2.99 (40.5%), and income less than $15,000 44.1%. The women's average age was 22 years old, which ranged in age from 18 to 57. The men ranged in age from 18 to 40 years and had an average age of 21.

The instrument survey instrument had 30 statements that covered the five cultural dimensions and eight demographic questions. The five cultural dimensions were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale that asked subjects to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement. Higher points on the Likert-type scale indicated stronger agreement with the statement and lower points indicated stronger disagreement. For example, a respondent answers a statement with a "1" indicates that the subject strongly disagrees and when a subject answers a statement with a "5" indicates that the respondent strongly agrees with the statement. A response of "3" indicates that the subject neither agrees nor disagrees with the statement. The responses to missing values across measures were substituted by a 9 and 99 for age. The reliability coefficients for each of the scales included in the research instrument. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for each scale exceeded .70, which suggests that measures are reliable. Masculinity and Confucian had alphas of .85 and .81 respectively. Collectivism and power distance had alphas of .78 and .77 respectively. Uncertainty avoidance had the highest alpha of .87. The reliability analysis shows that the five cultural dimensions' alphas were all above 77,

which means that the scale scores are internally consistent. To explain the relationship between the demographic and criterion variables analysis of variance (ANOVA) were performed. ANOVAs were employed to examine the relationship between the criterion variable and the categorically measured demographic variables of gender, major, classification, GPA, marital status, and income.

The means for collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, power distance, and Confucian dynamism are based on the five-point Likert-scale mentioned earlier, with 3.00 serving as the neutral point. As table II indicates, in regards to uncertainty avoidance, which has a mean of 3.92, African-Americans feel uncomfortable in unstructured situations and are collectivist with a mean score of 3.19. Table II also shows that African Americans are low in power distance with a mean of 2.82. When examining the mean response for Masculinity (2.57) the results indicate that the subjects take a slightly more feminine position rather than a masculine position. Lastly, the mean of 3.60 for Confucian dynamism indicates that the respondents are slightly more agreeable to accept delayed gratification of their material, social and emotional needs.

RESULTS

In general, when examining the p-values for gender, all dimensions, with exception of Confucian, were significant. Masculinity and Power Distance had a significance level of .0001. The data supports that males are more individualist than females with means of 3.29 and 3.12 respectively. The findings also support that females are more uncomfortable in unstructured situations with a mean score of 4.01 as compared to the males of 3.80. African American females are also less masculine than the males with means of 2.28 and 2.96 respectively. The study confirms that African American females with a means score of 2.69 perceive a slightly less gap of power being distributed unequally, as to the males 2.98 mean. The p-values for age were only significant for the dimensions of Collectivism and Power Distance .0001 and .046 respectively. The data also shows that younger students are more individualistic than the other age categories with a mean of 3.05. Also, the results confirm that older students are higher in power distance than their younger respondents, which was verified by their mean score of 2.97. The p-values for age were only significant for the dimensions of Collectivism and Power Distance .0001 and .046 respectively. The research also showed younger students are more individualistic than the other age categories with a mean of 3.05. The results confirm that older students are higher in power distance than their younger respondents, which was verified by their mean score of 2.97. The data supports the hypothesis that business majors, with a mean score of 3.65, have higher long-term orientation than do non-business majors, with a mean of 3.58. However, the hypothesis failed with non-business majors being more individualistic than business students with means of 3.14 and 3.33. The results affirmed that African American students with low GPAs have the highest mean of 4.08. However, it was very interesting to note that students with the highest GPA, 3.5 or more, had the next highest mean of 4.20. The data also supports that respondents with a high GPA, of 3.50 or more, were least masculine. With regards to GPA, Collectivism at .0002, Masculinity at .026, and Power Distance at .002 were significant. The results affirmed that African American students with low GPAs have the highest mean of 4.08. However, it was very interesting to note that students with the highest GPA, 3.5 or more, had the next highest mean of 4.20. The data also supports that respondents with a high GPA, of 3.50 or more, were least masculine. For the independent variable classification, the ANOVA showed only one dimension being significant and that was Uncertainty Avoidance at .0001. After converting each dimension's index values into five

Likert-categories, sorted by rank, an equivalent comparison was performed for each of the dimensional subsections. The results support that African-Americans are less individualist with a mean score of 3.19, thereby having a more neutral positioning. The results for uncertainty avoidance also affirmed the hypothesis that African-Americans have higher uncertainty avoidance, with a mean of 3.92 as compared to the U.S. with its estimated mean of 1.5. The findings of the Masculinity dimension confirmed that African-Americans, with a mean of 2.57, have a lower indexed score as compared to the US estimated national mean of 4.7. In the next dimension, power distance, the U.S. ranked low along with Britain and most of Europe therefore giving it an estimated mean of 1.8, which confirms the hypothesis that African-Americans, with a mean of 2.85, expect power to be distributed unequally. In the last dimension, Confucian dynamism, also called long-term/short-term orientation, the U.S. ranked low along with Britain, Canada and Nigeria, giving it an estimated mean of 1.9 (Hofstede 2001). This result supports the hypothesis that African American rank higher in Confucian dynamism than the US, with a mean of 3.60.

CONCLUSION

In life the majority rules, however this seems to be unfortunately true in various areas of research based on the lack of information available on this topic. It is obvious that issues for some groups are not issues for others. It is important to understand that if a part of the body does not receive proper attention it will eventually affect the whole. The current findings prove that African-Americans do not fit in the same cultural dimension as the country in which they have lived for over 380 years. African-Americans are more collectivists, more sensitive to uncertainty avoidance, more feministic, more recognizing of power distance and more receptive to Confucian Dynamism. In this study not one of the dimensions matched up. Further studies must be done in the areas mentioned above to further explain and understand the differences that currently exist.

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CONFLICT RESOLUTION WITHIN FAMILIES CAN BE A PRESCRIPTION FOR CONFLICT RESOLUTION IN ORGANIZATIONS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to describe how relevant texts in Genesis can contribute to a modern understanding of group dynamics. Based on an exegesis of key texts in Genesis using the inductive Bible Study approach, it was discovered that there is a solution for relational conflicts. This solution includes identifying what went wrong that caused the relational conflict. The guilty party must confess his or her wrongdoing. Then, the offending party must try to change his or her behavior so that he or she can live according to the desired behavior. The offended party must forgive the offender, and open up oneself to be in relation with the offender again. By following these steps, group members can resolve conflict. When people fail to admit their mistakes, conflicts will be perpetuated. In addition to the inductive Bible Study approach, the socio-rhetorical approach to exegesis was utilized which revealed evidences of groupthink (Janus, 1982) and the Abilene Paradox (Harvey, 1974) within the family dynamics of the people studied in Genesis. This study indicated that the principles for living in a family successfully during the time the events of Genesis apply to today. Dissenting opinions should be encouraged in order for families to consider all options before making decisions. Also, people should speak up and ensure that their voice is heard when they have a dissenting opinion. If people in modern organizations applied these same lessons, there would be less occurrences of groupthink and the Abilene Paradox. This is the first study to take the lessons learned about group dynamics from Genesis and apply them to group behavior for modern organizations.

COGNITIVE MODELS: PIAGET, MCCARTHY, AND ORGANIZATIONAL MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

This paper acknowledges the individual human as the most important asset and resource which is possessed by any organization. All organizations are comprised of humans regardless of size, scope, or purpose. Thus, organizations are characterized by human attributes. Essentially, organizations, akin to humans, involve periods of growth, maturation, and decline. Throughout this process, organizations exhibit various learning capacities and experience a variety of decisions throughout their infrastructures. Given that organizations are comprised of humans and are characterized by human attributes, this paper considers Piaget's and McCarthy's cognitive models within the context of organizational theory and management.

INTRODUCTION

Organizations grow and mature through time; they are dynamic, and experience change. Organizations also manifest various behaviors during various stages of their existence (French & Bell, 1999; Nelson & Quick, 2006). As organizations change, so do their processes and procedures through time. Doss and Kamery (2006a; 2006b; 2005) discuss models that may enhance the maturating of processes within organizational settings. Premeaux and Mondy (1993) investigate considerations of management philosophy. Daft (2004) indicates that organizations may be classified as learning entities. Therefore, organizations possess the potentials of changing and maturing with time. All organizations are comprised of individual humans. Regardless of the organization, humans are the most important resource that any organization possesses (Doss, Glover, Goza, & Wigginton, 2015).

More specifically, the individual human is the most important resource of any organization. Humans are unique creations, and possess the capacity to learn, grow, and change through time. Given this notion, since all organizations are comprised of humans, one may consider Piaget's cognitive modeling within the context of managed organizations. The four stages of Piaget's human cognitive development are: (1) the sensori-motor stage; (2) the pre-operational stage; (3) the concrete operational stage; and (4) the formal operational stage (Huitt & Hummel, 2003). Similarly, organizations experience similar stages during their maturation. They are created, acquire skill sets, serve specific functions, and must provide abstract organizational value through their contribution to solving problems (Nelson & Quick, 2006).

From a discrete perspective, the behaviors of individual humans may be changed to fit the organizational culture and its requirements. For instance, law enforcement officers must undergo a basic police academy to modify their behavior toward the expectations of the law enforcement organization (McElreath, et al., 2013). From a high-level perspective, organizations

must undergo change to adapt to the changing dynamics of a competitive environment, and identify methods of survival (Allen, Henley, & Doss, 2014). In both cases, learning and change occur through time both individually and organizationally. No solitary reason exists for inciting such change or learning. Instead, a variety of factors occur that invoke change. For example, changing government policies, legislation, organizational attributes, the dynamics of competition, and so forth often are catalysts for change (Doss, Guo, & Lee, 2012; McElreath, et al., 2014).

Another cognitive aspect of human development is reasoning. The human brain may demonstrate literalism through emotional functioning occurring within the right hemisphere and cognitive functioning occurring within the left hemisphere (Beaton, 1985; Cacioppo & Petty, 1981). Organizations demonstrate similar attributes within their culture. Political factions may generate alliances or grievances, and organizations must creatively demonstrate the capacity to solve problems (Nelson & Quick, 2006). The behavior of such organizations is characterized by the individual humans who comprise the cumulative organization.

MANAGEMENT CONSIDERATIONS

Numerous management philosophies exist that provide firms with an array of tools through which the management function may be embellished and implemented. Popular examples include Total Quality Management, the Capability Maturity Model, and various forms of strategic management. These considerations may influence management and leadership philosophies in diverse fashions. As examples, the functions of human resources and personnel training may find it beneficial, when assigning job functions and training functions, to match the cognitive characteristics and potentials of personnel (Doss, Holekamp, Jones, & Sumrall, 2007). Given the philosophical nature of the proposed integration coupled with the dynamic, situational attributes of organizational environments, a specific methodology for implementation would be developed by each organization who adapted the proposed philosophy.

One of the primary functions of corporate management is to maximize shareholder wealth through the functions of financial management and corporate governance (Brigham & Ehrhardt, 2005; Doss, Sumrall, McElreath, & Jones, 2013). The implementation of a management philosophy based on the cognitive aspects of individuals would contribute toward achieving the objectives and goals associated with this task. Within the context of human resources management, the use of such a management philosophy could improve the pairing of individuals with job functions because improvements within job performance, job efficiency, and job effectiveness may occur. Further, depending on the task and the cognitive attributes of the employee, some individuals may experience less difficulty when learning and performing tasks. Therefore, a form of optimization may occur within the business setting that improves organizational efficiency and reduces the costs associated with human resources training times.

According to Thompson and Strickland (2003), there are various management philosophies associated with the crafting and pursuits of strategy. Generally, such philosophies are associated with the crafting of strategy, implementation of strategy, the evaluation of situations, and the pursuit of strategic goals within the context of human perspectives. The use of the proposed cognitive management philosophy could enhance strategic pursuits with respect to organizational philosophies through approaching strategy from a cognitive context with respect to identifying and attaining objectives and goals. As a result, management philosophies integrated within the organizational structure may integrate and apply cognitive factors with respect to the pursuit of strategy.

Regardless of the management philosophy within an organization, all organizations experience some types of decisions and learning through time. Essentially, all organizations experience periods of change throughout their respective periods of growth, maturation, and decline. Rendering decisions and managing change are not always easy tasks; in some cases, they may be quite formidable. Any number of impediments exist that may confound or increase the difficulty of rendering organizational decisions, ranging from the cognitive ability of the decision-maker to uncertainties of the decision domain (Doss, Sumrall, & Jones, 2012). In some cases, engaging personnel directly within the decision process may improve their levels of organizational commitment (Sumrall, Cox, Doss, & Jones, 2008; Sumrall, Doss, & Cox, 2007; Sumrall, Cox, & Doss, 2007). Given these cognitive aspects of humans with respect to the rendering of decisions and managing change organizationally, one may ponder the cognitive models of Piaget and McCarthy within the context of organizational behavior and management.

