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The Impact of Leader Power on Employee Outcomes:
An Empirical Study of Information Technology Professionals in Turkey

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The purpose of this study is to examine the influence of leader power bases on information technology (IT) professionals' certain employee outcomes: Attitudinal and behavioral compliance, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and intention to quit. A convenience sampling was used and the data were collected from 153 Turkish IT professionals. The results show that leader expert power, referent power, and legitimate power positively influence subordinate behavioral compliance while reward power negatively affects behavioral compliance. In addition, referent power positively affects attitudinal compliance and helping OCB whereas referent power negatively influences intention to quit. Moreover, legitimate power negatively affects attitudinal compliance, civic virtue, and sportsmanship OCB. Overall, the results support the partial influence of leader power bases on the listed employee outcomes.

INTRODUCTION

Leaders' exercise of power has always been a very attractive topic for many scholars. How to maximize leaders' influence is a crucial issue for organizations. As an important force for leader effectiveness (Barrett, 2010), power is one of the most researched concepts in the literature. Leaders use different sources of power to influence followers by appealing to one or more of their needs (Hellriegel & Slocum, 2007). Some managers have only organizational bases of power to influence followers while other managers have both organizational and personal power bases (Champoux, 2011). This research focuses on studying the role of bases of leader power on IT professionals' certain employee outcomes: Attitudinal and behavioral compliance, organizational citizenship behavior, and intention to quit.

Information technology (IT) professional is "an individual who participates in the design, development, implementation, support or management of computer-based information systems, particularly software applications and computer hardware" (Marchewka, 2006 in Rose, 2009, p. 9). IT professional job functions include positions such as Information System (IS) Professional, Programmer, Developer, and Software Engineer (Maudgalya et al., 2006). Effective management of IT human capital can lead to distinctive competencies for organizations. Highly motivated IT professionals who have firm-relevant information technology knowledge and competence are key to a high performing IT unit (Ross et. al., 1995).

IT professionals are chosen as the focus of this study because they exhibit characteristics that differ from those in other professions (Armstrong et al., 2007). Firstly, IT professionals are highly skilled employees. In general, they are workers with high level of intelligence and education, and demanding very competitive wages (Maudgalya et al., 2006). In addition, IT professionals have a strong need for growth and personal development compared to those in other professions (Lee, 2000). Moreover, IT careers, more than most other professions, demand long hours, travel, and constant updating of skills (Ahuja, 2002). In such a demanding work environment, employee outcomes such as employee compliance and organizational citizenship behavior are crucially important. Qualified IT personnel are an important resource for organizations; thus, IT professionals' intentions to leave their organizations also need special attention. In addition, in Turkish context, there is very scarce research conducted on IT professionals employed in various industries. Moreover, Turkish IT market is one of the fastest growing markets in Europe. The size of Turkish IT market is forecasted to increase from US$7.7 billion in 2011

to US$13.8 billion by 2015 (Turkey Information Technology Report, 2011). Employment in Turkish IT industry can be expected to increase as the market size increases. Because of the reasons listed above, Turkish IT professionals are chosen as the subject of this study.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Leaders achieve goals and power is an instrument to facilitate this achievement (Robbins & Judge, 2009). Without power, it would not be possible for leaders to use their influence to get things done (Barrett, 2010). French and Raven (1959) defined social power as potential ability of an agent to influence a target. Other scholars also offer many different definitions of power. For instance, Thomas Hobbes ([1651], 1991, p. 62) stated that power is a man's "present means to obtain some future apparent good". Bertrand Russell (1938) indicated that power is the production of intended effects.

Individuals may have power on others for a variety of reasons such as gender, social class, and ethnicity. The emphasis here is on the nature of power as a social resource in organizations (Hewison, 2005). Several classifications have been made for bases of social power in organizations. However, French and Raven's (1959) power taxonomy (coercive, reward, legitimate, expert, and referent) has been widely used by scholars. French and Raven's (1959) taxonomy of power bases is detailed below:

Coercive power depends on "the ability of the power holder to take something away from the target person or to punish the target for non-compliance with a request" (Spoelstra and Pienaar, 2008, p. 114). This can be in the form of using disciplinary procedures, giving undesirable duties or responsibilities, and withholding support or privileges (Hewison, 2005). Reward power is the opposite of coercive power. Reward power depends on the ability to provide things others want or need in exchange for desired behaviors (O'Connell & Cuthbertso, 2009). Legitimate power is the authority assigned to a social position within a group (O'Connell & Cuthbertso, 2009). This power base is the ability to influence because of a position (Spoelstra & Pienaar, 2008). Expert power refers to influence a person may have as a result of expertise, special skill, or knowledge (Robbins & Judge, 2009). An individual can have expertise on different matters such as technical, administrative or personal (Spoelstra & Pienaar, 2008). Referent power is related to identification with a person who has desirable resources or personal traits (Robbins & Judge, 2009). Popularity or charisma is often used to describe referent power (O'Connell & Cuthbertso, 2009).

Compliance variable is an ideal criterion to associate with leader power bases because it is most directly linked with the outcomes of power use (Rahim & Afza, 1993). Warren (1968) differentiated between attitudinal and behavioral compliance. Attitudinal compliance is "the extent to which an employee wants to follow his or her superior's directives or wishes", while behavioral compliance is "the extent to which a subordinate actually carries out these instructions" (Rahim and Buntzman, 1988 in Rahim and Afza, 1993, p. 614).

Soranastaporn's (2001) research on 551 faculty members at a Thailand public university examined the relationship between department chairs' power bases and the empowerment, compliance, and conflict perceived by the faculty members. The study results showed that among the power bases expert power had the most influence, followed by legitimate power and referent power. The results also indicated that reward power and coercive power were not effective regarding to influence. Expert power caused both attitudinal and behavioral compliance while legitimate power caused just behavioral compliance. In addition, although referent power created attitudinal compliance, it also created conflict. Reward power did not create compliance but created empowerment while coercive power did not create compliance but created conflict.

Moreover, based on a literature review, Rahim and Buntzman (1989) concluded that expert, and referent, and to some extent, legitimate power bases generally induce compliance from subordinates. The

authors added that subordinates consider coercive and reward power bases as weak reasons for compliance. Rahim (1989) stated that the lack of consistent relationships between power bases and compliance might be partly related to the measurement and sampling deficiencies.

In light of literature review described above, in this current study, it will be hypothesized that expert and referent power bases have positive influence on subordinate behavioral and attitudinal compliance. Legitimate power base is expected to positively influence behavioral compliance. It should be noted that in this research, even though, leader, supervisor, or manager terms are used interchangeably within the text, what is investigated here is bases of leader power.

Another variable that is investigated in this study is organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). In today's ever-changing work environment, factors such as greater use of teams, flexible and networked organizations, and a global workforce (King et al., 2005) increase the importance of employees who willingly help others and go beyond their duties. OCB is defined as "individual behavior at work, that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 4).   OCB is a widely studied issue. The widespread interest in OCB is likely to be related to the belief that these behaviors enhance organizational effectiveness (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997).

Organ's (1988) statement of five component behaviors that represent organizational citizenship is widely accepted. Firstly, there is altruism defined as helping fellow employees with tasks or problems relevant to the work of that organization. Second behavior is conscientiousness, which involves voluntary behavior going well beyond minimum requirements of the role.   The third one is civic virtue, which is an indication of participating responsibly in the organization life.   The next one is sportsmanship, defined as any behavior demonstrating tolerance of less than ideal circumstances without complaining. The final one is courtesy, which includes efforts to prevent work-related issues with others (Goudge, 2006).

About the relationship between leader power bases and OCB, Jahangir et al.'s (2006) study on 195 top and middle-level employees of a private commercial bank in Bangladesh found that employees' perception of managers' expert power has a significant influence on employees' OCB.   In addition, it was found that employees with high job satisfaction will have higher OCB (Jahangir et al., 2006). Podsakoff et al. (2000) stated that when employees are not different to rewards that can be given by the organization, when employees perceive that their leaders administer rewards according to performance, OCB increases. In general, the results of field studies on social power suggest that coercive power is generally negatively related or unrelated to functional subordinate criterion variables such as subordinate performance, satisfaction with supervisor, and job satisfaction (Podsakoff & Schriesheim, 1985). Munduate and Dorado's (1998) study on 78 subjects from a wide range of Spanish organizations indicated that supervisors' referent power bases influence subordinates' co-operative behavior and organizational commitment. Because of the literature review given above, in this current research, it will be hypothesized that employees' perceptions of supervisory reward, expert and referent power bases positively influence IT professionals' OCB. It will also be hypothesized that supervisors' coercive power negatively influences IT professionals' OCB.

IT professionals' intention to quit is a critical issue for organizations. Intention to quit can be defined as "one's desire or willingness to leave an organization" (Altmaier & Hansen, 2012, p. 152). Intention to quit has been found a good predictor of employee turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000). Even though a weak labor market has limited their job turnover, skilled IT personnel are still a valuable resource for organizations (Dinger et al., 2011). High job skill marketability is likely to contribute to the high job turnover culture among IT employees (Beard, 2004).

About the relationship between leader power bases and employee intention to quit, Busch's (1980) research on 477 sales people indicated that with one exception (except for reward power) sales managers' noncoercive sources of power were negatively related with intention to quit. The study also found that coercive power base was positively, although not at a statistically significant level, related to intention to leave (Busch, 1980).

Moreover, Afza's (2005) research on 353 manufacturing employees in India found that coercive power positively affected propensity to leave. In addition, reward, expert, and referent power bases negatively affected propensity to leave. It was also seen that legitimate power was unrelated to intention to leave. Afza (2005) indicated that generally former studies indicated that personal power bases (e.g. expert and referent power) negatively affected intention to leave.

Because of the literature review discussed above, in this current study, it is expected that supervisors' expert and referent power have negative influence on intention to leave. In addition, it is expected that supervisors' coercive power positively influences employee intention to leave. The following hypotheses are formulated:

Hypothesis 1- Supervisors' legitimate power positively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (1a).

Hypothesis 2- Supervisors' expert power positively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (2a), attitudinal compliance (2b), and organizational citizenship behavior (2c), and negatively influences intention to quit (2d).

Hypothesis 3- Supervisors' referent power positively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (3a), attitudinal compliance (3b), and organizational citizenship behavior (3c), and negatively influences intention to quit (3d).

Hypothesis 4- Supervisors' reward power positively influences organizational citizenship behavior (4a).

Hypothesis 5- Supervisors' coercive positively influences subordinate intention to quit (5a), and negatively influences organizational citizenship behavior (5b).

METHODOLOGY

The target population of this study is Turkey's information technology professionals. A convenience sampling was employed to collect data. Questionnaires in Turkish distributed to collect data from IT professionals.