PIAGET, MCCARTHY, AND MANAGEMENT PARADIGMS

One may consider whether the stages of Piaget's cognitive development also apply to organizations with respect to the management philosophies and leadership paradigms of organizations as firms grow and mature from the perspective of organizational behavior. Also, one may consider whether McCarthy's left-brain and right-brain concepts could be applied to the management philosophies and leadership paradigms of organizations in any capacity as firms grow and mature from the perspective of organizational behavior. One may also consider an integration of these two ideas with respect to the growth and maturation of an organization coupled with the associated attributes of human management. Humans supposedly progress through Piaget's four stages, and develop to exhibit the left-brain and right-brain characteristics described by McCarthy.

Generally, within most organizations, quality programs exist to some degree (TQM, CMM, BPM, BPI, etc.), and these quality programs represent both qualitative and quantitative methodologies. Some are significantly more philosophical in nature (e.g., TQM, CMM, etc.) whereas others are significantly more quantitative (e.g., Six-Sigma, benchmarking, etc.). The same concept is applicable for managed environments because some organizational paradigms are more philosophical and some are more quantitative in nature.

Organizations are comprised of humans, and they may exhibit some characteristics of the humans constituting the organizational entity. Therefore, based on a philosophical perspective, as a company grows and matures, could the organization itself also manifest a set of integrative stages, similar to those suggested by Piaget and McCarthy for humans, with respect to organizational mindsets and philosophical management styles when using the aforementioned management philosophies?

Within most managed systems, a hierarchical chain of command may exist within the organizational structure. Given this consideration, could the philosophies associated with financial management, quality management, strategic management, etc., be considered from an organizational perspective with respect to the ease of fit of the advocated management philosophy based on the integration of Piaget's stages with McCarthy's hemispheric brain classifications as organizations progress through their respective stages of growth, maturation, and decline? Therefore, would a left-brained manager thrive within a qualitative management philosophy whereas a right-brained person would thrive within a quantitative management setting? If so, where would the strongest manifestation of the management entity exist with respect to the organizational phase of maturity according to the stages delineated by Piaget?

Basically, would left-brained personnel implementing a philosophical TQM philosophy show the strongest performance during the pre-op, concrete, pre-formal, or formal stages of the cognitive development of the organizational mind of the business itself under various leadership styles, maturation of the organization, and various project types? One may also consider this concept from the perspective of right-brained managers thriving in a quantitative setting. Could a model, perhaps using multi-dimensional mapping, be proposed based on these questions, and could it be applied to various styles of management, behavioral finance, quality management, program management, and corporate leadership? If so, how could such a model influence management and leadership philosophies within organizations?

CONCLUSIONS

Regardless of the management philosophies advocated among the leaders of a firm, all leaders share the common attributes of the human stages of learning and human cognitive capacities. All humans are unique, and demonstrate the capacity for both left-brain and right-brain dominances, and all humans experience various stages of learning during their maturations. When considered from an integrative perspective, these attributes may generate the baseline of a management model that embellishes the human aspects of management philosophy through an applied perspective among a variety of contexts. Therefore, the implementation of such a management philosophy may generate various amounts of optimization among firms through improved human resources functions and operations by better pairing humans with tasks that contribute to strategic endeavors. Continuous improvement is a tenet of nearly all quality and improvement paradigms, including the Capability Maturity Model (CMM). The CMM and its derivatives accommodate progressive process maturation through time, and is supplementary method for a higher quality paradigm, such as Total Quality Management (TQM) (Doss, 2004; Doss, 2014). Given these notions, could a model be develop toward integrating Piaget's cognitive modeling within the contexts of CMM process maturity stages through time organizationally?

Given that organizations experience various stages of growth, maturation, and decline through time, that organizations are comprised of humans, and are characterized by human attributes, future research may consider a two-fold model of organizations. Essentially, as the organization progresses through the stages of growth and maturity, Piaget's cognitive models may be useful for examining a variety of issues, such as organizational learning and behaviors. As the human personnel become more experienced and sharpen their skills to exhibit left-brain or right-brain capacities, individuals could be assigned to roles that are commensurate with their individual cognitive capacities as they experience career progression and increased responsibilities. Thus, future researchers may examine the following questions: Does Piaget's cognitive modeling have value within the context of organizational growth, maturity, and decline? Does McCarthy's cognitive modeling supplement any instantiation of Piaget's modeling within the context of organizational theory? Also, could Piaget's and McCarthy's theories integrate with respect to managed organizations in order to address issues of organizational behavior and management?

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NECESSARY EVIL: ASSESSING FULL-TIME VS. PART-TIME STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF PLAGIARISM

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ABSTRACT

This study examines student perceptions of plagiarism within a Southern, Division-II teaching institution. This study employed a five-point Likert-scale to examine differences of perceptions between full-time vs. part-time students. No statistically significant outcome was observed involving the notion that plagiarism is perceived as a necessary evil. Respectively, the analyses of the means showed that respondents tended toward disagreement concerning the notion whether plagiarism is a necessary evil. Overall, the study suggests that students do not perceive plagiarism to be a necessary evil.

INTRODUCTION

The host institution for this study is a Southern, four-year, regional teaching institution that enrolled approximately 5,000 students. The host institution commenced various exchange and international agreements with European and Chinese universities as methods of increasing its enrollment, especially within its business college. These alliances were intended to promote international goodwill, attract foreign students, and enhance institutional attractiveness and competitiveness academically. Such endeavors are not uncommon when attempting to vitalize competitiveness, attractiveness, and viability of institutions and programs (Doss, et al., 2015a). Despite the successfulness of these agreements and mutual programs toward satisfying its expectations, the host institution experience an increase in its observed quantities of plagiarism incidents.

Although the host institution adhered to its integrity and disciplinary policies, it opted to improve its understanding of the increased, diverse study body. The host institution disseminated and analyzed a survey to gauge the opinions and perceptions of plagiarism that existed within its student body. Three issues were investigated within the study: 1) attitudes and opinions regarding the necessary evil aspects of plagiarism, 2) attitudes and opinions of professionalism, and 3) attitudes and opinions regarding the legality of plagiarism. Previous analyses of the collected plagiarism data examined stratifications of undergraduate versus graduate student opinions and domestic versus international student opinions within the business college of the host institution (Allen, et al., 2015; Doss, et al., 2015b). This study represents a follow-up study to its predecessors via an examining of the opinions and perceptions of full-time versus part-time students regarding their attitudes about plagiarism.

LITERATURE

Qi (2015) reveals an astounding quantity of students that were dismissed from American institutions of higher learning. During 2014, approximately 8,000 Chinese students were expelled from American universities (Qi, 2015). These dismissals occurred because of allegations involving dishonesty within the academic setting (Qi, 2015). Although incidents of plagiarism are not uncommon within the higher education domain, plagiarism allegations also exist among profession environments. For instance, it was learned that the German defense minister resigned because approximately 20% of his graduate thesis contained plagiarism (Lose, 2011). Commercial venues also exhibit allegations of plagiarism that involve court disputes. A newsworthy example that gained much media attention was the dispute involving the contested lyrics for Vanilla Ice's song *Ice Ice Baby* (Allen, et. al., 2015; Doss, Glover, Goza, & Wigginton, 2015). Although one may believe that such issues are clearly defined legally, they are often riddled with ambiguity and challenges because law within the digital domain is emerging and maturing (McElreath, et al., 2013). Maurer, Kappe, & Zaka (2006) argue that plagiarism represents an intentional form of thievery. Currie (1998), regarding differences of cultural perspectives, reveals that plagiarism is a transgression in which Western cultures are often violated. Among foreign cultures, it may be expected and considered as normal to use the exact verbiage or the ideas of someone else because they are believed to belong to the entirety of society (Mundava & Chaudhuri, 2007). These examples show the pervasiveness and ambiguity of defining and sanctioning plagiarism.

Plagiarism presents complex issues that range from lowly classrooms to the heads of nations. Although the concept of plagiarism is understood easily, certain definitions vary across domains, especially the sciences (Doss, et al., 2015a). No solitary reason exists for committing plagiarism. Bista (2011) cites language unfamiliarity and the stresses of experiencing timed examinations. Similarly, no consensus exists regarding what punitive measures are appropriate for instances of plagiarism (Doss, et al., 2015b). Plagiarism incidents are both unique and situational thereby necessitating a range of several outcomes (Allen, et al., 2015). Given these notions, the host institution performed a survey to examine various facets and opinions of plagiarism that existed within its student body.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESIS

The research question of the proposed research was: Do the respondents perceive plagiarism as a necessary evil? Derived from the research question, the hypothesis was:

> H_1:   There is no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of full-time students versus part-time students regarding the notion that plagiarism is a necessary evil.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This study used a Likert-scale wherein the values ranged between 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree). The value of 3 represented neutral responses. The survey queried student perceptions of ethics, legality, and professionalism involving plagiarism. The survey instrument was approved by the Institutional Review Board, contained an informed consent notice, and was disseminated to male and female students within the College of Business. The survey instrument consisted of two separate sections: 1) plagiarism questions, and 2) demographic questions.

The use of one-way, two-tailed ANOVA facilitated examining differences of perceptions between full-time and part-time students. The Chi-Squared method was used to explore the potential of bias within the study by examining the distribution of expected responses versus the distribution of actual responses with respect to quantities of males and females. The level of significance was 0.05 for all analyses. The Cronbach method was used to explore internal consistency and reliability.

Respondents consisted of male and female students enrolled in both day and night classes. The host environment exhibited a total of 312 enrollees within its College of Business. The acceptable sample size totaled 121 respondents (95% confidence level; 5 points). The survey was administered during the first ten minutes of both day and night courses within the College of Business. A total of 178 survey responses were received thereby representing approximately 56% of the enrollees. This quantity of responses surpasses the minimum quantity of responses that was deemed necessary for ensuring that the sample exhibited the characteristics of the population. This high response rate is attributable to the fact that surveys were disseminated directly to respondents during course periods (i.e., captive audiences). Respondent duplication was unallowable.

The scaled questions were evaluated through means analyses to determine the characteristics of directionality within the received responses for each of the question scales. Mean analysis approaches are subjective regarding their constraints (McNabb, 2010). Within this study, the constraints for analyzing mean response values were: 1) if mean < 2.5, then disagree with the notion; 2) if $2.5 \leq$ mean ≤ 3.5, then neither agree nor disagree with the notion; and 3) if mean > 3.5, then agree with the notion.

FINDINGS

The host institution indicated the presences of 267 male students and 45 female students enrolled within its business college. This distribution was the foundation for Chi-Square analysis. The Chi-Square analysis outcome ($\alpha = 0.05; X^2 = 0.0000$) showed a statistically significant outcome. The potential of bias within this study is suggested. The Cronbach values were 0.84 for the overall study and 0.86 for the scale. The vast majority of students, approximately 91.62%, represented full-time students whereas approximately 8.38% of the respondents indicated a part-time status.

Numerical descriptions of the scaled questions, which reflected attitudes about whether plagiarism was a necessary evil, are presented within Table 1.

Table 1 NUMERICAL DESCRIPTIONS FOR THE SCALE Necessary Evil: Questions 1-12					
Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance	Mode	Median
Scaled Ques. 1-12	1.99	1.13	1.28	1	2
Full-Time	1.98	1.24	1.24	1	2
Part-Time	2.11	1.66	1.66	1	2

The ANOVA outcomes are presented within the following table. The hypothesis test used a significance level of 0.05.

Table 2 ANOVA OUTCOMES Hypothesis Testing Value			
Scale	ANOVA p-value	Effect Size	Statistical Significance
Ques. 1-12	0.1612	0.0009	None

$\alpha = 0.05$

No statistically significant outcome was observed regarding the scale. Respectively, the scale investigated whether plagiarism was perceived as a necessary evil. With respect to the scale, the analysis of the means showed that both groups tended toward disagreement regarding the notion that plagiarism is a necessary evil.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

No statistically significant difference exists regarding the scaled items involving the notion that plagiarism is a necessary evil. Given the mean analysis of this scale, both groups, full-time vs. part-time students, showed disagreement with this notion. Therefore, it is concluded that plagiarism is not perceived as a necessary evil among the respondents.

Plagiarism is not the only issue that affects institutional settings. Among business schools, a variety of issues affect academic settings. Common examples affecting students range from class attendance to grade inflation, (Moore, Armstrong, & Pearson, 2008; Pitts, Doss, & Kamery, 2005a; Pitts, Doss, & Kamery, 2005b). Future studies may examine the potential of relationships between class attendance and plagiarism and instances of plagiarism with respect to perceptions of grade inflation.

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A SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW OF VIRTUAL PRESENTATION INSTRUCTION: ARE WE TEACHING THE SKILLS THAT EMPLOYERS EXPECT OF COLLEGE GRADUATES?

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ABSTRACT

What do employers expect college graduates to know about virtual presentations, emeetings, and webinars? Are they expecting them to have experience in creating and delivering them? The advent of Skype, GoToMeeting, WebEx, Google Hangouts, YouTube, TED Talks, and many other platforms has transformed the way in which we meet, present, and interact.

This research project involves a new or emerging topic, that of virtual presentations and the skills that these presentations require. The use of a systematic literature review for the methodology in the study revealed published research on presentation skills in the virtual environment to be nonexistent. In addition, the potential correlation between oral communication skills that are desired/expected of college graduates and virtual presentation skills has not been established. Employers expect college graduates to possess oral communication skills; however, the research does not indicate if employers anticipate that those skills translate to the virtual environment as well.