The questionnaire was placed in a survey web site and the survey link was sent to the participants along with an invitation text. The invitation to the survey included the purpose of the research briefly and assured the confidentiality of responses. In this study, the questionnaire was distributed online to reach IT professionals from a variety of industries and because of its convenience to the participants. It should be noted that IT professionals are considered internet users because it is related to their profession. The online distribution of the questionnaire might also have benefits in assuring the confidentially of responses compared to distributing paper questionnaires in organizations. The survey invitation was sent to contacts working in various IT organizations in Turkey and these contacts distributed the invitation within their organizations. In addition, the invitation was posted to several Turkish online email groups that have IT professional participants. In total, 153 Turkish IT professionals participated to the survey.

To measure perceptions of subordinates regarding their supervisors' bases of power, Rahim's (1988) Rahim Leader Power Inventory (RLPI) was used. This instrument has 29 items. Rahim and Afza's (1993) research provided evidence of construct and criterion validities of the RLPI instrument. The instrument has five subscales: Coercive, reward, legitimate, expert, and referent. Representative items from the scale include: "My superior has a pleasing personality", "I approach my superior for advice on work-related problems because she (he) is usually right", "My superior's position entitles her (him) to expect support of her (his) policies from me". The translation of the questionnaire was done by the researcher. Acar's (2009) Turkish translation of the instrument was used in this translation as a resource.

Behavioral and Attitudinal Compliance with Superior's Wishes Scale (CSWS) developed by Rahim (1988) was used in this study. The scale has satisfactory construct and criterion validities (Rahim & Buntzman, 1989). Representative items include: "I like to do what my superior suggests", "I follow the work-procedures set up by my superior". The scale has 10 items. Five items form a subscale for attitudinal compliance while the other five items form a subscale behavioral compliance. The translation of the scale was done by the researcher.

Researchers have used various scales to measure organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). In this research, the scale developed by Podsakoff, Ahearne, and MacKenzie (1997) was used. Organizational citizenship behaviors were measured by three widely recognized dimensions: Helping behavior, civic virtue, and sportsmanship (Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Podsakoff, Ahearne, and MacKenzie (1997) measured the self-reported behavior related ratings of respondents with this OCB scale. In that study, as a result of the analyses, it was seen that Cronbach's alpha values for OCB subscales were ranged between 0.88 and 0.96. Sample items from the instrument are "I help out others who fall behind in their work", I willingly share my expertise with others", "I try to act like a peacemaker when others have disagreements". Imer's (2009) Turkish translation of the instrument was used in this study as a resource. Some changes were made on the Imer's (2009) Turkish translation by the researcher.

Various scales have been used by researchers to measure intention to quit construct. Colarelli's (1984) scale was used in this research. The scale items are "I frequently think of quitting my job", "If I have my own way, I will be working in my current employer one year from now", "I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months". The translation of the instrument was done by the researcher.

All scales were translated from English to Turkish. The translations of the scales were examined by 2 bilingual academicians and the items were reverse translated to compare English and Turkish versions. Corrections were then made to make the questionnaire more understandable. The responses were anchored on a 6-item Likert scale (completely disagree = 1, completely agree = 6).

The respondents were also asked to provide information about themselves and the organization they work. Demographic questions that were asked: Gender, age, highest level of education obtained, marital status, organization industry category, level in the organizational hierarchy (top management, middle management, nonsupervisory employees), tenure in the company (in years), and job experience (in years).

ANALYSES AND RESULTS

Descriptive statistics of the sample is given in Table 1. Data analysis indicated that the participants' mean age was 29.97. 20.9% of the respondents were female, and 79.1% of the respondents were male. 52.9% respondents were single, while 47.1% of respondents were married. Most of the participants had a university degree (66.7%). The mean of tenure at work was 3.26 years. The mean of total job experience was 7.76 years. Most of the respondents were nonsupervisory employees (69.3%).

TABLE 1: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE STUDY

Variable	N	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range
Gender					
Male	121	79.1			
Female	32	20.9			
Age			29.97	5.84	21-60 years
Marital Status					
Married	72	47.1			
Single	81	52.9			
Education Level					
High School	8	5.2			
University	102	66.7			
Graduate	38	24.8			
Ph.D.	5	3.3			
Tenure			3.26	3.17	1-18 years
Total Experience			7.76	6.26	1-40 years
Position					
Top management	5	3.3			
Middle management	42	27.5			
Nonsupervisory employees	106	69.3			

In order to find the factor structure of bases of leader power scale, factor analysis using principal components solution with varimax rotation was used. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was found as .865, showing homogenous structure of variables. Bartlett Test values (significance: .000, *df:325*; Chi-square: 2178.570) indicated that variables were suitable for factor analysis. The analyses resulted in five factors: Expert, reward, referent, coercive, and legitimate power. These factors explained 63.483 % of the total variance.

The reliability of the bases of leader power factors was checked. During the data analysis, the sixth factor failed to be reliable (Cronbach's alpha= .473). Thus, this factor was discarded from further analysis. After this, the Cronbach's alpha value of the whole scale is .898. The reliabilities of the factors were found as satisfactory. During the analysis, the fifth factor's Cronbach's alpha value was found as .682. This value is below the minimum accepted value of .70 as suggested by Nunnally (1978). However, when the factor items were read, it was seen that the questions were quite relevant and created a meaningful factor. In addition, Hair et al. (2006) suggested that the lowest acceptable limit for Cronbach's alpha is .60. Thus, the items belong to the fifth factor were not dropped from the study.

Factor analysis was conducted for the organizational citizenship behavior scale. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was found as .705, and Bartlett Test values were found as as: .000, *df:* 55; Chi-square: 409.974, indicating that variables were suitable for factor analysis. The analyses resulted in three factors: Helping, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. These factors explained 58.109 % of the total variance. When the reliability of the factors was checked, the third factor's Cronbach's alpha value was found as .612. However, it was seen that the questions were quite relevant and created a meaningful factor. Thus, the items belong to the third factor were not dropped from the study. During the data analysis, the fourth factor was found to be unreliable (Cronbach's alpha= .468). Thus, items 4 and 6, belong to the fourth factor, were omitted from the study. After this, the Cronbach's alpha value of the whole scale is .712.

Factor analysis was done for compliance with supervisor's wishes scale. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was found as .789, and Bartlett Test values were found as as: .000, *df:* 45; Chi-square: 723.716,

indicating that variables were suitable for factor analysis. The analysis yielded two factors: Attitudinal compliance and behavioral compliance. The two factors explained 59.574 % of the total variance. The Cronbach's alpha value of the whole scale is .798. The second factor's Cronbach's alpha value was found as .547. However, the items were quite relevant and created a meaningful factor. Therefore, the items belong to the second factor were not taken out of further analyses.

Factor analysis was not conducted for the intention to quit scale because the scale consists of only three items. The Cronbach's alpha value of the whole scale is .712. The scale was found to be reliable.

In order to test the study's hypotheses, multiple regression analyses were conducted. Multicollinearity was also tested and the results pointed that multicollinearity was not a problem among independent variables.

Regression analyses were conducted between the independent variables and the dependent variables. The results are shown in Table 2, 3, and 4.

TABLE 2: REGRESSION ANALYSIS BETWEEN LEADER POWER BASES AND COMPLIANCE WITH SUPERVISOR'S WISHES

Dependent Variable: Behavioral Compliance (Factor 1)

Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value
Expert Power (Factor 1)	.250	2.810	**.003**
Reward Power(Factor 2)	-.190	-2.122	**.018**
Referent Power (Factor 3)	.192	1.996	**.024**
Coercive Power (Factor 4)	.074	1.031	.152
Legitimate Power (Factor 5)	.356	4.782	**.000**

R= .563; Adjusted R^2 = .293; F value= 13.621; p value= .000

Dependent Variable: Attitudinal Compliance (Factor 2)

Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value
Expert Power (Factor 1)	.121	1.190	.118
Reward Power(Factor 2)	-.002	-.021	.492
Referent Power (Factor 3)	.238	2.156	**.016**
Coercive Power (Factor 4)	.024	.292	.385
Legitimate Power (Factor 5)	-.223	-2.624	**.005**

R= .329; Adjusted R^2 = .078; F value= 3.558; p value= .005

As can be seen from Table 2, the data analyses indicated that leader expert power, referent power, and legitimate power positively influence subordinate "behavioral compliance" as hypothesized (hypotheses 1a, 2a, 3a). These findings underline the importance of these power bases to get behavioral compliance of IT professionals. In addition, reward power negatively influences behavioral compliance. Among these significant power base dimensions, legitimate power explains the greatest variance in behavioral compliance (beta= .356). The results also indicated that referent power positively influences "attitudinal compliance" as hypothesized (hypothesis 3b). On the other hand, legitimate power negatively affects attitudinal compliance.

TABLE 3: REGRESSION ANALYSIS BETWEEN LEADER POWER BASES AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

Dependent Variable: Helping (Factor 1)

Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value
Expert Power (Factor 1)	-.156	-1.572	.059
Reward Power(Factor 2)	-.032	-.319	.375
Referent Power (Factor 3)	.474	4.400	**.000**
Coercive Power (Factor 4)	.081	1.014	.156
Legitimate Power (Factor 5)	-.070	-.837	.202

R= .384; Adjusted R^2 = .119; F value= 5.096; p value= .000

Dependent Variable: Civic Virtue (Factor 2)

Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value
Expert Power (Factor 1)	.147	1.440	.076
Reward Power(Factor 2)	.131	1.273	.102
Referent Power (Factor 3)	.084	.760	.224
Coercive Power (Factor 4)	.049	.594	.276
Legitimate Power (Factor 5)	-.186	-2.175	**.015**

R= .312; Adjusted R^2 = .066; F value=3.165; p value= .010

Dependent Variable: Sportsmanship (Factor 3)

Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value
Expert Power (Factor 1)	.021	.201	.420
Reward Power(Factor 2)	-.044	-.422	.336
Referent Power (Factor 3)	.101	.889	.187
Coercive Power (Factor 4)	-.136	-1.616	.054
Legitimate Power (Factor 5)	-.165	-1.889	**.030**

R= .237; Adjusted R^2 = .024; F value= 1.743; p value= .128

TABLE 4: REGRESSION ANALYSIS BETWEEN LEADER POWER BASES AND INTENTION TO QUIT

Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit

Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value
Expert Power (Factor 1)	.144	1.463	.073
Reward Power(Factor 2)	-.052	-.525	.300
Referent Power (Factor 3)	-.449	-4.215	**.000**
Coercive Power (Factor 4)	.070	.882	.189
Legitimate Power (Factor 5)	.011	.137	.445

R= .409; Adjusted R^2 = .139; F value=5.904 ; p value= .000

Moreover, regression analysis was done between bases of leader power and subordinate organizational citizenship behavior. As listed in Table 3, the findings pointed that leader referent power positively influences employee helping OCB (beta= .474). In addition, it was found that leader legitimate power negatively influences subordinate civic virtue and sportsmanship OCB.