PERSPECTIVES OF TECHNOLOGY AND THE INSTRUMENTALIST PARADIGM

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ABSTRACT

Human nature is static through time whereas technology changes periodically. Given this notion, this paper examines the basic concept of technology, and provides a brief overview of technological change and philosophical tenets that permeate technological domains. The authors incorporate various examples of technological change are both beneficial and detrimental among modern lifestyles. Since technology changes through time, the authors also provide some commentary regarding emerging technologies.

INTRODUCTION

Technology is defined as the "application of practical sciences to industry or commerce," the "methods, theory, and practices governing such application," and as the "total knowledge and skills available to any human society for industry, art, science," and so forth (Technology, 2015). Although these definitions of technology share commonness regarding its characteristics of knowledge and the application thereof, technology may be perceived as a neutral tool for enhancing human performance among a variety of endeavors (Dakers, 2006).

The tool perspective of technology involves considerations of various viewpoints philosophically, some of which exhibit various contrasts. More specifically, three primary views are as follows: 1) utopian determinism in which technological advancement is hailed as an inevitable resource for ensuring humanity's salvation; 2) dystopian determinism in which technology is viewed morally as an autonomous, inevitable, and corruptive force, which shall eventually result humanity's ultimate destruction; and 3) instrumentalism in which technology is perceived as a resource which is controlled by humans, and its utilization generates either disastrous or beneficial outcomes with respect to its applications (Surry & Farquhar, 1997). Considering these views provides some insight regarding technology. The latter of these philosophical approaches is commensurate with the notion that technology is a neutral tool whereby the determinist approaches are invalidated and discredited (Hankanen, 2007). The instrumentalist perspective is also commensurate with the notions that technology is created by humans, and that it is controllable by humans (Hankanen, 2007).

The instrumentalist tool perspective of technology may be considered within the context of relatively modern information systems. Over the last 30 years, much change has occurred among information processing environments, both tangibly and intangibly. Although the history

of modern information systems concepts is traceable to the 1960s, the preceding 30 years are best characterized as the Internet Age. During this period, the growth of the Internet culminated in its maturing to penetrate over half of American households just after the advent of the twentieth century (Lehman-Wilzig & Cohen-Avigdor, 2004). This period is also encompassed by changes among computing systems that reflected much change in processor designs and capacities as well as software developments that pervaded American society personally and professionally (O'Regan, 2012). Within the context of hardware technologies, miniaturization and enhanced processor speeds and capacities provided a basis for the introduction of modern cellular telephones and smart technologies. From the perspective of software, programming language design entered its fifth generation wherein algorithmic emphasis is less important than the specification of problem attributes and constraints within the context of solving of certain problems (O'Regan, 2012). From both the hardware and software perspectives, these technological advancements are indicative of the instrumentalist philosophy because such contrivances are crafted by, implemented by, and controlled by humans with respect to their individual motivations and purposes.

INSTRUMENTALIST CONTEXTS

Both the beneficial and detrimental aspects of modern technologies may be considered within this instrumentalist context. Within the context of benevolence, itemized below are various ways in which technology is used and controlled beneficially:

1. The Wii gaming and entertainment systems were introduced in 2006 (Cassella, 2010). These systems integrated human motion and activity within the context of gaming and virtual competition.
2. During 2007, Apple introduced the iPhone thereby instigating the smartphone industry (Heussner, 2009).
3. During 2009, Mercedes introduced a night-vision system within its automobiles that is capable of detecting pedestrians and displaying warnings within the driver's control display (Heaps, 2015).
4. Technology is used for the purposes of financial valuation and capital budgeting in both the public and private sectors (Doss, Troxel, & Sumrall, 2010).
5. In 2010, Cross Path Detection systems, a vehicular radar technology, was introduced to provide aft views of space behind vehicles to ensure that drivers are able to avoid rear obstacles, such as approaching traffic (Heaps, 2015).
6. During recent years, any number of mobile applications was developed for smartphones. For instance, Apple introduced Apple Health, an application for tracking motional activities of users, such as the quantity of steps taken within a specific period (Clover, 2014).
7. Various tools for satisfying human energy needs, such as generating bio-fuels and fossil fuels (Doss, Troxel, & Sumrall, 2010).
8. Training tools to support virtual learning environments wherein some goal, operators, methods, and selection rules exist (Allen, McElreath, Henley, & Doss, 2014). Such technology is useful for supporting educational environments among settings in which the delivery of educational materials is often difficult, such as prisons (McElreath, et al., 2015).

The preceding listing is uncomprehensive; many others exist. Regardless, they show the ability of humans to craft, implement, and control technologies for benevolent purposes. Such notions correspond to the instrumentalist philosophy of technology. Conversely, however,

technologies may be used for detrimental purposes. Itemized below are malevolent examples and considerations of this perspective:

1. During 2008, within 12 hours, thieves stole a staggering $9 million in cash by robbing automated teller machines that were located among three continents and 280 cities (FBI, 2009).
2. Heinous acts of terror perpetrated by eco-terrorists, including the fire-bombing destruction of research laboratories (Doss, Jones, & Sumrall, 2010).
3. Terrorist and criminal organizations may leverage the Internet for the purposes of communication and sharing information (Doss, Glover, Goza, & Wigginton, 2015).
4. The Internet may be used to perpetrate fraud (McElreath, et al., 2013).
5. The Internet may be used for pirating counterfeit software and goods (McElreath, et al., 2013).
6. Technology may be used for stalking and facilitating violence among academic settings (Doss, Troxel, Sumrall, & Jones, 2010).
7. Similarly, technology is a tool through which harassment may occur (Troxel & Doss, 2010).
8. Technology may be used to facilitate virtual counterparts of physical criminal acts, such as financial fraud (Doss, Henley, & McElreath, 2013a; Doss, Henley, & McElreath, 2013b).

Again, these examples represent an uncomprehensive listing of detrimental uses of modern technology. Many other examples of such negativity exist. Regardless, these uses are also representative of the instrumentalist philosophy of technology because they show the human leveraging of modern technologies for detrimental purposes. Given these notions, technology may be leveraged harmfully just as it is beneficially. The events of September 11, 2001 represented a tautology regarding this notion. After all, the aircraft used normally to ferry passengers innocuously and safely to any number of destinations within the nation (i.e., benevolence) were hijacked, weaponized, and used to inflict mass harm, death, and destruction in an egregious, terrorist act of moral turpitude (i.e., malevolence) (McElreath, et al., 2014).

No one can accurately and fully predict and know with absolute certainty the characteristics of future events. Regardless, one may speculate the attributes of emerging technologies. Only time will show the realities of their potential benefits or detriments. Examples of emerging technologies are given as follows:

1. *Fuel-Cell Automobiles* – These vehicles are expected to have no emissions, and use hydrogen as their fuel source (Meyerson, 2015).
2. *Genetic Engineering* - Advanced genetic engineering techniques wherein the genetic codes of plants may be edited (i.e., programmed) toward improving their nutritional values (Meyerson, 2015).
3. *Artificial Intelligence* –Artificial intelligence technologies are expected to facilitate the uses of driverless vehicles and automated aerial drones. Such vehicles are expected to autonomously avoid obstacles (Meyerson, 2015).
4. *Customized Manufacturing* – The uses of three-dimensional printing and personalized product design are expected to contribute toward the decentralization of manufacturing, and become catalysts for customization among a variety of different products (Meyerson, 2015).
5. *Neuromorphic Technology* – This type of emerging technology is expected to mimic human brains via mimicking the architectural constructs of the human brain thereby facilitating interconnectivity for increasing computer processing potentials (Meyerson, 2015).
6. *Medical Technology* – The human genome may be analyzed and used for developing specific treatments for medical conditions (Meyerson, 2015).
7. *Public Safety* – Intellistreet systems may eventually be used to measure rising flood waters in urban environments and to disseminate public warning information during emergencies (McElreath, 2014).

GENERATIONAL PERSPECTIVES

The current generation exhibits individuals whose entire lives have occurred throughout the Internet Age. These individuals have experienced the pervasiveness of modern digital technology within practically every aspect of their lives, ranging from personal communication to medical treatments. Their worldview differs greatly from that of their predecessor generations whose formative years were pervaded by numerous manual systems and resources that were later replaced by digital technological advancements. The emerging technologies of former generations represent the common technologies of the modern generation. Similarly, the emerging technologies of the current generation will be deemed as the common technologies of future generations. Essentially, this attribute of technological change represents a cyclical paradigm regarding the continuous envisioning, crafting, developing, emerging, maturing, saturating, and accepting of technology societally and generationally.

CONCLUSIONS

The preceding notions show three themes regarding technologies: 1) technology is ubiquitous; 2) technology has philosophical connotations; and 3) technology is dynamic because it continuously changes, emerges, and matures through time to become accepted and common within a society. Regardless of these themes, human motivation and intention affect the use of technology through time. Any technology may be leveraged for benevolence or malevolence depending upon the desires and motivations of its users. Overall, human nature is static whereas the technological products of humans are dynamic. In other words, human nature is unchanging whereas technologies are unceasingly changing through time. As technologies emerge, humans will craft some method of ensuring that they satisfy their needs and wants either personally or societally. Humans will always have individual or group motivations (whether benevolent or malevolent) that influence the uses of their respective technologies. Globally, among societies, the motivations and uses of technologies often vary, and may be opposite in their respective perspectives and philosophical foundations. For instance, technology is used by terrorist organizations to inflict harm just as it is used by authorities to deter and avert acts of terrorism. The intersection of these opposite perspectives is technology – the tool through which the actions and endeavors of both terrorist and non-terrorist factions is facilitated in time.

Although technology, regardless of its form, is a tool whereby human intention and motivation influences its uses through time, its existence is a testament to the cleverness and innovation of humans. Since the discovery of fire and the crafting of the wheel, humans have devised and crafted an innumerable array of ingenious technologies. Modern lifestyles are permeated and affected by numerous technologies ranging from modalities of transportation to the wonders of electronic communications. Regardless of such advancements, technology represents a staple of societal function and a foundation of modern lifestyles. Given such pervasiveness, regardless of either deterministic or instrumentalist technological philosophies or the technological forms, technology is undeniably a cornerstone of human existence.

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PROFESSIONALISM: ASSESSING FULL-TIME VS. PART-TIME STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF PLAGIARISM

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ABSTRACT

This study examines student perceptions of plagiarism within a Southern, Division-II teaching institution. This study employed a five-point Likert-scale to examine differences of perceptions between full-time students and part-time students. No statistically significant outcome was observed involving the notion that plagiarism was perceived as unprofessional. Respectively, the analyses of the means showed that respondents tended toward neutrality concerning whether plagiarism is unprofessional. Respondents perceived few, if any, attributes of unprofessionalism.

INTRODUCTION

The host institution for this study is a Southern, rural, four-year comprehensive institution located. The cumulative enrollment was approximately 5,000 students when this study was performed. A total of 312 students comprised the student enrollment of the business college within the host institution. Over the last five years, the host institution experienced several international agreements with Chinese and European institutions. The purposes of these agreements were primarily intended to increase institutional enrollment, enhance the attractiveness of programs, and to foster goodwill among international higher education institutions. Such endeavors are accepted methods of differentiating institutional attributes whereby students may be enticed to attend the institution and for improving institutional competitiveness (Doss, et al, 2015a). These agreements extended to majors in finance, management, marketing, and information systems.

Although its differentiation efforts attracted a variety of domestic and international students, the host institution experienced numerous instances of plagiarism. As a result, the host institution sought to better understand its student body via examinations of student opinions regarding plagiarism within the context of professionalism. Analysis occurred in conjunction with a Liker-scale survey. This study represents an extension of former studies that analyzed the collected data. Previous analyses explored opinions and attitudes of undergraduate versus graduate students and domestic versus international students (Allen, et al., 2015; Doss, et al., 2015b). The study herein supplements the preceding analyses by examining the perceptions of full-time students versus part-time students.

LITERATURE

Plagiarism exists everywhere from academic to professional settings. Currie (1998), with respect to societal and cultural differences, reveals that plagiarism is a transgression that violates the academics of Western cultures. In some cultures, attributions and references are unnecessary because ideas, concepts, and materials are believed to belong to the entirety of society (Mundava & Chaudhuri, 2007). The ubiquitous characteristics of plagiarism are undeniable. At the Canadian University of Alberta, a speech given by an academic dean involved plagiarism allegations thereby causing resignation from employment (Dyer, 2011). In Germany, allegations of a plagiarized thesis resulted in the resignation of the defense minister and revoking of the academic degree (Lose, 2011). Legally, plagiarism allegations often involve court cases, such as the contested lyrics to Vanilla Ice's song Ice Ice Baby (Allen, et. al., 2015; Doss, Glover, Goza, & Wigginton, 2015b). Because digital laws are ambiguous, such lawsuits are often challenging experiences for all parties (McElreath, et al., 2013). Plagiarism occurs for many reasons, ranging from issues of language misunderstanding unfamiliarity to the stresses and rigors of timed examinations (Bista, 2011). No universal definition of plagiarism exists despite most people understanding its basic premise, and no consensus exists regarding plagiarism sanctions (Doss, et al., 2015a). Instead, each plagiarism happening is situational, and involves a range of varied outcomes (Allen, et al., 2015). Motivations for plagiarism may be likened unto an intentional form of thievery (Maurer, Kappe, & Zaka, 2006). Motivations for criminality that exist in physical reality also transcend digital and virtual environments as catalysts for criminality among cyber domains (Doss, Henley, & McElreath, 2013a; Doss, Henley, & McElreath, 2013b). Given these notions, plagiarism may exist in both virtual and physical domains.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESIS

The primary research question of the proposed research was: Do the respondents perceive plagiarism as unprofessional? Derived from the research question, the hypothesis was:

H_1:   There is no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of full-time students versus part-time students regarding the notion that plagiarism is unprofessional.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This study used a Likert-scale wherein the values were specified as follows: 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (agree), 3 (neutral), 4 (agree), and 5 (strongly agree). The survey queried student perceptions of professionalism involving plagiarism. The survey instrument was approved by the Institutional Review Board, and contained an informed consent notice. The survey instrument consisted of two separate sections: 1) plagiarism questions, and 2) demographic questions.

Respondents consisted of part-time and full-time students enrolled in both day and night classes. The host environment exhibited a total of 312 enrollees within its College of Business. The acceptable sample size totaled 121 respondents (95% confidence level; 5 points). The survey

was administered during the first ten minutes of both day and night courses within the College of Business. A total of 178 survey responses were received thereby representing approximately 56% of the enrollees. This quantity of responses surpasses the minimum quantity of responses that was deemed necessary for ensuring that the sample exhibited the characteristics of the population. This high response rate is attributable to the fact that surveys were disseminated directly to respondents during course periods (i.e., captive audiences). Respondent duplication was unallowable.

The level of significance was 0.05 for all forms of quantitative analysis involving hypotheses. The use of one-way, two-tailed ANOVA facilitated examining differences of perceptions between full-time versus part-time students. The Chi-Squared method was used to explore the potential of bias within the study by examining the distribution of expected responses versus the distribution of actual responses with respect to quantities of males and females. The Cronbach method was used to examine reliability.

Mean analysis approaches are subjective regarding their constraints (McNabb, 2010). Within this study, the constraints for analyzing mean response values and directionality of responses were: 1) if mean < 2.5, then disagreeing; 2) if $2.5 \leq$ mean ≤ 3.5, then neither agreeing nor disagreeing; and 3) if mean > 3.5, then agreeing.

FINDINGS

The host institution indicated the presences of 267 male students and 45 female students enrolled within its College of Business. The Chi-Squared method was used to analyze the distribution of the disseminated surveys versus the observed distribution that was reported within the returned surveys. The Chi-Square analysis outcome ($\alpha = 0.05$; $X^2 = 0.0000$) showed a statistically significant outcome thereby suggesting study bias. Regarding reliability, the Cronbach values were 0.84 for the overall study, and 0.67 for the question scale.

The vast majority of students, approximately 91.62%, represented full-time students whereas approximately 8.38% of the respondents indicated a part-time status. The respondent demographics showed that approximately 53.85% of the respondents were male whereas approximately 46.15% of the respondents were female. Approximately 85.44% of the students were undergraduates whereas approximately 14.56% of the respondents were graduate students. Approximately 87.53% of the students were enrolled in day classes whereas approximately 12.65% were enrolled in night classes.

Numerical descriptions of the question scale are presented within Table 1. This scale measured perceptions about professionalism and plagiarism.

Table 1 NUMERICAL DESCRIPTIONS FOR THE SCALE Necessary Evil: Questions 1-12					
Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance	Mode	Median
Scaled Ques. 1-12	2.60	1.36	1.85	1	3
Full-Time	2.65	1.35	1.83	1	3
Part-Time	2.77	1.83	1.96	4	3

The ANOVA outcome is presented within the following table (significance level of 0.05).

Table 2 ANOVA OUTCOMES Hypothesis TestingValue			
Scale	ANOVA p-value	Effect Size	Statistical Significance
Ques. 1-12	0.1216	0.0009	None

$\alpha = 0.05$

No statistically significant outcome was observed regarding the scale. With respect to the scale, the analysis of the means showed that both groups tended toward neutrality regarding the notion that plagiarism was deemed unprofessional.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The question scale showed no statistically significant difference in the difference of opinions between full-time versus part-time students regarding the notion that plagiarism is unprofessional. Given the mean analysis of this scale, respondents expressed neutrality (i.e., neither agreed nor disagreed) regarding this issue. Therefore, it is concluded that respondents perceived few, if any, attributes of unprofessionalism. Many of the respondents were undergraduates that never experienced professional work settings. Therefore, youth (i.e., age) and respondent inexperience among professional work settings may contribute toward an ignorance of fully understanding the survey item.

Plagiarism is not the only issue that affects institutional settings. Instead, a variety of issues affect academic settings that may incorporate some examination of plagiarism. Common examples affecting students range from class attendance (or absenteeism) to grade inflation, (Moore, Armstrong, & Pearson, 2008; Pitts, Doss, & Kamery, 2005a; Pitts, Doss, & Kamery, 2005b). Future studies may examine the potential of relationships between class attendance and plagiarism and instances of plagiarism with respect to perceptions of grade inflation.

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WORK GROUP TRUST: DIFFERENCES BETWEEN INDIVIDUALIST AND COLLECTIVIST CULTURES

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ABSTRACT

Trust facilitates open communication, information sharing, and conflict management (Seppanen, Hassan, & Aldemir, 2011). Organizational trust involves letting someone do something without micro-managing and double-checking (Leck & Robitaille, 2011). In organizational literature and research, trust is recognized as a critical component among people, groups, and organizations (Dakhli, 2009). Trust aids in predictability and strategic flexibility for members of organizations. This paper focuses on how work group trust differs between individualist and collectivist cultures, namely Russia (collectivist) and United States (individualist).

General research suggests that collectivist cultures "generate lower levels of trust" (Simpson, 2006, p.1625) than individualist societies, such as the United States. Existing research on trust and collectivist cultures has yet to look at how or if trust exists when a collectivist culture and an individualist culture co-exist within the same organization or work group; therefore, this paper uses a qualitative design to study work group trust among companies in the United States with large populations of both Russian and American employees.

The study focuses on three areas – trust in others for personal issues, trust in others for work issues, trust in the group as a whole. This study illuminates similarities and differences regarding work group trust in Americans and Russians working for a Russian-owned, U.S.-based IT organization. While findings show both groups moved away from their cultural extremes of willingness to and unwillingness to trust for Russians and Americans, respectively, and towards a generally trusting nature, the findings suggest a need for additional research into the reasoning behind both cultures' propensity to trust in a given situations despite their cultural background. More research could also be done with regards to gender differences and age differences within both individualist and collectivist cultures and how the aforementioned demographics affect work group trust.

Keywords: *work group trust, collectivism, individualism, Russia, United States*

INTRODUCTION

In organizational literature, trust is recognized as a critical component (Dakhli, 2009). Yukl (2013) states that without mutual trust in a team setting, performance decreases. Agarwal (2013) discusses trust's "positive influence on organizational and member outcomes including organizational effectiveness, job satisfaction, and team performance" (p.24). Research continues to demonstrate the benefits organizations and individuals recognize when trust is present (Simpson, 2006). This research focuses on work group trust between American and Russian employees in a Russian-owned IT company in the United States. Russia is known as a collectivist culture (Grachev & Bobina, 2006; Abe & Iwasaki, 2010; Michailova & Hutchings, 2006) that values membership in and loyalty to groups (Yukl, 2013). The United States is known to be an individualistic culture (Sims, 2009) that values an individual's needs over those of a

group or broader society (Yukl, 2013, p.366). Research suggests that collectivist cultures "generate lower levels of trust" (Simpson, 2006, p.1625) than individualist societies. It is undeniable that cultural factors impact many aspects of social relationships, including trust; therefore, a deeper look at the cultural gap between two differing countries presents an interesting perspective on work group trust in a multi-cultural environment.

Statement of the Problem

Existing research on trust and collectivism has yet to look at trust when a collectivist culture and an individualist culture exist within the same work group. A number of Russian IT organizations have established a strong presence in the United States. As dichotomous cultures in the area of collectivism, this mixing of cultures could potentially result in work group and organizational issues and lack of trust between the two cultures. Addressing this issue will begin to show how Russian and American employees in the United States can better understand one another's culture with regards to collectivism and trust and essentially work better together for the sake of the work group and broader organization. Prior research has yet to address work group trust in Russian-owned organizations (collectivist) in the United States (individualist).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine how work group trust differs in organizations where both individualist and collectivist cultures are present; more specifically, this study looked at whether a Russian-owned IT organization in the United States has work group trust issues due to cultural differences between Russians and Americans. This is an important area of study as understanding the differences between the two cultures with regards to trust could have significant impact on work group and organizational effectiveness and success.

Research Questions

This study sought to answer the following questions about work group trust:

> *Q1   How does work group trust differ between Russians and Americans in Russian-owned IT organizations in the United States?*

> *Q2   Do cultural differences of individualism in Americans and collectivism in Russians play a role in work group trust between Americans and Russians?*

Conceptual Framework

Since the mid-1970s, many studies have looked at the existence and effects of trust in organizations (Simpson, 2006; Berigan & Irwin, 2011; Seppanen, Blomquist, & Sundquist, 2007; Dakhli, 2009; Semercioz, Hassan, & Aldemir, 2011; Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007; Boutros & Joseph, 2007; Dervitsiotis, 2006; Selmer, Jonasson, & Lauring, 2013; Agarwal, 2013). Johnson and Johnson (1975) emphasized the necessity of trust for cooperation and effective communication in groups. Larson and LaFasto (1989) provided four reasons why trust fosters teamwork. Trust it is undeniably a factor of whether or not groups are successful at achieving their goals. Culture plays a large role in someone's propensity to trust. One aspect of culture – Individualism vs. Collectivism – indicates the likelihood of a particular culture to trust

individuals inside and outside of a group in which they are a member (Yukl, 2013). Collectivist cultures have strong in-group ties that promote trust among members, but distrust outside of the group (Irwin & Berigan, 2013). Individualist cultures have weak in-group ties and are therefore more trusting of outsiders than group members (2013). Cultural studies show Russians to be generally collectivist and Americans to be generally individualists (Grachev & Bobina, 2006; Abe & Iwasaki, 2010; Sims, 2009).

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This study used a qualitative approach. Using an online survey tool – surveymonkey.com – responses were collected from participants regarding their experiences and trust levels working for a Russian-owned IT company in the United States. Participants were asked questions revised from the Behavioral Trust Inventory (Gillespie, 2003) and the Organizational Trust Inventory (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996). The design derived results through qualitative, comparison content analysis of responses to determine whether results align with the traditional cultural responses of the Russians having a higher propensity to trust than Americans.

Sampling

The sample for the study consisted of individuals drawn from one Russian-owned IT organization in the United States. Stratified purposeful sampling was used to gather participants. Stratified purposeful samples are "samples within samples" (Patton, 2002, p.240) and "capture major variations" (p.240) in subgroups rather than "identify a common core, although the latter may also emerge in the analysis" (p.240). Employees and leaders were contacted via email regarding participation. Participants had all worked for the aforementioned company for a minimum of 12 months. The total US-based population for the company at the time of the study was approximately 150 employees with an additional 800 employees in other countries globally. The total number of targeted participants was 10-16 from the US-based portion of the company. The total participant count was ten with five each of Russian and American backgrounds.

Instrumentation

This study used four revised questions (Q1-Q4 below) from the Behavioral Trust Inventory (Gillespie, 2003) to measure "people's willingness to be vulnerable in work related relationship" (Leck & Robitaille, 2011, p.121). This study also used five revised questions (Q5-Q9 below) from the Organizational Trust Inventory (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996) to measure "the organizational climate created by the actions of senior and executive-level management in your organization" (Velez, 2006, p.89). Demographic questions were included regarding ethnicity and tenure with the company.

Q1. Do you trust your work group members to represent your work accurately to others? Explain
Q2. Do you confide in your work group members about personal issues that are affecting your work? Explain
Q3. Do you depend on your coworkers to back you up in difficult situations? Explain
Q4. Do you work with someone you trust to handle an important work issue on your behalf? Explain
Q5. Do you think people in your work group tell the truth? Explain
Q6. Do you think people in your work group succeed by stepping on other people? Explain

Q7. Do you think your work group members keep their word? Explain
Q8. Do you think your work group takes advantage of members who are vulnerable? Explain
Q9. Do you think your work group negotiates honestly? Explain

Data Collection and Analysis

Upon agreement to participate in the study, participants received the surveymonkey.com online survey link via email. To ensure participant anonymity, participants filled out an online survey that collected no identification information such as name, IP address, or email address. Responses were analyzed as collected – concurrent data analysis – in an attempt to answer the research questions regarding Russians' and Americans' propensity to trust one another in a Russian-owned IT organization in the United States. Concurrent data analysis enables the researcher to identify saturation and data redundancy sooner rather than later (Tuckett, 2004). As redundancies and saturation became apparent, soliciting additional participants ceased.