Furthermore, regression analysis was conducted between leader power bases and employee intention to quit. As given in Table 4, the results indicated that referent power negatively influences subordinate intention to quit. Such negative relationship was expected as indicated in hypothesis (3d) (beta= -.449).

The findings particularly underline the importance of leader referent power on the listed IT employee outcomes. Referent power is based on personality characteristics that direct followers' attention, respect, and admiration so that they want to emulate the leader (Daft, 2008). When people feel deep friendship or loyalty toward someone, they are usually are willing to do special favors for that person (Lewis et al., 2007). Referent power positively affects employee attitudes (Carson et al., 1997). As stated above, IT professionals are workers with high level of intelligence and education, and demanding very competitive wages (Maudgalya et al., 2006). Their such characteristics might be influential in the impact of referent power on the listed outcomes.

Moreover, although it was not hypothesized, it was found that leader legitimate power negatively influences subordinate attitudinal compliance, civic virtue and sportsmanship OCB. Today's IT work environment requires flexible work schedules and environments (Richard, 2009). Although IT work environments change from industry to industry, some IT industries such as software industry have laid-back, flexible work environment (Careers in Information Technology 2009). IT professionals "look forward to autonomy, challenging tasks, immediate and frequent feedback and rewards, ownership of ideas and enterprise, commitment to profession more than organization, teamwork/community of practices, de-bureaucratized work environment, and an open, consultative, fun-loving organizational culture" (Thite, 2006, p. 77). It should also be noted that the lines of legitimate power are less distinct in more organic type of organizations such as software firms. In such organizations, an employee may work for more than one boss at the same time. Moreover, the leaders and subordinates may have almost equal organizational standing (Griffin & Moorhead, 2012). Since IT environments require flexibility and have less distinct legitimate power structure, supervisors' legitimate power use and overemphasizing of authority can create negative influence on IT professionals' attitudinal compliance, civic virtue and sportsmanship OCB.

In addition, even though it was not hypothesized, it was found that reward power negatively influences behavioral compliance. This finding can be examined with further studies. Rahim and Buntzman (1989) stated that subordinates consider coercive and reward power bases as weak reasons for compliance. Moreover, Soranastaporn's (2001) research on 551 faculty members at a Thailand public university investigated the relationship between the power of department chairs and the empowerment, compliance, and conflict felt by the faculty members. The results indicated that reward power did not lead to compliance but led to empowerment while coercive power did not lead to compliance but led to conflict. Soranastaporn's (2001) study, as in this current research, points that leader reward power was ineffective in terms of getting employee compliance.

Furthermore, the fifth hypothesis, supervisors' coercive positively influences subordinate intention to quit, and negatively influences organizational citizenship behavior, is not accepted. Such finding can be explained as follows: Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's (1998) research on understanding cultural diversity among 38 nations pointed that "Turkey to have the steepest hierarchy in its organizations, indicating the subordination of employees to their leaders" (in Paşa et al., 2001, p. 568-569). According to Paşa et al.'s (2001) research on 92 Turkish participants, hierarchical-autocratic behavior is the most frequently perceived leader behavior. Moreover, Yahyagil and Ötken's (2011) and Yahyagil's (2011, p.

1033) studies on societal/cultural values of Turkish society pointed that "hierarchy was ranked as the second most important polar dimension" (hierarchy versus egalitarianism). Yahyagil and Ötken (2011, p. 1033) stated that such result indicates "a cultural emphasis on the legitimacy of unequal distribution of power, roles, and resources". Because of these listed cultural characteristics, Turkish IT professionals might tolerate their supervisors' use of coercive power. Such toleration may be influential on the study result that supervisors' coercive power does not affect subordinate intention to quit or OCB.

As stated above, IT professionals exhibit characteristics that differ from those in other professions (Armstrong et al., 2007). IT careers, more than most other professions, demand long hours, travel and constant updating of skills (Ahuja, 2002). Such different characteristics of IT employees might be the influential in why some of the hypothesized relationships were not supported according to the data analysis results. In addition, the differences in results between former studies conducted in Western countries and this current research may be related with the fact that this study was done in Turkish context. Cultural differences might be influential in such differing outcomes. These results need to be examined with further studies.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study investigated the impact of bases of leader power on the listed employee outcomes: Attitudinal and behavioral compliance and organizational citizenship behavior, and intention to quit. The results partially supported the influence of leader power bases on the listed employee outcomes.

The findings suggest that leaders' use of expert power, referent power, and legitimate power can be influential in behavioral compliance of IT professionals. In addition, referent power can be useful in increasing IT professionals' attitudinal compliance and OCB and decreasing their intention to quit. Utilizing on their expert power, IT managers can make their expertise easily accessible by subordinates when needed. Making use of referent power base at work, organizations can hire IT supervisors who have charisma and who can get admiration and respect from IT employees. However, leaders should use legitimate power with caution since this power base can also decrease employee attitudinal compliance, civic virtue, and sportsmanship OCB.

The results of this study have several implications. The findings can be beneficial for organizational leaders and human resource practitioners to understand the influence of bases of leader power on IT professionals' organizational citizenship behavior, compliance, and intention to quit. Such understanding can be useful for organizations in efforts to increase leadership effectiveness and good management of IT human capital.

In today's world, the effective management of human resources is crucially important for organizations to stay competitive. This is especially true for the management of IT professionals since they are highly skilled employees who work in a demanding environment. As indicated before, even though a weak labor market has limited their job turnover, skilled IT personnel are still a valuable resource for organizations (Dinger et al., 2011). Beard (2004) indicated that there is a high job turnover culture among IT employees. The findings of this current study can be beneficial for organizations in decreasing IT professionals' intention to quit. In addition, along with monetary benefits, organizations can offer non-monetary benefits to IT professionals to effectively utilize their IT human capital and to decrease IT professionals' intention to quit. These non-monetary benefits can be such as in the form of personal growth and development opportunities, trainings that allow constant updating of skills, and employee mentoring.

This research has some limitations. The data were collected through questionnaires from IT professionals with self-reported measures. The answers represented the perceptions of employees, such as their perceptions about supervisors' use of power bases. Both independent and dependent variables

were gathered from the same source, which may lead to common method variance due to single-source bias. Moreover, the data were collected from respondents agreeing to participate to the survey, which might limit the generalizability of the survey results. In addition, it is common for IT professionals to split their time to work on two or more projects (Schwalbe, 2011). If a respondent has more than one supervisor, the IT professional may hesitate about which one of the supervisors he/she should consider while answering the questionnaire.

Some aspects of this study needs to be investigated with further studies. Future studies can test alternative models with additional variables such as organizational climate or leadership style (transactional or transformational). In addition, future studies on this subject especially in non-western settings can be fruitful.

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Putting it in Writing: Examining the Link between Higher Education Institution Performance Rankings, Best Places to Work, and Emphasis on Human Resources in Mission Statements

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This study examined at the content of vision statements, mission statements, and strategic plans for three groups of higher education institutions (HEIs). The focus of this analysis was to determine if an emphasis on the interests and welfare of employees was included in these statements. In addition, the Top 100 Best Colleges from the 2012 U.S. News & World Report rankings were compared to a random selection of HEIs. The results indicate that the externally ranked schools had a higher number of statements highlighting the welfare of their workforce in their strategic documents, thus affirming the importance of employees.

INTRODUCTION

It is evident that improving performance within higher education institutions is a requirement for the future. President Emeritus of Harvard, Derek Bok (2006: 316) stated:

> Beyond individual teachers lies a deeper reluctance on the part of academic leaders and their faculties as a whole to undertake a continuous, systematic effort to improve the quality of education. In this respect, universities are badly out of step with the times. Most successful organizations today, regardless of the work they do, are trying hard to become effective "learning organizations" that engage in an ongoing process of improvement by constantly evaluating their performance, identifying problems, trying various remedies, measuring their success, discarding those that do not work, and incorporating those that do. In theory, universities should be leaders in such efforts, since they have pioneered in developing methods for evaluating other institutions in the society. In fact, however, they leave a lot to be desired when it comes to working systematically to improve their own performance.

Van De Ven (2007: 261) observed: "organizations are buzzing, blooming, and confusing. No one person can figure them out. This is hard to see when you are constantly pursuing one point of view. But you won't know if you only talk to yourself." Learning organizations must adapt to change, not pursue a linear strategy.

Higher education organizations must then adapt structure and strategy by benchmarking and replicating the practices of private enterprise. Van De Ven (2007: 265) further concluded:

> Engaged scholarship is a participative form of research for obtaining the different perspectives of key stakeholders (researchers, users, clients, sponsors, and practitioners) in producing knowledge about complex problems. By exploiting differences in the kinds of knowledge that scholars and other stakeholders from diverse backgrounds can bring forth on a problem, I argued that engaged scholarship can produce knowledge that is more penetrating and insightful than when scholars or practitioners work on the problems alone.

Allen (2003) observed that when higher education institutions attempt to change, it is often with an unquestioning reliance on a specific management style and structure. Unfortunately, this approach can result in reduced employee motivation, resistance to change, a dysfunctional culture, and poor execution. Inflexible strategic protocol is inconsistent with the grounded work of Chandler (1962, 1992) who concluded that changes in structure should follow changes in strategy.

The Importance of People

One promising construct for closing the strategy execution gap in higher education is to put the emphasis on people (Pfeffer, 1998, 2010). Pfeffer (1998: 5) asserts that the organization of today fail to align business practices with strategy:

> If you seek success in the wrong places, you are likely to waste a lot of effort, focus on the wrong things, and, in the end, overlook some of the real sources of competitive leverage-the culture and capabilities of your organization that derive from how you manage your people.

Organization successes, as well as failure, are attributed to the alignment of strategy and structure (Chandler, 1962, 1992). Allen (2003) posits a causal relationship between strategy and informal organizational structure, i.e., culture. Bossidy and Charan (2007) link strategy, operations, and people as an execution tripod. A seminal work by Kotter and Heskett (1992) documents the importance of strategy corresponding to the characteristics and complexity of an industry. Pfeffer (1998, 2010) reaches the conclusion that competitive advantage is obtained by putting people first. Barney (1991) integrates the role of people and organizational culture for achieving causal ambiguity, which leads to a competitive advantage.

The metrics selected to measure the magnitude and significance of people in organizations; vision statements, mission statements and strategic plans, have been grounded in the body of knowledge on organizations. Pearce and David (1987) empirically linked mission statement content to performance. In general, a mission statement functions as a foundation to help create a culture that can be integrated to the organization's overall purpose. However, employees were not one of the mission statement content components in the Pearce and David study. Peters and Waterman (1982) identified productivity through people as one of eight characteristics that defined excellent companies. Bain (2004) identified a link between informal organizational structure and employee satisfaction and performance.

Collins and Porras (1996: 71) posit the significant role of people in adopting and sharing an organization's ideology and vision:

> How do we get people to share our core ideology? You don't. You can't. Instead, find people who are predisposed to share your core values and purpose; attract and retain those people; and let those who do not share your core values go elsewhere.