The analysis of each survey was a three-step process starting with a naïve reading of the submission, followed by content analysis to "validate and adjust the naïve interpretation and to reach a deeper understanding" (Hansen et al., 2014, p.3), and then critical interpretation. The content analysis included the coding of participant responses and searching for themes while the critical interpretation explained the codes and themes and how they relate to the research questions and relevant existing literature (2014). Lastly, the responses from American and Russian respondents were compared in an effort to answer the research questions.

Findings and Discussion

Overall, both cultures generally fell in the middle with regards to whether they trust other members of their work group. A summary of all responses is below (Table 1).

	Russia			United States		
	Yes	**Maybe/ Conditional**	**No**	**Yes**	**Maybe/ Conditional**	**No**
Q1	2	2	1	1	1	3
Q2	2	2	1	2	0	3
Q3	4	1	0	3	0	2
Q4	5	0	0	4	1	0
Q5	1	2	2	3	1	1
Q6	2	3	0	3	0	2
Q7	1	4	0	3	1	1
Q8	1	3	1	4	0	1
Q9	2	2	1	1	2	2

Table 1
SUMMARY OF RESPONSES

Numbers in cells represent the number of respondents
Highlighted cells represent the majority of responses for that question

Survey questions focused on three areas – trust in others for personal issues, trust in others for work issues, trust in the group as a whole. American respondents revealed a tendency

to trust the group as a whole more than the Russians. Americans tend to be less group-oriented than Russians; therefore, the results of the survey showing the opposite of common cultural norms are intriguing. To gain further insight into the reasoning behind these answers, additional data could be gathered about whether the homogeneity of the group matters to either culture.

Overall, Americans responded favorably to trusting others in general and with personal issues if they are close with that person; however, it was noted by all respondents that they do not trust everyone – trust is based on the individual. Majority of responses from the Russian participants were middle of the road about maybe trusting people depending on who the former are being asked to trust. While the explanatory remarks from both cultures were similar, Americans are more likely to trust than Russians.

Majority of Americans stated they believe others in their work group would step on others to succeed, while Russians were unsure. Both Americans and Russians were more trusting than not regarding trusting someone in the work group to handle a work issue or support a member in a difficult situation; however, when asked in general if they trust other members of their work group American responses were mostly negative and Russians were more optimistic.

The aforementioned findings mostly aligned with the findings of House et al., (2004) related to individualism and collectivism of American and Russian cultures. It was found that Americans and Russians in the same work group move closer to the middle of the spectrum for individualism/collectivism rather than the extremes for either. Moreover, the longer the tenure at the company and in the group, the higher propensity to trust. This aligns with Dervitsiotis' (2006) study which showed trust develops organically over time after repeated interactions proving trust is possible. In relation, the responses from both cultures noted a conditional trust, which according to Dakhli (2009) is "a type of trust based on calculative expectations" (p.92). It could be argued that exposure to seemingly opposite cultures for a prolonged period of time causes a move away from either extreme of trusting and not trusting towards conditional trust. However, to back up that statement, a longitudinal study with a pre-test and post-test would be necessary. Despite the discussed differences between American and Russian cultures and their propensity to trust based on individualism and collectivism traits, both show that with time trust is not only possible in a work group, but a necessity for overall group success.

CONCLUSION

This study provided rich responses that illuminated similarities and differences regarding experiences and opinions relevant to work group trust for Americans and Russians who are part of the same work group in a Russian-owned IT company in the United States. While generalizations are not necessarily possible as a result of this study, findings do begin to give insight into the impact of cultural values when more than one culture is present in a work group. Work group trust is influenced by positive or negative previous experiences with other individuals. The findings of this study suggest a need for additional research into the reasoning behind both cultures' propensity to trust in a given situation. While findings show both groups moved farther away from their cultural extremes of willingness to and unwillingness to trust for Russians and Americans, respectively, more research could be done with regards to gender differences and age differences within both cultures and how that affects work group trust.

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DOES NATIONAL CULTURE PREDICT NATIONAL PROSPERITY?

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ABSTRACT

This study uses data from 62 countries to explore the relationship between national culture and national prosperity. In particular, Hofstede's six dimensions of national culture were tested as predictors of overall prosperity as measured by the Legatum Prosperity Index. Hofstede's dimensions were also used to predict the 8 facets that make up the Prosperity Index. Regression results show that overall prosperity is negatively related to power distance and positively related to individualism, long-term orientation, and indulgence. Moreover, individualism, long-term orientation, and indulgence were significant predictors of 7 of the 8 facets. Masculinity was the only cultural dimension that was unrelated to any aspects of prosperity.

BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

Hofstede's (1980, 2001) conceptualization of national culture has profoundly influenced the study of cross-cultural differences in a plethora of fields ranging from management to parenting. These national differences are useful for explaining and predicting a variety of important outcomes. The purpose of this study is to examine the relationships between Hofstede's six dimensions of national culture and a relatively unique index of national prosperity (i.e., the Legatum Prosperity Index). The Legatum Prosperity Index is unique in that it attempts to capture objective aspects of a nation's prosperity as well as more subjective aspects related to individuals' perceptions of prosperity and well-being.

As a brief review, Hofstede's original four dimensions of national culture included power distance (i.e., the extent to which individuals expect and accept a hierarchical distribution of power), individualism (i.e., the extent to which individuals are expected to take care of themselves as opposed to relying on a group), masculinity (i.e., the extent to which a society values achievement and assertiveness), and uncertainty avoidance (i.e., the extent to which individuals dislike uncertainty and attempt to control the future with rigid rules and norms). Subsequent research identified two additional dimensions. Long-term orientation reflects the extent to which society's value planning for the future (Hofstede & Bond, 1988). Finally, indulgence describes a society's acceptance of fun and gratification of desires (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010).

Despite the large number of studies using Hofstede's framework, Taras, Kirkman, and Steel (2010) conducted one of the few meta-analyses to estimate the relationships between these dimensions and a host of outcomes. Of particular relevance to this study are the findings at the national level of analysis. They identified 52 relevant studies with national-level outcomes. Because of the breadth of their search, these findings will be used as the basis for my hypotheses.

Specifically, Taras et al. found that individualism was positively related to national wealth, human rights, gender role equality, innovation, and income equality. Individualism was negatively related to corruption. Countries with high levels of power distance had lower levels

of wealth, human rights, gender role equality, and income equality. Power distance was positively related to national corruption. Countries with high levels of uncertainty avoidance had lower levels of wealth, innovation, and income equality. These countries also had higher levels of corruption and inflation. Finally, Taras et al. found that masculinity had only two relatively small relationships with wealth and corruption. At the time of their review, there were insufficient studies available to analyze the correlates of long-term orientation and indulgence. Based on these previous studies, I hypothesize the following:

> *H1*   *Individualism will be positively related to prosperity.*
> *H2*   *Power distance will be negatively related to prosperity.*
> *H3*   *Uncertainty avoidance will be negatively related to prosperity.*
> *H4*   *Masculinity will be negatively related to prosperity.*

Although they were not tested by Taras et al., other research by Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov (2010) leads to the final two hypotheses:

> *H5*   *Long term orientation will be positively related to prosperity.*
> *H6*   *Indulgence will be positively related to prosperity.*

METHODS

National-level prosperity scores were obtained from the Legatum Prosperity Index (2015). This index ranks 142 countries along eight dimensions. Each dimension is composed of standardized measures predictive of wealth and well-being. Thus this conceptualization of prosperity includes financial prosperity as well as subjectively experienced well-being. Raw scores for each dimension were used instead of rankings because interval-level data is preferable to ordinal-level. Sample measures for each dimension are provided in Table 1.

Table 1 SAMPLE PROSPERITY INDEX MEASURES	
Dimension	**Sample Indicators**
Economy	Unemployment Confidence in Financial Institutions
Entrepreneurship & Opportunity	R&D Expenditures Perception That Working Hard Gets You Ahead
Governance	Separation of Powers Confidence in the Honesty of Elections
Education	Pupil to Teacher Ratio Satisfaction with Educational Quality
Health	Life Expectancy Water Quality
Safety & Security	Assaults Perception That Political Opinions May be Expressed
Personal Freedom	Civil Liberties Tolerance of Minorities
Social Capital	Perceptions of Social Support Trust in Others

National-level scores for Hofstede's six dimensions of culture were obtained from his website (Hofstede, 2015). List wise deletion of data resulted in 62 countries with complete data on all six culture dimensions and complete data from the Legatum Prosperity Index. Whereas African countries appear to be underrepresented in the final group of 62, there are countries from throughout the Legatum Prosperity Index in the final data set. Statistically, this range restriction should reduce the size of any observed relationships.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Descriptive statistics and inter correlations for all study variables are shown in Table 2. Among the simple bivariate correlations, Total prosperity was significantly correlated with power distance (r = -0.68), individualism (r = 0.68), uncertainty avoidance (r = -0.29), and indulgence (r = 0.33). Regression results (see Table 3) reveal that, controlling for the other dimensions of culture, total prosperity is negatively related to power distance and positively related to individualism, long-term orientation, and indulgence. Thus Hypotheses 1, 2, 5, and 6 were supported.

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Table 2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND INTERCORRELATIONS																
1. Power Distance	58.61	20.63														
2. Individualism	45.76	23.68	-.64													
3. Masculinity	49.11	20.28	.17	.03												
4. Uncertainty Avoidance	66.95	23.14	.20	-.19	.02											
5. Long-term Orientation	49.74	22.87	.03	.09	.03	-.03										
6. Indulgence	47.53	22.36	-.30	.16	.07	-.07	-.51									
7. Total Prosperity	1.24	1.40	-.65	.68	-.10	-.29	.22	.33								
8. Economy	1.62	1.12	-.41	.46	.01	-.52	.32	.21	.79							
9.	2.01	1.44	-.62	.63	-.12	-.27	.29	.26	.97	.75						
10. Governance	1.07	1.88	-.68	.70	-.09	-.35	.19	.32	.95	.77	.91					
11. Education	0.97	1.18	-.45	.62	-.07	-.17	.31	.21	.84	.56	.82	.71				
12. Health	1.50	1.31	-.56	.65	.01	-.06	.28	.30	.91	.66	.90	.82	.85			
13. Safety	1.06	1.95	-.56	.55	-.13	-.14	.31	.13	.90	.59	.89	.82	.82	.84		
14. Personal Freedom	1.12	1.81	-.61	.59	-.11	-.15	-.06	.41	.85	.59	.78	.83	.59	.70	.73	
15. Social Capital	0.61	1.87	-.61	.60	-.13	-.42	.03	.43	.87	.77	.80	.81	.70	.72	.68	.71

Notes: N = 62. Correlations > |0.22|, p < .05. Correlations > |0.32|, p < .01.

A more fine-grained analysis shows a great deal of consistency among the cultural values. Individualism is a significant predictor of every prosperity facet except economy. Long-term orientation is a significant predictor of every prosperity facet except personal freedom. Indulgence is a significant predictor of every prosperity facet except safety. Another consistency is the lack of any significant relationship between masculinity and any facet of prosperity.

Table 3
REGRESSION RESULTS (B) PREDICTING PROSPERITY FROM CULTURE

	Prosperity Factor								
	Overall Prosperity	Econ.	Entrep.	Gov.	Educ.	Health	Safety	Personal Freedom	Social Capital
Power Distance	-0.23*	-0.08	-0.26*	-0.27*	0.02	-0.16	-0.30*	-0.26	-0.19
Individualism	0.42**	0.22	0.35**	0.42**	0.53**	0.46**	0.29*	0.37**	0.34**
Masculinity	-0.11	-0.02	-0.12	-0.09	-0.13	-0.03	-0.11	-0.10	-0.13
Uncertainty Avoidance	-0.12	-0.42**	-0.12	-0.18*	-0.03	0.10	0.01	0.00	-0.28**
Long-term Orientation	0.38**	0.49**	0.45**	0.32**	0.45**	0.47**	0.41**	0.08	0.21*
Indulgence	0.39**	0.38**	0.36**	0.33**	0.38**	0.43**	0.21	0.32**	0.42**
F total	20.09**	13.00**	17.27**	22.56**	11.61**	16.75**	9.07**	9.70**	16.47**
Adjusted R^2	.687	.541	.615	.680	.511	.608	.442	.461	.603

Notes: N = 62. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Like many studies, this study raises as many questions as it answers. There is an unmistakable connection between national culture and national prosperity as measured by a variety of objective and subjective indicators. The mechanisms by which values produce prosperity, however, remain unclear. The analyses above suggest that high individualism, low power distance, long-term orientation, and high indulgence influence a variety of prosperity catalysts such as entrepreneurship, education, and health. Given the long-term stability of culture, it is worth considering the possibility that some of the indicators in the Legatum Prosperity Index could be used as triggers to promote cultural change.