Pfeffer (1998, 2010) emphatically advocates the need for organizations to recognize and empower employees, with particular insistence on the need for organizations to clearly exhibit employment security as a strategic planning outcome. Fawcett, Rhoads, and Burnah (2004) integrate employee empowerment with strategic benchmarking as a means of achieving competitiveness. Schermerhorn, Hunt, Osborn and Uhl-Bien (2009) researched high performance organizations, (HPOs) and found that employee participation, organizational learning, and support of employee intellectual capital to be critical strategic directives for differentiating HPOs from traditional organizations.

This present study begins with a review of the relevant strategy frameworks for higher education institutions (HEIs). We then examine the relationship between an institution's ranking and its emphasis

on employees in its mission, vision, and strategy statements. The paper concludes with implications and a further research agenda.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The theoretical frameworks for strategy are relatively recent. Porter (1980) introduced what evolved into the industry-based view of strategy. This framework for strategy prevailed throughout the 1980s. The 1990s were greeted with the resource-based view (Barney, 1991, 2001). The resource-based view (RBV) was followed by a renewed appreciation for the institution-based view of strategy (North, 1990) during the first decade of the twenty-first century.

The practical application of strategy theory has been challenged by contextual dynamics. Peng, Sun, Pinkham, and Chen (2009: 63) offer this statement: "the long-standing criticisms of the industry-based and resource-based views' lack of attention to contexts." Therefore, it can be reasonably argued that the most attractive strategy framework must be consistent with the complexity and dynamics of a given industry. A mechanistic industry necessitates a strategy framework different from an organic industry (Burns & Stalker, 1961; Mintzberg, 1979). Mintzberg (1987:75) states: "In more complex organizations, this may mean building flexible structures, hiring creative people, defining broad umbrella strategies, and watching for patterns that emerge."

The evolution of institutions in higher education has resulted in more complex organizations (Becher & Kogan, 1992), as well as the need to integrate formal and informal structures with strategy. Allen (2003: 61) argues: "a more sophisticated approach to strategic planning and change should be utilized reflecting the need to view the HEI (higher education institution) as a symbiotic community." A symbiotic community requires mutual dependence, support, and benefit.

The symbiotic community can be evasive to institutions that fail to properly integrate the theoretical foundations of strategy with resources and industry complexity. Hamal and Prahalad (1989: 131) offer this poignant comment on strategic fit:

> Both models recognize the problem of competing in a hostile environment with limited resources. But while the emphasis in the first is on trimming ambitions to match available resources, the emphasis on the second is on leveraging resources to reach seemingly unattainable goals.

This study argues that for any organization, and expressly higher education, attainment of lofty goals by mutual dependence, support, and "strategic fit" can only be achieved with a consummate fixation on people as a core competency (Pfeffer 1998, 2010).

Theoretical Frameworks

The theoretical frameworks for strategy include the industry-based view (Porter 1980, 1996, 2008). Porter's seminal work includes mainstream strategy mechanisms including concepts such as generic strategy, the five forces model, and the Diamond. The industry-based view is competition focused. The objectives are to strategically position your organization where competitive forces are weakest, or where your organization is the least vulnerable. The industry-based view has been criticized because it generalizes strategy and fails to take organizational context into consideration (Peng et al., 2009).

The institution-based view (North, 1990) has received renewed interest, in large part as a result of the contextual criticism of the industry-based view. This view incorporates inputs from the institutional environment to formulate strategy. Peng and Khoury (2009: 261) observed: "when formal constraints are absent or incomplete, informal constraints intervene to mitigate uncertainty and provide a guide to

managers." The institutional-based view addresses the contextual criticism of the industry-based view by incorporating environmental inputs.

The resource-based view (Barney 1991, 2001) theorizes that heterogeneous and imperfectly mobile resources can be strategically deployed to obtain either a competitive advantage or a sustainable competitive advantage. Barney (1991: 102) defines a sustainable competitive advantage as: "not simultaneously being implemented by any current or potential competitor and when these other firms are unable to duplicate the benefits of this strategy." The resource-based view (RBV) incorporates four resource characteristics into the VRIO Model (Barney, 1991). These model components are value, rareness, inimitability, and organizations.

Higher education institutions require the intellectual capital of faculty as well as staff to remain competitive. Intellectual capital has been identified as the foundation for high performance organizations (Schermerhorn, et al., 2009). Intellectual capital can become a competitive advantage for higher education institutions, and even a sustainable competitive advantage via the RBV tenant of causal ambiguity, which makes intangible characteristics of an organization such as employee satisfaction, motivation and organizational culture difficult to identify and replicate by outsiders.

The last component of Barney's VRIO Model, organization, asks this question: Does an organization have the conditions in place to capitalize on a resource? Putting these conditions in place requires an appreciation and adoption of the institution-base view of strategy. The institution-based view of strategy encourages and accepts inputs from the institution. Additionally, when there are formal constraints to an institution's execution, informal constraints manifest themselves to dominance.

Practically then, this paper positions a combination of the RBV and the institution-based view as most strategic for higher education's resource base. The former capitalizes on intellectual capital and the latter puts conditions in place to avoid any formal constraint to strategy execution. A multi-process strategic framework consisting of the resource-based view and the institution-based view is grounded within the literature (Peng, et al., 2009; Oliver, 1997; Hart & Banbury, 1994).

People First

"Successful organizations understand the importance of implementation, not just strategy, and, moreover, recognize the crucial role of their people in the process," (Pfeffer, 1998: 16).

Bossidy and Charan (1997: 141) add:

> After all, it's the people of an organization who make judgments about how markets are changing, create strategies based upon these judgments, and translate the strategies into operational realities. To put it simply and starkly: If you don't get the people process right, you will never fulfill the potential of your business.

Bosse, Phillips, and Jeffrey (2009) studied employee fairness and concluded that treating employees fairly resulted in enhanced performance. Barney (1991) identified causal ambiguity, achieved through people, as a source of sustainable competitive advantage. de Wall (2008) completed a meta-analysis of 280 publications on high performance organizations and found that people evidence contributed to superior performance metrics for HPOs.

Higher Education Strategy

The industry-based view of strategy (Porter, 1980, 1996, 2008) appears as the most frequent theoretical framework supporting higher education strategy. The generic strategy emphasis is through

differentiation, primarily by concentrating on curricula. This approach though has resulted in costly "me-too" academic programs. Higher education institutions have largely failed in obtaining strategic niches.

Additionally, the culture at higher education institutions plays a significant role in strategy execution. Tierney (1988) identified employees in general and faculty as essential components of a higher education culture. Sporn (1996) observed a lack of clarity in HEI cultures and concluded that symbolic approaches along with artifacts that promulgate values and the roles of people are constructive in achieving greater clarity. Finally, Gioia, Thomas, Clark, and Chittipeddi (1994) concluded that strategic change was directly related to achieving a level of cognitive understanding and acceptance from employees.

The Strategy Formulation/Implementation Gap

A disconnection or gap between the theoretical schema of strategy and core organizational resources results in negative undesirable outcomes, including employee dissatisfaction, low morale, employee turnover, and poor financial performance. These outcomes are symptomatic of the lack of a learning organization (Senge, 1990).

According to institution-based theory, such disconnect will create formal constraints to execution. When formal constraints, such as a non-adaptive structure and lack of motivation in the workforce exist, informal constraints, such as a dysfunctional organizational culture and a decline in values, manifest themselves (Sporn, 1996).

Bossidy and Charan (2007: 195) stated: "An astonishing number of strategies fail because leaders don't make a realistic assessment of whether the organization can execute the plan." Bossidy and Charan's trilogy for execution; strategy, operations and people advocates a robust interest in people as the means to fulfill the execution gap. More recently, Crandall and Crandall (2013) point out that a tri-pod base is needed to implement organizational change, infrastructure, technology, and culture, the last of which is people based.

One goal of this study is to extend the body of evidence on the significance that vision statements and mission statements have upon organizational outcomes (Pearce & David, 1987; Collins & Porras, 1996) to higher education strategy formulation and implementation. The second goal is to identify a gap in the theoretical framework supporting higher education strategy, and the execution of that strategy (Bossidy & Charan, 2002) as mediated by the degree of employee emphasis (Pfeffer, 1998, 2010).

It is hoped the results of this study will illuminate the causal relationship between people and outcomes that are unequivocally desired by organizations in all industries, but disengaged from strategy formulation and execution in higher education. Hart and Banbury (1994: 251) observed: "Strategy-making is typically portrayed in 'either/or' terms-either rational or incremental, or separated into formulation and implementation activities."

Research Question

Given the extensive body of knowledge on strategy formulation and implementation, and the achievement of desired organizational outcomes by integrating people, the following research question is proposed:

> Do HEIs that are highly ranked emphasize employees in their mission statements, vision statements, and strategic plans?

Given the extensive body of knowledge on strategy formulation and implementation, and the emphasis on people as an antecedent to several positive organizational outcomes, including employee satisfaction, performance, and organizational commitment, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 1 – HEIs that are identified as best performing universities will emphasize the value of employees in their vision statements, mission statements, or strategic plans to a greater degree than lower ranking HEIs.

Hypothesis 2 - HEIs that are identified as best places to work will emphasize the value of employees in their vision statements, mission statements, or strategic plans to a greater degree than lower ranking HEIs.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

This study was based upon the performance rankings of higher education institutions published by *U.S. News & World Report* (2012), and a ranking of higher education institutions that was compiled by *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (2012). A random sample of 100 U.S. HEIs was compared to the top 100 schools from each of the two above rankings.

The random sample was selected from *The University of Texas* (2013), U. S. Universities by State data base, www.utexas.edu/world/univ/state, which contains a listing of over 2000 colleges and universities. A random sample of 100 of these institutions was obtained by utilizing www.random.org.

Data Collection

Each of the three groups of HEIs were subjected to a content analysis to determine if the institution acknowledged employees as a valuable resource. The analysis reviewed the vision statement, mission statement and strategic plan on the institution's website. For example, some institutions mentioned the enrichment and development of their faculty and staff as a strategic goal. Such a statement would be considered an acknowledgement of the value of employees.

Two researchers completed the examination of the available statements. Each team member consulted with and verified the work of the other member. Observations were coded with a 1 if a reference to employees as a valuable resource was acknowledged. Since there were three sources of information to analyze (vision statements, mission statements and strategic plans), a potential score of 3 for each institution was possible. Negative observations, and unavailable statements, were coded with a 0.

Hypothesis Testing

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine the differences in means of the three study groups. Table 1 depicts the hypothesis testing rationale.

RESULTS

Table 2 shows the results of the initial one-way ANOVA analysis for the three study groups. The resulting F value of 3.482 was significant at $p = .032$, indicating that a difference in means was detected among the three groups.