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CULTIVATING WORK-FAMILY ENRICHMENT THROUGH IDIOSYNCRATIC DEALS: MEDIATING ROLES OF FAMILY EFFICACY AND JOB EFFICACY

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ABSTRACT

We examined the relationship between I-deals (both flexibility I-deals and developmental I-deals), job self-efficacy, family self-efficacy, and work-family enrichment (both work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment). We found flexibility I-deals have direct influence on family efficacy and family-to-work enrichment whereas developmental I-deals have direct influence on job efficacy and work-to-family enrichment. Additionally, our results revealed that family efficacy mediates the relationship between flexibility I-deals and family-to-work enrichment. However, our results did not support our hypothesis that the job efficacy mediates the relationship between developmental I-deals and work-to-family enrichment. We discuss the implications of these findings for practice and theory.

INTRODUCTION

The work-family interface has received extensive research attention in the past decades. Compared to work-family conflict which has been the research focus of most work-family studies, work-family enrichment has been paid relative little attention (Witt & Carlson, 2006; Gordan, Whelan-berry, Hamilton, 2007). Researchers and managers still do not adequately understand the mechanisms through which work-family enrichment is cultivated. Therefore, scholars are increasingly calling for an expansion of work-family research paradigm to include the work-family enrichment and an understanding of factors and processes that enable work-family enrichment (Grzywacz, Carlson, Kacmar, & Wayne, 2007; Greenhaus & Powerll, 2006).

With regard to the antecedents of work-family enrichment, we propose that idiosyncratic employment arrangements (I-deals) as potential factor influencing work-family enrichment.

Furthermore, we consider two categories of intermediate variables—job self-efficacy and family self-efficacy as potential mechanisms underlying the relationship between I-deals and work-family enrichment. Job self-efficacy is defined as the employees' judgment of perceived capabilities for performing job responsibilities and family efficacy refers to the employees' judgment of perceived capabilities for performing family responsibilities (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Both job efficacy and family efficacy relate to employee perceptions of control which play an important role in the experience of work-family outcomes (Andreassi &Thompson, 2007).

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATIONS

Work-family enrichment happens when the participation in one role provides resources (i.e., skills, energy, positive mood stage etc.) to enhance the quality of the other role. For example, managers who are parents of young children may develop new skills of interpersonal interaction and become more patient than managers without children when interacting with their

subordinates at workplace. Recently, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) introduced the concept of work-family enrichment and proposed a new view of work-family interface that "experience in one role increase performance and positive affect in another role" (p.73).

I-deals refer to "special terms of employment negotiated between individual workers and their employers (present or prospective) that satisfy both parties' needs" (Rousseau, Ho, & Greenberg, 2006, p. 977). Previous research (i.e., Rousseau, 2005; Rousseau & Kim, 2006) have identified two forms of I-deals: Flexibility I-deals and developmental I-deals. Flexibility I-deals refers to personalized work schedule and work hours to meet individual need, such as personal discretion over scheduling. Developmental I-deals refer to providing customized opportunities for skill and career development, such as challenging work assignments, special training, or career opportunities. As a relatively new construct in organizational research, we still do not know enough regarding the antecedent and consequences of I-deals, as well as the ways by which I-deals impact employees and organization (Hornung, Rousseau, & Glaser, 2008, 2009).

HYPOTHESIS

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) suggested two mechanisms through which work-family enrichment can occur: instrumental mechanism and affective mechanism. The instrumental mechanism refers to the application of skills and perspectives learned in one role enhancing the performance in the other role. The affective mechanism is when enthusiasm, energy and positive mood states from one role spillover to the other role. The present study will focus on the affective mechanism of work-family enrichment.

We propose that flexibility I-deals will positively relate to family-to-work enrichment while developmental I-deals will positively relate to work-to-family enrichment. Family responsibilities are reported as the major reason why flexibility I-deals are sought and granted (Hornung, et. al., 2008). So employees who have successfully negotiated flexibility I-deals have greater personal control over work schedule and hours and thus can better coordinate and manage their private life, therefore experiencing less strain and higher satisfaction in their family lives. Positive mood at family may spillover from home to work, enhancing the quality of work role.

Developmental I-deals provide employees with challenging assignment, individual recognition of performance, or special training to improve their competencies and fulfill employer's developmental commitment to workers (Rousseau & Kim, 2006; Hornung, Rousseau, & Glaser, 2009). Employees who have successfully negotiated developmental I-deals may improve their performance over time and increase their value and standing perceived by their employer (Hornung, Rousseau, & Glaser, 2008), thus may increasing the likelihood of receiving financial and social rewards at work. Positive mood resulting from these positive experiences at work may spillover from work to home, enhancing the quality of family role.

Hypothesis 1: Flexibility I-deals positively relate to family-to-work enrichment.

Hypothesis 2: Developmental I-deals positively relate to work-to-family enrichment.

THE ROLE OF EFFICACY BELIEFS IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN I-DEALS AND WORK-FAMILY ENRICHMENT

We expect flexibility I-deals will increase perceived family-related self-efficacy because personal freedom in work schedule can aid employees in handling family demands and thus increase their perceived sense of personal competence to accomplish family responsibilities. We also argue developmental I-deals will enhance perceived job-related self-efficacy because the developmental opportunities employee receive (i.e., challenging assignment, special training, career opportunities etc.) can improve their skills and competencies and thus heighten their perceived confidence to accomplish job responsibilities. So we proposed to test the following:

Hypothesis 3: Flexibility I-deals positively relate to family-related self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 4: Developmental I-deals positively relate to work-related self-efficacy.

We suggest that family-related self-efficacy has direct impact on family-to-work enrichment and job-related self-efficacy has direct effect on work-to-family enrichment for the following reasons. First, Lazarus and Folkman (1984)'s stress model suggests that control-related beliefs play important role in individuals' conceptual process to appraise whether an environment is threatening and stressful. People with higher level of family or job-related efficacy perceive greater control over their family or job environment, have more self-confidence and self-respect, thus tend to experience more positive mood in their family or job environment, respectively . Second, high level of family or job efficacy enable individuals to actively and effectively manage family or job demand and therefore result in higher levels of energy (Andreassi & Thompson, 2007). The higher level of energy at home or work is likely to lead to better functioning at home or at work (Andreassi & Thompson, 2007), resulting in a positive affective experience at home or work.

Hypothesis 5: Family-related self-efficacy mediates the relationship between flexibility I-deals and family-to-work enrichment.

Hypothesis 6: Job-related self-efficacy mediates the relationship between developmental I-deals and work-to-family enrichment.

METHOD

Sample and Procedures

Data were collected from employees in a major retailing company located in Midwest. 207 surveys were sent and 151 completed questionnaires were returned, representing a response rate of 73 percent. The respondents had an average age of 45.33 years (s.d. = 7.71) and a mean company tenure of 6.98 years (s.d. = 5.87). 64 percent of the respondents were women. Over 90 percent of respondents had an at least vocational education diploma. All measurements for our variables are established scales.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA) were first conducted for validating the psychometrical distinctiveness of the latent dependent and independent variables specified in the structure equation models (SEM). Then Structural Equation Models (SEM) was specified to test the primary hypotheses using Mplus6.1 (Muthen & Muthen, 2007).

RESULTS

All the study variables were collected from the same source (employees). Therefore, we conducted a series of confirmatory factor analyses to examine the discriminant validity of the self-reported variables.
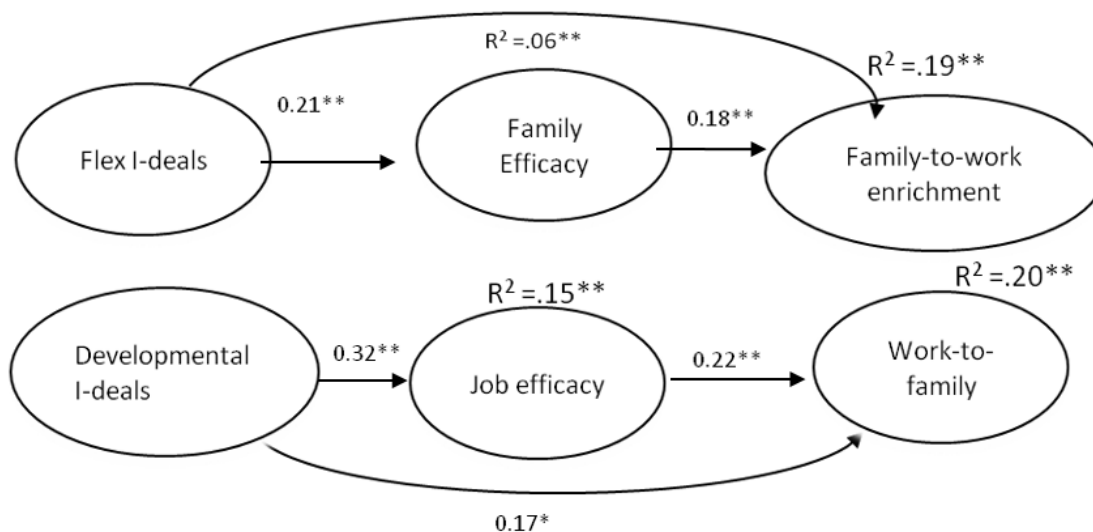
Table 1

	M	s.d	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1.Flex_Ideals	3.166	2.231	(.86)					
2. Dev_Ideals	3.012	1.548	-.148*	(.76)				
3.family_efficacy	2.814	1.373	.354**	.061	(.71)			
4.job_efficacy	2.427	1.213	.313**	.124	.537**	(.79)		
5.life_work_f	3.027	.952	.176**	.202**	.193**	.346**	(.83)	
6. work_life_f	2.716	1.033	.175**	.145*	.151*	.274**	.319**	(.80)

Notice: **p<.01, p<.05 Means, Standard deviations, internal consistencies and correlations of all study variables.

Results showed that the hypothesized 4-factor measurement model that included flexibility I-deals, development I-deals, job self-efficacy, family self-efficacy, work-to-family enrichment, and family-to-work enrichment fit the data well (χ^2 = 102.17, *df* = 21, RMSEA=.01, Gamma hat=.96, NNFI=.99). We found flexibility I-deals have direct influence on family efficacy and family-to-work enrichment whereas developmental I-deals have direct influence on job efficacy and work-to-family enrichment. Additionally, our results revealed that family efficacy mediates the relationship between flexibility I-deals and family-to-work enrichment. However, our results did not support our hypothesis that the job efficacy mediates the relationship between developmental I-deals and work-to-family enrichment. We discuss implications of these findings below.

Figure 1

DISCUSSION

Our findings make several important contributions to the work-family literature. The first contribution is that our study examined the link between I-deals and work-family enrichment which has been ignored in previous work-family research. As to our best knowledge, this is the first time that I-deals is examined in the context of work-family enrichment research. These findings also contribute to emerging I-deals literature. Additionally, our results indicate that family efficacy mediates the relationships between flexibility I-deals and family-to-work enrichment.

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THE IMPACT OF HIERARCHICAL LEVEL ON PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

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ABSTRACT

The study of organizational culture has received considerable attention in the strategic management literature. However, empirical results prove to be equivocal. While there is some convergence regarding a conceptual definition of culture as a shared value system, construct development is inconsistent. Drawing on the organizational behavior literature, this paper extends our understanding of culture measurement research by examining data collection and sampling strategies. Most strategy researchers survey only one person in each organization to measure culture. Using a sample of 853 respondents from 22 organizations, we show that top-level managers have a positive bias when rating the shared values in their own organizations. Future research implications are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Numerous strategic management researchers have examined organizational culture, resulting in multiple attempts to assess the construct's relationship to organizational outcomes (cf., Denison & Mishra, 1995; Schein, 1985). At the organizational level of analysis, culture represents a complex set of shared values, beliefs, philosophies, and symbols that define the way in which a firm conducts its business (Barney, 1986; Sorensen, 2002; Goll & Sambharya, 1995; Denison, 1984).

However, research examining culture has yielded ambiguous results. Studies vary, in part, due to lack of a theoretically grounded measure of culture. But, we argue that there are also measurement issues at play, specifically, sampling techniques used may be based upon untested assumptions deriving from the very definition of culture as a shared system of values and beliefs.

Shared values, beliefs, philosophies, and symbols might include an appropriate way for employees to act or feel within a certain organization (Sorensen, 2002), as well as include the expectations of the company or its employees. If researchers assume organizational culture is shared across all employees within an organization and this shared culture is transmitted through behaviors and actions of employees within an organization (Denison, 1984; Schein, 1985), it follows that only a small sample needs to be gathered from any one firm to assess its culture.

Perhaps compounding this issue even further is that in some studies, only one top-level manager is surveyed, and as researchers assume values are shared, they extrapolate single-source data to represent the organizational-level measure of culture. While researchers contend that organizational culture is shared across all levels in an organization (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Hartog & Verburg, 2004), it is rarely measured as a shared variable. In other words, it is simply accepted that organizational culture is shared, rather than confirming it through a diverse and representative sample that is tested for agreement before proceeding to relate culture to outcomes such as financial performance. Many studies do not measure the "shared" component of the construct at all; instead this type of investigation seems to "only skim the culture that surrounds the top executives" (Czarniawska-Joerges, 1992, p. 174).