TABLE 1: HYPOTHESIS RATIONALE DESIGN

Hypothesis	Top 100 National Universities	100 Random HEIs	Top 100 Best Places to Work	Results
Hypothesis 1 –HEIs that are identified as best performing universities will emphasize the value of employees in their vision statements, mission statements, or strategic plans to a greater degree than lower ranking HEIs.	Mean score	Mean score		A significant difference in means will support hypothesis 1.
Hypothesis 2 - HEIs that are identified as best places to work will emphasize the value of employees in their vision statements, mission statements, or strategic plans to a greater degree than lower ranking HEIs.		Mean score	Mean score	A significant difference in means will support hypothesis 2.

TABLE 2: RESULTS OF THE ONE-WAY ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.180	2	2.590	3.482	.032
Within Groups	220.900	297	.744		
Total	226.080	299			

A Scheffe follow-up up test was run to determine which groups displayed differences among each other. The results are shown in Table 3 along with the two research hypotheses.

TABLE 3: HYPOTHESES TESTING*

Hypothesis #	Top 100 National Universities	100 Random HEIs	Top 100 Best Places to Work	Sig.
Hypothesis 1	1.26 (.92791)	.95 (.86894)		.041
Hypothesis 2		.95 (.86894)	1.03 (.78438)	.807

***One-way ANOVA with Scheffe follow-up test; mean and (standard deviation).

The analysis indicated a significant difference between the Top 100 National Universities and the 100 randomly selected schools, thus supporting hypothesis 1. No significant difference in means was found between the Top 100 Best Schools to Work for and the randomly selected schools. Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

DISCUSSION – PUTTING IT IN WRITING

In support of hypothesis 1, this study found a significant differentiation between the *U.S. News & World Report* Best Colleges (National University classification) and a random sample of U.S. HEIs. The finding supports our position that the higher-ranking schools emphasize employees to a greater degree than a random selection of schools. What is interesting is that the ranked schools "put it in writing." In other words, statements pertaining to the welfare of employees are not just slogans that appear on the school's website (e.g., our employees are our greatest asset), but such statements are written into documents that pertain to the strategic direction of the school.

Accreditation agencies put a great amount of scrutiny on what is contained in strategic related documents, as these dictate how the institution should look in the future. Such statements must be measurable, and hence, verifiable. The top administrators at a HEI know that what is written in a vision statement, mission statement, or strategic plan will be evaluated by stakeholders based on whether the items in the plan were carried out or not. Interested stakeholders include accreditation agencies, governing boards, parents, students, and even their faculty members.

More than just becoming more capable in these areas because of the external evaluation or greater scrutiny, the operating systems and the culture of the best performing universities must have been reshaped to emphasize the value of employees. There is general acknowledgement that reaching these objectives within HEIs is a complex process that has to be first modeled and also carefully led. The interaction between employees and leadership within an aligned, efficient, and supportive operating context and culture produces benefits.

Interestingly enough, hypothesis 2 was not supported. This finding is indeed perplexing, given that this hypothesis looked specifically at HEIs that were best places to work. The key to understanding this finding most likely lies in determining what differences there are between the two groups of schools, high ranking vs. best places to work.

More than "put it in writing" as part of their vision statements, mission statements, or strategic plans; there is a broad range of cultural and functional factors that are prerequisites for employees to truly engage towards the goals of an HEI. Developing and implementing these desired conditions are not done through individual events. They are complex endeavors that involve new learning, as well as an unlearning process for everyone. This is a change process that does not simply happen by itself, but through comprehensive programs that feature carefully focused learning processes, as well as implementation that involves skillful leadership.

Study Limitations

One limitation is that the two samples did not differentiate between private and publically funded HEIs. It is thus not possible to conclude that this study is representative of HEIs in the United States. A second limitation is the subjectivity of the content analysis for the vision statements, mission statements, and strategic plan that was conducted on each of the HEIs examined.

Recommendations for Future Research

This work provides the field of strategy research with additional knowledge gained, but also highlights the existence of significant gaps that need to be pursued. Addressing the limitations delineated herein is an important first step. The sample can be examined to see what differences exist, if any, among public and private institutions in the United States. In addition, the study can be expanded to incorporate higher education institutions globally. There are known disincentives for HEI staff and faculty, such as inadequate salaries and the status of research relative to teaching, as well as unclear career pathways, methods and measurement of recognition, and what counts for promotion. Future research should look at other dependent variables such as employee turnover and tenure, as well as other factors that measure the participation and engagement of employees, as well as the degree to which they contribute to the operations of the HEIs and to their vision statements, mission statements, or strategic plans.

CONCLUSION

All organizations depend on people to get things done. Numerous studies document that efforts to engage employees typically provides positive results. The performance levels of employees can significantly affect the execution and attainment of the mission of organizations. Institutions of higher learning are under increasing demands and pressures, which are testing the abilities of these organizations, as well as their employees and leaders. This study has examined the relationships between published performance rankings of HEIs, the "best places to work" designation, and the institution's emphasis on human resources within their mission statements or strategic goals. Although broader societal change forces have generated new expectations for higher education, this study identified that responding to changes has enabled some to respond and implement effective approaches.

Placing emphasis on employees as an integral part the vision, mission statements, or strategic plans can help organizations achieve institutional improvements. The insight from this study is significant because it implies that HEIs that emphasize and engage their employees have efficient and supportive environments that foster change and they achieve recognition for their efforts.

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Service-Learning as a Practical Approach to Teaching Auditing

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Business pedagogy can be more effective for students and business through a hands-on, practical approach rather than traditional lectures. The Pathways Commission of the AICPA and AAA recommended we "develop curriculum models, engaging learning resources, and mechanisms for easily sharing them as well as enhancing faculty development opportunities in support of sustaining a robust curriculum" (American Accounting Association 2012 p. 12; Hawawini 2005). In this article, we present a method to teach auditing. We identify a few articles integrating service-learning opportunities into a business school environment (Tonge and Willett 2012; Govekar and Rishi 2007). Our student teams performed agreed-upon procedures at three small churches. Qualitative data from both students and church personnel support this pedagogy. We develop practical implications for upper-level undergraduate business courses.

INTRODUCTION

"The educational preparation of accountants should rest on a comprehensive and well-articulated vision of the role of accounting in the wider society" (American Accounting Association 2012 p. 21). The teaching of auditing is not unlike several disciplines where foundational material is taught. The subject matter, while critical, can be tedious and uninteresting. Educating (and therein, learning) in this environment is at best, challenging, and at worst, short-term rote memorization. With the latter, students leave the experience wanting more and lacking the passion to pursue the subject further.

This is the dilemma our project attempts to solve: how to combine a real world, hands-on experience with service-learning to a subject that, traditionally, does not lend itself to applied learning techniques. Critics may argue that this issue can be mitigated to an extent with internships. Internships allow students to gain certain practical experience while surrounded by specialists in their field, performing similar tasks as a full-time professional.

We find, however, several drawbacks to the internship process. Specifically, it may be difficult for students to relate classroom material to an applied setting. Also, internships generally occur when the student is away from the classroom / university, and the supervisor may not be able to make the necessary connections between the classroom and the work experience. Indeed, as noted by Black, "the classroom experience is diminished by the distance between pedagogical content and practice reality" (Black 2013 p. 21). If while on an internship assignment after a gap in the appropriate subject matter, the student may find the experience lacking due to a lack of frequent pedagogical reinforcement or the feeling that they are not in a safe environment that welcomes numerous questions or academic curiosity.

Service-learning is "a balanced pedagogy anchored in reciprocity: the service-learning experience benefits students and community" (Govekar and Rishi 2007 p. 4). The project we implemented is a good way to fill the full breadth of experiences left out during an internship opportunity. During a service-learning project, students have the opportunity to go out in the field with professionals and bring the experience back to the classroom for discussion and analysis on how to apply the coursework to the experience in the field. The hands-on experience along with an interactive dialog allows students to complete a circle of knowledge and fully understand the material covered in class. Also, the service-learning experience, as opposed to the internship, helps the community and churches, while gaining practical knowledge for students.

Since it can be very ineffective to teach business topics with traditional lecture style classes, we integrated a service-learning project into our undergraduate Auditing II class. In this service-learning project, student teams audited small churches as volunteers. This project is in response to the Pathways Commission Report issued by the American Accounting Association (AAA) and the American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (AICPA). Auditing a small church will enhance the financial auditing education and interpersonal communication skills of accounting students by improving the quality of the overall learning experience through a hands-on, practical approach.

But while our paper focuses on a project used in an auditing class, we recommend consideration of service-learning as an addition to any upper level business course. Indeed, Govekar and Rishi provide examples of the success of service-learning experiences in both an economics course on money and banking as well as a non-profit management course. For the economics course, "89% of the class reported that their experience at an adult and teen learning center had enhanced personal understanding of general economics" (Govekar and Rishi 2007 p. 5). The management course demonstrated similar results while students recognized "the value of real-life experience in doing something that made a difference in the community" (Govekar and Rishi 2007 p. 5).

For our paper, we first present a review of literature supporting the lack of effectiveness in auditing pedagogy and churches' need for financial assistance. We then present our method of research and the steps we took in implementing our service-learning project, followed by evidence and reflections from participants including the authors.

LITERATURE REVIEW

It has become increasingly apparent over the past few years that accounting education has been doing a less than superior job of preparing accounting students to become accounting professionals (ASEC AAA 2003; Albrecht and Sack 2000; Dickens and Reisch 2009). The AAA along with the AICPA has taken steps to restructure accounting pedagogy to move the accounting profession forward in a changing world. The Pathways Commission Report was released in July 2012 by the AAA and the AICPA to, among other things, lay the foundation of restructuring accounting education. One of the recommendations in the Pathways Commission Report is to "develop curriculum models, engaging learning resources, and mechanisms for easily sharing them as well as enhancing faculty development opportunities in support of sustaining a robust curriculum" (American Accounting Association 2012 p. 12). It is this recommendation to which this paper endorses a hands-on, practical pedagogy.

The accounting profession has earned much criticism with the scandals at Arthur Andersen, Health South, Tyco, Enron, and WorldCom in the early part of the century. The Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002 is an example of a regulatory measure that has been taken to bring the profession back to a positive light. Amerinic and Craig (2004) have explored ways of "reforming accounting education in the post-Enron era." Historical casework increases awareness of what has happened in the history of accounting so that measures can be taken to ensure that the profession can move out of the shadows and bring forth the proper knowledge to conduct responsible business.

Auditing, along with many upper-level business courses, can be a challenging subject to teach within the confines of business pedagogy. One student described her initial auditing course as "boring and tedious when memorizing the huge amount of material" (Student 1 comments, December 2011). The majority of an introductory auditing course is foundational; examples include: defining what an audit is, what it is used for, and why it is important in the business world. The course progresses into the practice of how to actually perform an audit starting with engagement meetings, audit planning, testing, and finally issuing an audit report. All of this information in a formal classroom setting can be very dry and may not get the attention of the students.