The purpose of this paper is to show that a widely accepted method of sampling only one top-level employee in an organization provides an inaccurate method to measure organizational culture, conceptualized as a shared system of values and beliefs. While many personal characteristics and experiences (e.g., race, gender, years of work experience) may influence perceptions of organizational culture, this study empirically investigates the impact of level in the organization's influence upon perceptions on organizational culture. If level alone impacts perceptions of culture, our results call into question the heretofore accepted approach of surveying only one person, a top leader, in an organization to operationalize culture.

HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Argle and Caldwell's (1999, p. 330) review of values and organizational culture in management research specifically states "values exist at all levels and interact with values at all other levels." While a straightforward statement on the nature of culture across an organization, we know the nuances of the experience at different organizational levels are complex. For instance, Zyphur, Zammuto and Zhang (2016) contend that upper-level managers face more uncertainty than lower level managers and that upper level managers are more likely to experience organizational identity in the firm's vision and strategy compared to non-managers, who identify more with day-to-day activities. If an individual's perceptions are grounded in their experiences and identity, it is likely that upper level managers will have different perceptions of culture when compared to employees at lower levels in an organization.

Moreover, upper level manager perceptions are likely fraught with self-evaluative bias. Thus, when only one top leader is surveyed, he or she may take cues as to the quality of organizational culture by considering performance (or whichever outcome is primed by the culture measure). This creates an autocorrelation and a possible internal locus that can impact perceptions of culture. A review of the literature suggests as much. Studies surveying CEOs (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Hartog & Verburg, 2004) and top management team members (Fey & Denison, 2003; Sorenson, 2002) overwhelmingly report positive relationships between organizational culture and firm performance.

Thus, it is conceivable that given different realities in the workplace, upper mangers may have very different perceptions of culture than lower level manager and non-managers. Our aim in this study is to show that perceptions of culture are different based upon the respondent's level in the organization, providing evidence that sampling multiple employees from multiple levels is imperative. We hypothesize the following:

H₁   *Assessments of five organizational culture variables are positively related to the respondent's level in the organization.*

METHOD

Measurement

In order to measure organizational culture, we conducted an exhaustive review of the strategy literature on organizational culture. Five attributes are commonly found.

Risk Tolerance

Researchers have defined risk tolerance as having the determination to pursue risky projects or actions within the organization and having the knowledge of that risk; yet continuing to undertake a project despite the uncertainty of the end result (Walls & Dyer, 1996).

Creativity

Creativity leads to competitive advantage, which helps a company succeed in terms of multiple measures of firm-level performance (Deshpandé, Farley, & Webster, 1993).

Market Orientation

Researchers have found that market orientation, as a cultural dimension, has been linked to performance in numerous studies. It has been measured as a set of behaviors that create value based on needs of customers, therefore positively influencing production and performance of a business (Narver & Slater, 1990; Perry & Shao, 2002).

Strategy Orientation

Researchers have defined strategic orientation as a cultural attribute that improves the ability of a firm to focus strategic direction and build or sustain the proper strategic fit for superior firm performance (Gatignon & Xuereb, 1997).

Action Orientation

Action orientation is the ability to regulate cognitions and behaviors in order to complete specific business-related goals (Jaramillo & Spector, 2004). Action orientation involves having a high self-regulatory ability and a readiness to act and make decisions.

Based on measures from previous research, we used a validated 35-item survey to assess the 5 culture dimensions above. We also measured level in the organization by asking if respondents were in upper-level management, mid-level management, lower-level management or staff.

Sample

Using Weiner's (1988) theoretical foundation for our five cultural dimensions, we surveyed all employees in the firm in order to assess the degree to which values were perceived across organizational levels. Our sample had a total of 853 respondents from 22 organizations across 19 industries. The average company size was 177 employees and we obtained a minimum of 30 respondents per firm. Average response rate per company was 22 percent.

RESULTS

Based on previous culture research, we controlled for company tenure, age and gender. Using OLS hierarchical regression, we found results supportive of our hypothesis. Specifically, Model 1 assessed the relationship between a risk tolerant culture and company level. We found a significant positive relationship at the $p<.01$ level. Model 2 assessed the relationship between a

creative culture and company level. Again, we found a significant positive relationship at the p<.01 level. Model 3 assessed the relationship between market orientation and company level. We found no significant relationship. Model 4 assessed the relationship between strategic orientation and company level. We found a significant positive relationship at the p<.01 level. Finally, Model 5 assessed the relationship between action orientation company levels. We found a significant positive relationship at the p<.01 level. Therefore, four of the five cultural attributes supported our hypothesis.

DISCUSSION AND CONCULSION

Researchers have attempted to explain inconsistent results in culture studies as an outcome of inconsistent construct definition and completeness. While this may partially explain inconsistencies, data collection and sampling strategies should also be considered. Currently, it is common for strategy researchers to survey one individual in an organization to assess organizational culture. Given that culture is a set of shared values, and therefore assumes all people in an organization have the same view of culture, most research to date expects any one individual's assessment to be representative of all individuals in the organization.

Table 1
OLS REGRESSION ANALYSES

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
Control Variables					
Company Tenure	-.11*	-.07	-.11*	-.15**	- .08
Respondent's Age	-.03	-.03	.03	.07	.08
Respondent's Gender	.00	-.10*	- .06	-.02	-.13
Company Level	.23**	.14**	.16**	.11*	.11*
R-squared	.11	.07	.09	.08	.08
Adj. R-squared	.09	.05	.07	.06	.07
F	9.21**	4.64**	5.88**	4.54*	4.80*
Note 1: Standardized Beta Coefficients are provided N = 853 $^=$p< .10, *p < 0.05, **p<0.01					

We don't believe this is always the case, and may therefore be one reason for inconsistent research outcomes. Specifically, the present study sought to establish a relationship between a person's level in an organization and his/her perceptions of culture. Results from this study contribute to the strategy literature as it represents the first attempt to empirically demonstrate this relationship.

These results have implications for future research investigating organizational culture. If researchers only include single respondents in organizations, their data may have a systematic bias. We call for researchers to survey multiple respondents in organizations to capture the true sharedness of cultural attributes, and subsequently assess the degree to which responses are congruent, using ICC, rwg, or a combination of agreement measures (c.f., LeBreton and Senter,

2007). Interestingly, this approach is similar to methods used in the organizational behavior literature, where researchers are interested in culture strength and sharedness and therefore find it necessary to survey multiple people in each firm (c.f., O'Reilly, Chapman, & Caldwell, 1991)

We also note some limitations in the present research. First, we conducted cross-sectional research using a single method of data collection (e.g., surveys). Thus, we cannot exclude the possibility that some of our results occurred in part from this common method bias.

In conclusion, through a comprehensive literature review of the strategic management literature, we identified five common cultural attributes used to study organizational culture. Using instruments validated in previous research we were able to demonstrate that the higher a person's level was in an organization, the higher they rated many cultural attributes, providing initial evidence that a broad and diverse sample should be collected when operationalizing organizational culture. Specifically, we found that risk tolerance, creativity, strategic orientation and action orientation were all rated more positively by individuals that were at higher levels in their respective organizations.

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FOSTERING AMBIDEXTROUS LEADERSHIP IN A MULTI-GENERATIONAL WORKFORCE

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ABSTRACT

Organizational ambidexterity, or the ability to succeed both in core business and future planning and innovation, is an important concept for businesses trying to survive in the modern market. The composition of today's workforce is rapidly shifting as Millennials are quickly outnumbering Baby Boomers in the workplace. This shift presents its own subsets of challenges and opportunities for organizations. Existing research has provided evidence that employee values and preferences differ among the generational cohorts currently represented in the workforce. These topics are explored, and an updated business structure is recommended for organizations that wish to increase their ambidexterity by overcoming the challenges and capitalizing on the strengths found in a diverse, multi-generational workforce.

CUSTOMER SERVICE MANAGEMENT & HOFSTEDE'S CULTURAL DIMENSIONS IN AUSTRALIA, BRAZIL, CHINA, GERMANY, JAPAN, NORWAY, AND THE USA

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Brandon Cruz, University of Texas Dallas
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ABSTRACT

Australia they have higher levels of extraversion, conscientiousness, and emotional stability. However Australians are lower levels in openess and agreeableness. 90 individualism 2nd being 71 in indulgence meaning they are believe in individuals should be able to take care of themselves. Their customer service is very inconsistent seen by businesses as just an extra cost to train the employees. Germany has higher levels of conscientiousness. Germans believe in being punctual and maintaining control meaning a very strong emotional stability. This equates that Germans have a low neuroticism. 83 in long term signifying they are cultured and they use their past experiences to be prepared for the future. Customer service is not bad but does not go over the top like many expect developing a bad reputation.

INTRODUCTION

Comparing the three countries, the United States has the lowest power distance with China and Brazil being high in that category. For individualism, the United States has the highest, illustrating America's global recognition of being an independent ""free"" country. Masculinity is highest in China due to their traditional values of men being valued higher than women. With uncertainty avoidance, Brazil is the highest. China has highest long term orientation because of their conservative nature and orderly status. Indulgence is lowest in China and higher in the United States, illustrating how America has no restraints and spends freely while China is frugal. Customer service is diverse throughout country to country and a comparison of the United States, Brazil, and China illustrate a global recognition of differing values. In the United States, customer service is seen throughout society as a necessity, displayed in restaurants, retail stores, and many more. However, in China, due to their low individualism, they do not care for others. Brazil is equally low in individualism, illustrating a lack of customer respect and courtesy.

Germany and Japan, in my mind, seemed to be opposite cultures, and Hofstede's comparison supports that in most terms. To start off, contrasting Germany and Japan's ""Power Distance"", Germany (35) has one of the lowest ratings, while it is much higher in Japan (54). Germans see ""direct and participative communications"" important in making sure everyone has a voice and a chance for the best. Another place of difference between Germany and Japan is ""Individualism"". Germany (67) is very focused on the idea of being: honest, even if it hurts"". People tend to also think that they need to find something that is fulfilling and measurable success. In Japan (46), they focus more on family traditions and protecting and a

honoring their families and country. A change in difference occurs when Japan (95) is seen as a more ""masculine"" than Germany (66). Japan and Germany are both performance-driven and find lot of self-esteem in achieving more at work. Although Germany and Japan are different in these terms, but one aspect of Hofstede's dimensions that are similar is ""Indulgence"". Both Germany (40) and Japan (42) both feel as though indulging in leisure time is wrong and should control their desires. Both cultures have the mentality of ""work hard, not play"".

An understanding of international customer service practices would allow firms to better accommodate the global customers. This would be invaluable in an age of increasing globalization. Data that measures the frequency of customer service techniques implemented by firms as-well as consumer expectations should be compared to Hofstede's cultural dimension model. After establishing a correlation, by comparing a dozen or so countries, we can apply the Big Five Personality traits to a few countries, Norway and the United States. Although Hofstede's model can help determine an individual's cultural values, it doesn't necessarily measure personality. A more in-depth look of countries by defining their scores on Hofstede's model with their personality traits, the Big Five, can put other countries in context. Understanding how/why these scores correlate with personality can now allow firms to adjust their international customer service departments to better accommodate the global consumer (Carraher et al 1991 to present).

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DO YOU HAVE ANYTHING TO DECLARE? CONSIDERATIONS OF THE FOURTH AMENDMENT AND BORDER SEARCHES

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ABSTRACT

Air, maritime, land, and virtual borders separate American society from its international neighbors. Continuously, large quantities of peoples and materials cross international borders daily both entering and leaving the country. Societal protection is a consideration of monitoring these flows of entities. Although the Fourth Amendment provides search protections within American society while simultaneously enhancing the discretion of law enforcement, various searches may occur among borders without warrants to ensure societal protection. This paper provides a brief synopsis of border search concepts.

INTRODUCTION

Modern times realize the dangers of man-made incidents that endanger society (McElreath, et al., 2014). Any number of foreign entities seeks to harm society either clandestinely or openly. Ranging from the wiles of terrorist organizations to factions of organized crime, borders are of paramount concern when considering national security and the safety of society (McElreath, et al., 2013; Wigginton, et al., 2015). Everything from human trafficking to the smuggling of weapons and narcotics transcends both domestic and international borders physically. However, although such acts involve the tangibility of actors, borders may be transcended virtually through instances of cyber-crime and other forms of electronic and digital malfeasance. After all, motivations that underline physical criminality also are similar to those that impact virtual crime and terror (Doss, Henley, & McElreath, 2013a; Doss, Henley, & McElreath, 2013b). Ensuring the safety and security of society necessitates considerations of searching for potentially harmful agents that cross any type of border – air, land, maritime, or virtual.

FOURTH AMENDMENT

The Fourth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution states the following: "The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no Warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause,

supported by Oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized (Coletta, 2007, p. 971)." Based on the writings of Gesell (1996), the requirements necessary for search and seizure represent a dichotomy concerning the rights, liberties, and freedoms of individuals versus the potentials of government power. Through the Fourth Amendment, citizens are protected against unreasonable search and seizure whereas law enforcement agencies are provided the authority and operational scope to conduct searches and seizures per the dictates of appropriate warrants. Therefore, a unique balance is provided that ensures the rights of the individual and that establishes power and authority among law enforcement entities.