A second student stated, "[after an entire course of Auditing I,] I am still unclear what actually happens in an audit" (Student 2 comments, December 2011). Many curricula have focused auditing education on casework to provide students a practical approach to complement the theory taught in class (Kranacher, et al. 2008; ASEC AAA 2003; Drake 2011; Tonge and Willett 2012; Albrecht and Sack 2000; Amernic and Craig 2004). These same criticisms can be applied to other areas of business pedagogy such as management, marketing, and economics. Most courses that cover primary business disciplines begin by presenting a vast amount of information that is difficult to consume without application.

Many universities have integrated service-learning in accounting curriculums as a tool for enhancing learning and student performance in the classroom by addressing the call for accounting education to move beyond 'number crunching' to critical analysis and problem solving (Still and Clayton 2004). It is important for students to be interested in what is being taught in business classes so they can take the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) into the accounting profession (Tonge and Willett 2012; Dickins and Reisch 2009; McCoskey and Warren 2003; Weisz and Smith 2005; Kolb 1984; McClam, et al. 2007; Drueth and Drueth-Fewell 2005; Govekar and Rishi 2007).

Auditing skills are not, however, the only KSAs necessary to be successful in the accounting profession. "Recruiters believe that the specific discipline is often not as important as all-round abilities and attributes such as interpersonal and relational skills" (Weisz 2000 p. 33). In addition, "teaching methods must also provide opportunities for students to experience the kinds of work patterns that they will encounter in the public accounting profession. As most practice requires working in groups, the curriculum should encourage the use of a team approach" (Black 2013 p. 21). Since it is increasingly apparent that companies are actively looking for students with demonstrated interpersonal, communication, and teamwork skills, service-learning programs have included these attributes with exceptional results (Still and Slayton 2004; Dickins and Reisch 2009; McCoskey and Warren 2003; Weisz and Smith 2005; Govekar and Rishi 2007; Montano, et al. 2001; Weisz 2000; Cates and Langford 1999).

As a part of service-learning opportunities, it is important that each party in the project benefits from the project experience (Still and Slayton 2004; McCoskey and Warren 2003). Religious organizations as a whole have been facing an integrity crisis. In a religious organization, internal control is viewed as a worldly activity that is not necessary in a Christian environment (Enofe and Amaria 2011). Since the financial position of many churches is precarious, an annual audit of churches can be beneficial to both the church and the students as a service-learning opportunity (Enfoe and Amaria 2011; Capin 2001).

RESEARCH METHOD

Churches have been facing integrity issues for some time and have taken it upon themselves to find a solution to the problem (Capin 2001). Conducting church audits in the second auditing class for undergraduate students came as an idea from the churches themselves. Also, as noted earlier, auditing can be a difficult subject to teach within the struggling accounting pedagogy. The Pathways Commission Report is aimed at improving the overall teaching of accounting. Classes that integrate service-learning opportunities in subject matters that are generally taught via theory and lecture style have generated success in students' ability to learn and attain the purpose and process of the material. For example, Govekar and Rishi noted that Economics students "thought creatively about otherwise possibly dull financial topics" when service-learning became part of the coursework (Govekar and Rishi 2007 p. 7).

Student auditing teams were randomly assigned. Had time permitted, it may have been beneficial to incorporate Learning Style Inventory (LSI) as a method to group students. LSI has been used in higher education as a way to show different learning styles that are associated with different approaches to

learning (Kolb and Kolb 2005). After the groups were assigned, each was given information about their respective church. Each group then met to take care of necessary housekeeping items such as when the group could gather for meetings and designating team member roles. Each group was required to have an audit manager, quality reviewer, and staff auditors (reference Figure 1: Audit Steps).

After getting acquainted with the background of each church, the groups met with the financial leader of their church for an engagement meeting. In this meeting, groups discussed particulars of the church and were presented with the current year financial statements, prior year audit report, and the current year budget as well as any necessary financial software used by the church for testing purposes. In addition, each group was given the Local Church Audit Guide generally accepted by their church's denomination. Each church was looking for slightly different information, which made each audit its own agreed-upon procedures engagement.

Figure 1: Audit Steps

Pre Work	Value Proposition	Client Engagement / Management	Implementation	Client Feedback / Student Feedback
• Team organization • Establishing protocols • Articulating the problem	• What is the benefit to the client • What talents will the client have access to • How will this promote learning at the deepest level for students	• Understanding the client's needs and environment • Understanding the technical requirements of auditing including assessing risks • Communication skills • Project manage-ment skills	• Execution of the audit program • Leveraging team skills • Maximizing the benefits to the students and the clients • Delivering on the audit and final report	• Debriefing • Next steps • Client satisfaction • Student learning outcomes

Following the initial meeting with the client and gathering all required documents, each team met to develop a time budget for their audit, determine a materiality threshold, outline risk assessment procedures for their church client, and settle on items needed from the church personnel when it was time to conduct fieldwork. With the initial planning completed, the audit manager of each group drafted an engagement letter that was then sent to and accepted by their client.

With the introduction and planning phases of the audits complete, the audit managers drafted audit programs for the entire audit and determined with the team and financial leaders of their church, the timing of field testing for each. Each team then began fieldwork, which consisted of compliance and substantive testing. This process was different for each team based on the church and the experience of the students within each group. None of the audit teams had any prior year audit work papers; the project was simulated as though the groups were in a client takeover situation. In this situation, each team had to create new audit work papers to perform their tests from scratch. Testing varied based on the agreed-upon procedures with each church.

It should be noted that the churches, while from different denominations, were all similar in that they were small and did not typically have a professional audit performed annually. In years preceding our student-led audits, engagements varied widely from walkthroughs and reviews to agreed-upon procedures

performed by internal church personnel that were not independent. In addition, documentation of procedures performed prior to our student-led teams was not always complete.

Upon completion of all the fieldwork testing, audit managers, along with assisting staff auditors, tested the financial statements to complete the spreadsheet found in the Local Church Audit Guide, Addendum II (Appendix B). This spreadsheet records the balance of each fund at the beginning of the year, funds received, funds disbursed, and transfers between funds to arrive at the balance at the end of the year; this balance should match the amount recorded in the financial statements. Once each of the audit teams had assured that the financial statements were free of material misstatement, the audit managers drafted the independent auditor's report for each of the three audits.

The audit work papers along with the draft audit reports were then emailed to the detail / quality reviewer of all three audits as well as the general reviewer (the Auditing II professor). After all review questions were appropriately cleared, a draft of the audit report, along with suggestions for improvement, was sent to each respective client. These reports were then presented to each of the clients at a closing meeting. The audit closing meetings included the financial leaders of each church as well as another member of the church leadership council. In addition, a different faculty member from the university attended each meeting along with the student audit team. Discussion at the closing meetings primarily centered on the improvement suggestions for each church. Final revisions were made to the report after the closing meetings, and the audit reports were signed and issued as final.

Given that each of the three groups was working with a different church for the service-learning project, each group had slightly dissimilar experiences. Initially, only one student had a significant auditing experience prior to the service-learning project. This allowed that group's audit to run smoother and be more organized than the other teams' audits. This same group was required to travel to the church to audit on-site for their substantive and controls testing. The other two groups were given paper and electronic documents that were then tested on-site at the university.

Working with the electronic documents proved to be difficult at some points in the audit due to software failures and the groups' inability to access certain documents. The result, however, gave the group the opportunity to communicate with the financial leader of the church to fix the issues and therefore, enhance critical interpersonal communication skills. The group that worked at the church also had a chance to hone these skills as they worked directly with the client while at the site. Studies have shown that higher interpersonal communication skills are an imperative attribute in the business community (Dickins and Reisch 2009; Kolb 1984; Rogers 1969).

Each team struggled to some extent with team members who did not want to put in the effort to participate in the audit process. As abundant academic research on peer evaluations and other interventions demonstrate, this is a challenge for any team or professor in the academy (Carnaghan and Webb 2007; Gammie and Matson 2007; Wagar and Carroll 2012; Elizaga and Markman 2008; Vik 2001). Dealing with issues such as these allowed the students, especially the managers of the groups, to address the issues and encourage these individuals to pull their own weight. One group had to go so far as to have a meeting with another student that would result in the student's termination from the team if improvements were not made. Naturally, situations such as these are unpleasant but unavoidable in real-world business situations and give students a practical experience beyond the business pedagogy.

EVIDENCE

Given that the idea of a church audit, service-learning project was integrated into the Auditing II class after the semester had already begun, there was no time to gather empirical data from students or church personnel as baseline data. We gathered qualitative data for the church audits consisting of confidential

surveys from both students involved in the service-learning project and the financial leaders of the churches involved.

The purpose of implementing service-learning opportunities into accounting pedagogy is to create a hands-on experience to supplement the lecture style learning requested by the Pathways Commission Report (American Accounting Association 2012). One student stated, "The church audits solidified what we were learning in class. In some instances, they taught us what we were supposed to learn [in class]. Sometimes it is difficult to learn concepts without being hands-on. The church audits gave us that valuable hands-on experience" (Student 3 comments, November 2012). Another student said, "It was my first experience with any auditing testing and the ability to have this portion was amazing to do in a class. The firsthand experience is priceless and it helped me understand the ideas we discussed during the first semester of [auditing] class" (Student 4 comments, November 2012). Students need to have confidence that they can and will succeed when they leave the academy and enter the business world. Their confidence was solidified by having this practical learning opportunity in not only being able to perform an audit, but also to manage projects for any field of business. "Within the project, we set internal deadlines to reach our goals in a reasonable amount of time. Having a 'real world' project helped me take project management seriously" (Student 5 comments, November 2012). This student, as well as many others, will be able to take experiences from this auditing class and implement them in many aspects of their business careers.

While it is important to understand the foundational principles of a business discipline, one must also have the interpersonal skills necessary to interact with others in the business community. As noted earlier, "recruiters believe that the specific discipline is often not as important as all-round abilities and attributes such as interpersonal and relational skills" (Weisz 2000 p. 33). One student said, "By working in teams, I learned how to effectively communicate and work with other individuals. Auditors [and business professionals] often work in teams so I found this assignment very practical in that sense" (Student 6 comments, November 2012). Another stated, "We needed to use written communication to communicate with the financial leader of the church via email and oral communication when talking to the treasurer and secretary at the church during field testing. These different ways of communicating along with working as a team helped strengthen our interpersonal skills" (Student 7 comments, November 2012).

The church audit process is beneficial for the students involved while preparing to enter the business world but a service-learning project will benefit the community as well (McCoskey and Warren 2003). Since churches have been struggling with financial situations, a service-learning project with churches is a way to help them in the community as well as helping the students. One of the financial leaders of the churches said, "The student audit provided a more in-depth and independent review than our previous in-house audits. The student audits triggered us to think more about small changes we could make to improve controls" (Church Leader A, November 2012). Another financial leader said that some years the audit "simply did not get done" if they could not find anyone within the church to do it (Church Leader B, November 2012). Several of the churches have also implemented new policies or internal controls as a result of suggestions from the student audit teams.

REFLECTION

The business academy has an opportunity to re-structure accounting and business pedagogies as a whole. The AAA and the AICPA have stated through the Pathways Commission Report that accounting faculty should strive for new methods when it comes to teaching accounting. An ancient Chinese proverb, as noted by McCoskey and Warren (2003), says it best by suggesting:

What I hear, I forget.

What I see, I remember.

What I do, I understand.

Students learn better through hands-on approaches to teaching business topics; based on our research, they also prefer this strategy of active learning (Paisey and Paisey 2003; 2005). This type of learning better prepares students for the experiences they will have in the business world by not only teaching the principles that must be known but also mastering them through practical applications of the foundational information presented in the classroom (reference Figure 2: Reflections).

Figure 2: Reflections

Key Reflections	Source *	Related Business Pedagogy	Related Service-Learning Tenet	Key Program Learning Outcome
Interpersonal Communication	S	Working as a team to create the best possible environment for the highest quality product.	Relying on others to combine efforts to assure project success rather than several individual pieces put together.	Teamwork, Trustworthiness, Cooperation, Support
Establishing Protocols	P	Establishing the necessary procedures to conduct a thorough agreed-upon procedures engagement or audit.	Students learn the necessary procedures for a simple audit that can be applied to concepts in the classroom as well as in future careers. Churches receive the benefit of a quality audit and assurance that the financial and internal control aspects of the church are in order.	Sequential work, Client satisfaction, Real-life application
Articulating Problems	S	Communication Skills and Project Management Skills	Students gain experience working as a team and putting in the effort expected so that the team is successful rather than individual success. Students see how there is not always a clearcut answer to real life situations as is the norm in textbooks.	Communication, Collaboration, Relationship

* Student (S) or Professor (P)

Some students expressed dissatisfaction from time to time during the project. Multiple teams complained that some teammates were not pulling their weight as much as others. Students generally know that this may be an issue going into projects in which they work in teams. This, however, is the very reason why working in teams benefits the students in this service-learning project. Business professionals often-times work in teams very similar to the ones we structured for this project. Not all team members contribute equally and students will likely face a similar challenge in the business world. Dealing with this issue hones interpersonal skills by encouraging a dialog with teammates on how to deal with the issue and communicating on what needs to be done to resolve the issue. This strengthens teamwork skills and overall interpersonal communication.

In addition, because this project involved churches that were not located at the university, some teams had more work to do in the audit than other teams. Again, as is the case in the real world, some people

will have bigger clients than others and in turn more work. Having this experience in school is a way to become even more acclimated with practical auditing.

The overall feedback we received from this project was very positive. Students enjoyed the active learning aspect of the project and the business professionals saw desirable qualities from the students that they seek from potential employees. The churches involved in the service-learning project were very impressed with the quality of work from the students and have requested that future classes repeat the project. We have plans to repeat the service-learning project in the future with more Auditing II classes.

As the audit manager of one of the audit teams, Author 1 personally enhanced his interpersonal communication skills through the church audit. As with the rest of the teams, none of the students wanted to take control of the audit so the job ended up with him. Since Author 1 was the manager of the audit, he ran the process as he did with any other project. He was also the only student with any prior auditing experience so he was able to delegate different jobs to the staff auditors and do a significant amount of testing himself.

As the rest of the team began to finish the field testing for the audit, Author 1 began testing the financial statements for the church. For this process, he picked one of his teammates to help him with the financial statement testing and together they finished the audit without additional help from the rest of the team. At the end of the audit, Author 1 personally drafted the final audit report and simply told the rest of the team their final audit opinion of the church. At the closing meeting, he planned to be the one to do most of the talking and simply filter specific questions to his teammates for the testing they performed.

Less than a week before the closing meeting for the church audit, Author 1 took ill and was hospitalized for a week. Due to this, he was not able to be with his group during the closing meeting. To Author 1, this was not critical because the audit was complete so he did not believe that the rest of the team would have any problem stepping in to take his place. It was not until sometime after the semester had ended that Author 1 realized he had kept most of his team in the dark about their audit throughout the entire process to the point where he alone knew every aspect of the audit. This was an important lesson for Author 1 and his teammates: that unexpected things happen in life all the time. Communication is a key element to interpersonal skills and business that would have prevented any problems that came from his illness. Hands-on situations such as these are skills that students simply cannot pick up with a textbook in a classroom setting and has benefited the entire team as they take what they have learned into the business world.

As a Professor new to the academy and stung by first semester reviews requesting more hands-on application of auditing concepts, Author 2 wrestled to find a successful mix of lecture and experiential learning. Further, as a former Chief Audit Executive of a publically traded company, he very much wanted his students to graduate with practical auditing skills. As such, Author 2 jumped at the chance to audit a local church's financial records when presented with the opportunity.

However, Author 2 initially struggled with several issues including how to fit this into a completed syllabus as well as how to accommodate an Auditing II class of 15 students with one audit. The former was quickly resolved with the insertion of the church audits in place of two case studies. The latter issue of having enough audit work for three audit teams of five students was not resolved until one month into the semester; three churches eventually agreed to the idea of student audit teams and the class was off and running.

Author 2 has left the details of the church audit process to Appendix A and invites you to review the steps that were followed if you plan on implementing a similar process. However, this service-learning opportunity should not be considered as a prospect solely for an accounting or auditing class. Indeed, as his student co-author noted above, the hands-on auditing experience was only one benefit, albeit a strong

one. As Author 2 reflects on the experience, the students also benefited from developing teamwork, leadership, project management, client service, work paper preparation and review, time budgeting, and problem resolution skills. Several students later commented that a future job offer came as a direct result of the experience and the KSAs that they refined on the audits.

The experience also provided a wonderful opportunity for the college of business and university to give back to the community. The church financial leaders were extremely complimentary of the efforts of the students and found that having an external audit of their financials was very beneficial to their church's overall internal control environment. Further, the volunteerism enhanced the standing of the college with a significant local employer in the region for whom the three church financial leaders happened to all work. It also helped several students eventually secure regular full-time positions with this employer as the financial leaders could view the students' excellent KSAs first-hand. Finally, as a new professor, it allowed Author 2 access to three local accomplished financial leaders very early in his academic career. In one case, the connection has been invaluable not only for the church audits but also for subsequent mentorship and speaking opportunities with the college.

CONCLUSION

Business pedagogy can be more effective for students and business through a hands-on, practical approach supplementing traditional lectures. We have found this to be true for not only business curriculum, but also for auditing as through the church audits. As stated in the introduction, the subject matter of auditing, while critical, can be tedious and uninteresting. Therefore, the aim of auditing for students and educators should be the same: the demonstration of practical methods and tools to complement the foundational auditing curriculum. Combined with the service-learning and teamwork aspects of the project, the church audits can be a worthwhile experience for students to assimilate as they progress into the business world. Further, the project correlates well for use in the context of the Pathways Commission Report relative to enhancing pedagogy.

APPENDIX A
Class in a box

There are several steps that one must go through in order to start a service-learning project such as the church audit. The following is one suggested approach that worked for our class and situation. You may find a better combination of steps but regardless, we encourage you to begin a service-learning engagement with your next class.

A preliminary step that we suggest you follow is to confirm with your institution's administration that students will be allowed to participate in a service-learning project such as this. This is critical to assure that the students, professor, college, and/or university cannot be held liable for the service-learning project. For our proposed audits, we contacted our administration and eventually worked with legal advisors. Our legal team determined that a state statute allowed the students as well as their professor to participate as volunteers on such an engagement with little to no liability concerns.

Once legal and potential liability issues are addressed, the first step then is finding churches that are willing to work with students on an audit project. We have determined that many churches are in need of financial help if not audit assistance. Due to this, it is likely that most colleges or universities will be able to find a church or other not-for-profit organization that will be willing to help students and therein, help their organization, through a service-learning opportunity.

After negotiating the terms of the audit engagement with the church and agreeing to let the students perform the audit for the service-learning project, information and documents about the church will need to be exchanged between church personnel and the professor before the students contact the church personnel directly. Such documents should include but are not limited to the following:

- financial statements

- financial budget

- organization chart and/or committee organization

- prior-year audit, if available, and

- Local Church Audit Guide generally accepted by churches in the denomination

Once these documents have been exchanged, a meeting between the church personnel, professor, and the students should be arranged. The purpose of this meeting is to discuss the church including:

- items of importance regarding the church being audited

- audit scope

- key issues

- understanding of internal control

- areas of focus with the audit

- expected source document review and audit process

- discuss timing of the audit fieldwork and timing of the final audit report

- exchange contact information for both the church personnel as well as the students involved in the audit

After the audit team has successfully met and discussed the church audit with the church personnel, the students should meet as a team to discuss roles within the team and form a plan for the audit. Such roles should include:

- who will act as the audit manager and lead the team

- who will act as an independent reviewer for the team, and

- who will perform the detailed testing and original work

Plans should include:

- when the students can meet for team planning and review meetings, and

- when, if necessary, students would be available to perform audit testing, by either:

- traveling to the church

- performing testing on site at the college or university

Following all of the preliminary meetings and discussions, the audit manager will need to prepare an engagement letter for the audit. The letter should include any and all agreed-upon procedures, if there are any scope limitations or exclusions, work to be completed by the church's staff (i.e. client-prepared documents), and the output of the examination (i.e. an audit report or church-designated document). This letter will need to be sent to the financial leader (or audit committee, as appropriate) of the church, and signed by both the student audit team and church financial leader.

The audit team (or at a minimum, the audit manager) should then meet to assess risks of material misstatement, design audit procedures, and set a materiality threshold. Once this is completed, the team should determine the audit tests to be performed and the documents necessary for these tests. If the team has already received these documents from the church, they can begin testing. If not, the audit manager will need to contact church personnel and either arrange to receive the documents or set up a time when the audit team can travel to the church to perform substantive and controls testing. If contacting church personnel directly, make sure the team has a list of everything they will need for testing and prepare to be flexible as the church may not be able to meet the students in a timely fashion.

When the audit team has received all necessary documents, substantive and controls testing can be performed. This will take the majority of the time since most students will likely be unfamiliar with the audit process. It is important for the professor to keep somewhat of a distance from the students during this process as this is how they will learn by doing. Timely guidance without explicit instruction should be the approach.

Upon completion of the audit testing, the audit manager along with the staff auditors, can begin verifying the financial statements of the church. Hopefully there will be few audit issues after substantive and controls testing such that the financial statements will tie out to supporting documents. If any problems occur, the professor may need to step in and make sure the students are performing the tests correctly and taking the necessary actions (should a less than unqualified opinion be necessary, for example).