According to Gesell (1996), with respect to the requirements regarding search and seizure, probable cause must be established before initiating any form of search followed by any succeeding seizure. Gesell (1996, p. 41) indicates that any such searches must not be "unreasonable," and the goal of searching is to determine and locate "incriminating evidence." Further, to avoid protection for the "rights of the innocent," establishment and adherence to "proper procedures" must be observed when searching and seizing any resulting evidence (Gesell, 1996, p. 41). Otherwise, if such procedures are not followed, evidence may be inadmissible regardless of its incriminating nature (Gesell, 1996). Further, the necessity and importance of search warrants must not be understated with respect to the concepts of search and seizure (Gesell, 1996). However, when considered from the perspectives of homeland security, national security and societal protection, warrants are mostly immaterial when conducting various border searches. An exception exists regarding the Fourth Amendment to permit much leeway among customs officials when conducting searches among both outgoing and incoming international transients (Coletta, 2007).

BORDER SEARCH TYPES

According to McElreath, et al. (2014), the locations and activities associated with border searching may transpire upon land entry from both the Canadian and Mexican border entry points; upon the dockage of a ship upon its arrival provided it has visited a foreign port; and within the first airport where international flights land. Additional locations and timings include searches conducted among the functional borders (e.g., international airports; etc.) that represent the initial detention point after surpassing an established border or entry point (McElreath, et al., 2014). Searches conducted among these functional or virtual borders are equivalent to searches conducted among physical borders because of the impracticality associated with the routing of aircraft or sea vessels to established points of entry among physical borders (McElreath, et al., 2014). Essentially, the Fourth Amendment is protective of people, but not necessarily places (Hodge, 2014).

Considering these notions, with respect to the border searches, three types of searches are prevalent: 1) routine, 2) non-routine; and 3) extended. Routine searches are not significantly invasive with respect to the privacy of the individual (e.g., searching purses; computers; etc.), but may necessitate the instigation of a non-routine search depending upon the establishment of reasonable suspicion. Non-routine searches demonstrate a greater privacy invasion of the individual (e.g., strip searching). Extended searches may transpire beyond both the physical and

virtual borders provided that reasonable suspicion exists regarding criminal activity, reasonable knowledge and certainness that a type of border was surpassed, and that characteristics of the subject of the search are unchanged. Generally, border searches are deemed constitutional provided that they represent either routine events or are "preceded by reasonable suspicion (Coletta, 2007, p. 971)."

ORIGINS AND DESTINATIONS

Regarding aircraft, after experiencing a non-stop flight from an international origin and arriving at a destination in the U.S., the "functional equivalent of a border search" may occur (Hodge, 2014, p. 3). Regarding maritime venues, after arriving at a U.S destination from an overseas origin, the initial port of entry were a ship is docked is considered generally to be the "functional equivalent of a border" wherein searches may occur (Nadkarni, 2013, p. 160). Certainly, any number of crossing points exists along the U.S. borders with Mexico and Canada. In general, practically any persons or vehicles entering or leaving the U.S. may be searched in conjunction with practiced and established precedents and legal doctrines (Young, 2012). However, given the advent and proliferation of modern technologies and digital devices, much debate currently exists regarding searches of digital electronic devices (Glick, 2012).

CONCLUSION

Given the notions herein, border searches demonstrate a pyramidal model structure with respect to their conceptual design and complexity. The relationship among these entities ranges from a level of low complexity (e.g., routine) to a level of greater complexity (e.g., extended). Considerations of the Fourth Amendment must be examined from the perspective of border searches. The necessities of warrantless border search and seizure activities are valuable within the domain of homeland security. Because border searches contribute to enhancing national security, such searches are relevant measures toward enhancing perceptions of safety and security given the risks posed by traveling people and other entities entering the nation. Such searches protect against criminal entry, smuggling of weapons, disease, or other forms of undesirable paraphernalia. Given these thoughts, regardless of Fourth Amendment, tenets border searches are imperative to ensure national security and to contribute toward the greater benefit and overall good of society.

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LEGALITY: ASSESSING FULL-TIME VS. PART-TIME STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF PLAGIARISM

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ABSTARCT

This study examines student perceptions of plagiarism within a Southern, Division-II teaching institution. This study employed a five-point Likert-scale to examine differences of perceptions between full-time and part-time students. A statistically significant outcome was observed involving the notions that plagiarism is perceived as illegal. Respectively, the analyses of the means showed that respondents tended toward neutrality concerning whether plagiarism is illegal. Overall, the study showed that plagiarism was not perceived as illegal.

INTRODUCTION

Academic institutions often differentiate themselves within the academic market by offering unique, varied programs (Doss, et al., 2015a). The purposes and benefits of such differentiation involve luring students, enhancing competitiveness, and bolstering institutional attractiveness. During recent years, the host institution experience declining enrollments among its programs. In order to improve its enrollment quantities and better its attractiveness academically, the host institution forged several international agreements in the hope of reversing its declining enrollments through time. At the time of this study, cumulative enrollment of the host institution was approximately 5,000 students, and its business school manifested 312 students. The host institution was a regional institution of higher education that served the Alabama Black Belt as its primary service area. With an influx of new students within the graduate and undergraduate programs within its business school, the host institution experienced problems and challenges associated with plagiarism.

Its international initiatives attracted successfully a variety of domestic and international students, both undergraduate and graduate. However, given increased amounts of plagiarism, the host institution desired a stronger understanding of opinions and perceptions about plagiarism among its business students. Accomplishing this goal was done via the analysis of responses to a Likert-scale survey. Previous analyses of the survey examined stratifications of undergraduate versus graduate students and domestic versus international students with respect to student judgments of plagiarism (Allen, Doss, Henley, McElreath, Miller, & Hong, 2015; Doss, Allen, Henley, McElreath, Miller, & Hong, 2015). As a continuance of its investigations, this study examines the stratifications of full-time versus part-time students.

LITERATURE

Plagiarism occurs for many reasons, ranging from issues of language misunderstanding unfamiliarity to the stresses and rigors of timed examinations (Bista, 2011). No universal definition of plagiarism exists despite most people understanding its basic premise, and no consensus exists regarding plagiarism sanctions (Doss, et al., 2015a). Instead, each plagiarism happening is situational, and involves a range of varied outcomes (Allen, et al., 2015). Plagiarism exists everywhere from academic to professional settings. Plagiarism also exists within the virtual and physical domains. Motivations for plagiarism may be likened unto an intentional form of thievery (Maurer, Kappe, & Zaka, 2006). Motivations for criminality that exist in physical reality also transcend digital and virtual environments as catalysts for criminality among cyber domains (Doss, Henley, & McElreath, 2013a; Doss, Henley, & McElreath, 2013b). Given these notions, plagiarism may exist in both virtual and physical domains. Currie (1998), with respect to societal and cultural differences, reveals that plagiarism is a transgression that violates the academics of Western cultures. In some cultures, attributions and references are unnecessary because ideas, concepts, and materials are believed to belong to the entirety of society (Mundava & Chaudhuri, 2007). The ubiquitous characteristics of plagiarism are undeniable. At the Canadian University of Alberta, a speech given by an academic dean involved plagiarism allegations thereby causing resignation from employment (Dyer, 2011). In Germany, allegations of a plagiarized thesis resulted in the resignation of the defense minister and revoking of the academic degree (Lose, 2011). Legally, plagiarism allegations often involve court cases, such as the contested lyrics to Vanilla Ice's song *Ice Ice Baby* (Allen, et. al., 2015; Doss, Glover, Goza, & Wigginton, 2015b). Because digital laws are ambiguous, such lawsuits are often challenging experiences for all parties (McElreath, et al., 2013).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESIS

The primary research question of the proposed research was: Do the respondents perceive plagiarism as illegal? Derived from the research question, the hypothesis was:

H_1:   There is no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of full-time students versus part-time students regarding the notion that plagiarism is illegal.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The survey instrument was approved by the Institutional Review Board, contained an informed consent notice, and was disseminated to male and female students within the College of Business. This study used a Likert-scale wherein the values ranged between 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree) wherein the value of 3 represented neutral responses. The survey instrument consisted of two separate sections: 1) plagiarism questions, and 2) demographic questions.

The question scale for plagiarism questions was evaluated through means analyses to determine the characteristics of directionality within the received responses. Mean analysis approaches are subjective regarding their constraints (McNabb, 2010). Within this study, the

constraints for analyzing mean response values were: 1) if mean < 2.5, then disagreeing; 2) if 2.5 ≤ mean ≤ 3.5, then neither agreeing nor disagreeing; and 3) if mean > 3.5, then agreeing.

Respondents consisted of full-time and part-time students enrolled in both day and night classes. The host environment exhibited a total of 312 enrollees within its College of Business. The acceptable sample size totaled 121 respondents (95% confidence level; 5 points). The survey was administered during the first ten minutes of both day and night courses within the College of Business. A total of 178 survey responses were received thereby representing approximately 56% of the enrollees. This quantity of responses surpasses the minimum quantity of responses that was deemed necessary for ensuring that the sample exhibited the characteristics of the population. This high response rate is attributable to the fact that surveys were disseminated directly to respondents during course periods (i.e., captive audiences). Respondent duplication was unallowable.

The use of one-way, two-tailed ANOVA facilitated examining differences of perceptions between full-time and part-time students. The Chi-Squared method was used to explore the potential of bias within the study. The level of significance was 0.05 for ANOVA and Chi-Square tests. The Cronbach method was used to explore internal consistency.

FINDINGS

The Chi-Squared method examined whether bias influenced the study through examining the distribution of the disseminated surveys versus the reported distribution that was observed from the returned surveys. The host institution indicated the presences of 267 male students and 45 female students enrolled within its College of Business. This distribution was the foundation for examining the potential of bias within the study. The Chi-Square analysis outcome ($\alpha = 0.05$; $X^2 = 0.0000$) showed a statistically significant outcome. Thus, the potential of bias within this study is suggested. The Cronbach method was used to examine the reliability of the research study. The Cronbach values were 0.84 for the overall study, and 0.74 for the question scale.

The majority of students, approximately 91.62%, represented full-time students whereas approximately 8.38% of the respondents indicated a part-time status. The respondent demographics showed that approximately 53.85% of the respondents were male whereas approximately 46.15% of the respondents were female. Approximately 87.53% of the students were enrolled in day classes whereas approximately 12.65% were enrolled in night classes.

Numerical descriptions of the third scale are presented within Table 1. This scale measured perceptions regarding the notion that plagiarism is illegal.

Table 1 NUMERICAL DESCRIPTIONS FOR THE SCALE Legality: Questions 28 through 35					
Item	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**	**Variance**	**Mode**	**Median**
Scaled Ques. 28-35	2.72	1.20	1.45	3	3
Domestic	2.70	1.20	1.43	3	3
International	2.95	1.26	1.59	2	3

The ANOVA outcome is presented within the following table. The hypothesis test used a significance level of 0.05.

Table 2 ANOVA OUTCOMES HYPOTHESIS TESTINGVALUE			
Scale	ANOVA p-value	Effect Size	Statistical Significance
Ques. 28-35	0.034	0.003	Statistically Significant

α = 0.05

A statistically significant outcome was observed regarding the scale that reflected whether plagiarism was perceived as illegal. The analysis of the means showed that both groups tended toward neutrality regarding the notion that plagiarism is illegal.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is concluded that a statistically significant difference exists involving the notion that plagiarism is illegal. Given the mean analysis of this scale, it is concluded that the respondents expressed neutrality (i.e., neither agreed nor disagreed) regarding this issue. Therefore, it is concluded that respondents perceived few, if any, attributes of illegality. Response neutrality may have occurred because respondents were ignorant of or misinformed about various copyright issues and laws. Respondent demographics revealed a variety of nationalities, including Mexican. It may be possible that cultural and societal biases influenced the responses to this question scale.

Plagiarism is not the only issue that affects institutional settings. Among business schools, a variety of issues affect academic settings. Common examples affecting students range from class attendance to grade inflation, (Moore, Armstrong, & Pearson, 2008; Pitts, Doss, & Kamery, 2005a; Pitts, Doss, & Kamery, 2005b). Future studies may examine the potential of relationships between class attendance and plagiarism and instances of plagiarism with respect to perceptions of grade inflation.

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AN EXAMINATION OF NURSES' WORK ENVIRONMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to examine the relationship between employees' perceptions of their work environment, employees' perceptions of specific components of their work environment, and three types of organizational commitment. This project uses a cross-sectional field study research design. A questionnaire was mailed to 1,000 hospital nurses working in a southeastern state in the United States, and 418 usable responses were received. Results indicate that perceptions of the work environment are significantly and positively correlated with moral and calculative commitment and significantly and negatively correlated with alienative commitment. Follow-up regression analysis results indicated a significant positive relationship between perceptions of all three components of the work environment and moral commitment and a significant negative relationship with alienative commitment. Significant effects were found for the personal growth and the systems dimensions of the work environment and calculative commitment. These results provide confirmation of the importance of fostering a positive working environment in building and sustaining organizational commitment. This appears especially important for building and sustaining moral commitment and minimizing alienative commitment among educated professionals such as nurses in the workplace. By examining relationships between multiple facets of commitment and work environment, this paper contributes to the literature and also has practical implications for managers.