After all the testing has been completed, the audit team can determine the appropriate audit opinion and draft the audit report for the church. In addition, a report of suggested internal control and process improvements (may be called a supplemental report) should be prepared. When the audit and any supplemental reports have been drafted and reviewed by the professor, the audit manager can then send the reports to the financial leader (or audit committee, as appropriate) of the church for review before the closing meeting. This is a critical step to not only simulate the real world, but also to prevent surprises at the audit closing meeting.

At the end of the audit, the student audit team should again meet with the financial leader and / or audit committee of the church for a closing meeting to present:

- the audited financial statements

- the final audit and any supplemental reports

- an explanation of the process followed

Any questions can be answered at this time and the reports can be revised, if needed.

To finish the service-learning project, the audit and supplemental reports should be revised based on the comments and suggestions made during the closing meeting. After a review by the professor, the revision(s) should be sent to the client and the copy kept for the records of the professor, college, and/or university. Finally, consider surveying the students that participated in the service-learning project as well as the church personnel to evaluate the effectiveness of the project.

APPENDIX B

Church Audit Guide
United Methodist Congregations

http://www.umcsc.org/PDF/forms/local_church_auditguide1.pdf

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AUTHORS' NOTE

The church engagements were certain procedures agreed-upon with each of the church financial leaders. The student teams followed AICPA guidelines as well as the Local Church Audit Guide for the specific denomination. For ease of understanding in this paper, particularly for non-practitioners, the authors will use the word **audit** to describe the agreed-upon procedures engagement for each church.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Managing Risky Behavior: How Organizations Manage Workplace Violence

Carolyn Wiley, Roosevelt University

OSHA defines workplace violence as any act or threat of physical violence, harassment, intimidation or other threatening and disruptive behavior that occurs at a worksite. Such violence costs American businesses approximately $36 billion a year. This is not expected to decrease unless organizational leaders begin to understand and to establish preventive measures. Management of violence in the work environment has to be a priority. The nature of the workplace and of working conditions is rapidly changing. Contemporary work environments are characterized by more stressful contexts with information and knowledge-based work and more stressful outcomes such as downsizing and organizational restructuring within short time spans. Left unchecked, the costs of workplace violence will continue to increase. Therefore, it is important to management workplace violence. This can be done in a number of ways including building organizational and individual awareness of exactly what it is, as well as what it may potentially cost an organization if left unchecked. This article discusses the management of workplace violence, including its definition, methods, measurements, and best practices.

INTRODUCTION: SCOPE, BRIEF HISTORY AND IMPACT

Workplace violence began generating concern among public and private sector organizations in the United States in 1990, and the awareness has increased over the years. According to a study by the Workplace Violence Research Institute, violence costs American businesses more than $36 billion a year. This cost includes expenses associated with lost business and productivity, litigation, medical care, psychiatric care, higher insurance rates, increased security measures, negative publicity, and loss of employees. In particular, Liberty Mutual reported that assaults and violent acts are the tenth leading cause of nonfatal injury, which accounts for $400 million (Security Leadership Solutions: Executive Council, 2002).

Overall, the number of threats and acts of violence in the workplace has increased significantly in the past years. For example, since the 1980s, violence has been recognized as a leading cause of occupational mortality and morbidity. On average, 1.7 million workers are injured each year, and more than 800 die as a result of workplace violence (Howard, 2004). When comparisons are made with Europe, USA workers are seven times more likely to be physically attacked in the workplace, and sources indicate that these numbers are on a steady rise. The three most common costs associated with workplace violence were management time/expense (55%); productivity loss (37%); and incident related turnover, i.e., staff replacement costs (34%) (SHRM Survey: Workplace Violence, 2012).

The key questions regarding violence in the workplace pertain to how to define it, what are the types of workplace violence, and how to measure violence. Other questions attempt to explain why violence occurs and what factors cause acts of violence. Having said this, one of the most important questions regarding workplace violence is how it can be managed. Doing this will require investigating workplace violence to understand it better and to know what it is, when it would likely occur, how it can be identified, and how it can be prevented, including examples of best practices.

DEFINITIONS AND TYPES OF WORKPLACE VIOLENCE

Workplace violence has a long-standing definition, which corresponds to civil law and employment case law as well as torts and criminal law. It can be defined as "incidents where people are abused,

threatened or assaulted in circumstances relating to their work, involving an explicit or implicit challenge to their safety, well-being or health" (The USDA Handbook on Workplace Violence Prevention and Response, 1998).

Exhibit 1: Workplace Violence defined
 "…Incidents where people are abused, threatened or assaulted in circumstances relating to their work, involving an explicit or implicit challenge to their safety, well-being or health…"
____
Source: The USDA Handbook on Workplace Violence Prevention and Response, 1998

"…All violent behavior and threats of violence, as well as any conduct that can result in injury, damage property, induce a sense of fear, and otherwise."
____
Source: E.A. Rugala and J.R. Fitzgerald, "Workplace Violence: From Threat to Intervention," *Clinics in Occupational and Environmental Medicine* 3 (2003):775-789.

"Assaults and other violent acts or threats that occur in or are related to the workplace and entail a substantial risk of physical or emotional harm to individuals or damage to company resources or capabilities. Workplace violence may involve employees, clients and vendors of the affected organization as well as those who do not have a relationship with the organization but who may know the intended victims."
____
Source: Society for Human Resource Management, "SHRM Survey Findings: Workplace Violence," (February 29, 2012), pp. 27.

There are three types workplace violence, which include non-physical, physical, and aggravated physical. Non-physical violence includes verbal abuse, sexual harassment, bullying, discrimination, poor working conditions, threats, intimidation, destruction of property, etc. Physical violence includes shoving, pushing, and punching. Aggravated violence includes violence committed with weapons such as knives, guns, and other physically destructive objects (The USDA Handbook on Workplace Violence Prevention and Response, 1998).

Exhibit 2: Types of Violent Behavior

- Non-physical
- Physical
- Aggravated Physical

Furthermore, OSHA has categorized workplace violence into four areas. For example, incidents of workplace violence may occur between an *employee and criminal outsider*, *employee and client* or customer, *employee and employee*, and *employee and significant other*. Among these, violent behaviors between an *employee vs. client* and *employee vs. employee* tend to more frequently dominate workplace violence events. Workplaces such as hospitals, schools and universities, and airlines fall directly into the *employee vs. client* risk category. *Employee vs. employee* related workplace violence is seen more often in large organizations whose employees work in close proximity, under stressful conditions, and under harsh management styles. Understanding why such violence takes place is much a more complex process than defining the acts themselves. Nevertheless, what is clear is the need to investigate the effects that workplace violence has on organizations and to manage these risky behaviors.

> **Exhibit 3: OSHA's Categorization of Workplace Violence**
> 1. **Criminal Intent** – Violent acts by people who enter the workplace to commit a robbery or other crime—or former employees who enter the workplace with the intent to commit a crime.
> 2. **Customer/Client/Patient** – Violence directed at employees by customers, clients, patients, students, inmates or any others to whom the employer provides a service.
> 3. **Co-Worker** – Violence against co-workers, supervisors, or managers by a current or former employee, supervisor, or manager.
> 4. **Personal** – Violence in the workplace by someone who does not work there, but who is known to, or has a personal relationship with, an employee.

KEY ISSUES REGARDING WORKPLACE VIOLENCE

Di Martino's (2002) research shows that violence in the workplace is at an all-time high. It is now a global issue. In the USA violence is a major contributor to death and injury at work. In Japan suicide has become the number two cause of death among bureaucrats. A European Union (EU) survey in 2000 based on over 21,000 interviews with workers: 3 million reported physical violence, 6 million reported customer violence or violence from people outside their workplaces, 13 million reported being intimidated and bullied. Studies of violence reveal that psychological violence is widespread with verbal abuse topping the list. Examples include 49.5 percent of South African respondents reporting such, 47.7 percent in Thailand, and 51 percent in Portugal (Di Martino, 2002).

One of the most pressing issues is the effect of workplace violence on the overall health of an organization. In his literature review of workplace violence, White's (1996) review concentrated specifically on the issue of coworker-initiated violence and explored the need for a more focused definition of workplace violence and assessment issues related to identifying potentially violent employees. Surprisingly, corporate responses to violence in the workplace ranged from doing nothing to blaming the victim. In 2001 Barling, Rogers, & Kelloway (2001) developed a structural model for predicting personal and organizational consequences of workplace violence for health care professionals who work inside their client's home. The model suggests that workplace violence and sexual harassment predict fear of their recurrence leading to anxiety, anger, and perceptions of injustice. These fears and perceived injustice predict lower commitment and enhanced withdrawal intentions, and lead to poor interpersonal job performance and increased cognitive difficulties.

Budd, Arvey & Lawless (1996) used a random telephone survey to interview 598 employees about their direct experiences of workplace violence. Demographic and workplace characteristics were analyzed as correlates of different forms of violence. There were not many strong or consistent correlates with higher risks of work place violence. However, those working during nighttime hours were more likely to experience workplace violence, and the associated negative consequences of workplace violence were: lower job satisfaction, greater stress, increased considerations of job change, and an increased likelihood of bringing mace or a weapon to work.

Newhill (2003) found that among 1,129 social workers, client threats were a common occurrence. More than half the sample reported one or more threats. The majority of threats was initiated by adult male clients and involved a range of motives. These were presented along with recommendations for intervention and management. Sofield & Salmond (2003) studied verbal abuse among hospital nurses and

found that 91 percent of the 461 respondents had very recently experienced verbal abuse. Physicians were the most frequent source of verbal abuse, followed by patients, patient families, peers, supervisors, and subordinates. More than half of these respondents felt incompetent in responding to such abuse. To the detriment of the employer, the amount of abuse and intent to leave were significantly correlated. Thus, the authors recommended that organizations adopt a zero-tolerance policy for professional verbal abuse. Accordingly, education and coaching were recommended in an effort to improve the nurses' competencies in responding to such verbal abuse from patients and from other professionals in their work environment.

Speedy (2006) indicates that workplace violence constitutes one component of the dark side of organizational life. She focuses on bullying and mobbing in the workplace, addressing its types, causes, the characteristics and impact. Also discussed are: how workplace violence can be abolished. This is a challenge because workplace violence is perpetuated within organizations, due to a culture of acceptance and/or fear of retribution. Van Emmerik, Euwema & Bakker (2007) studied over 2,700 constabulary officers to determine whether threats of workplace violence lead to reduced job investments including reduced organizational commitment. Their analyses showed negative relationships between threats of workplace violence and job investments. However, positive peer support was an important mitigating factor. It served to buffer an unsafe climate and resulted in more job investments from the targeted employee.

Mayhew & Chappell's (2007) work presents an overview of patterns of risk and the emotional/stress consequences on victims or targeted employees. They found that violence at work (VAW) is a frequent precursor to mental illness. Their paper examines the definition of VAW which includes both physical and psychological violence and briefly discusses the work of the UN affiliated International Labour Organisation in setting benchmarks for defining, preventing and responding to VAW. Risks of becoming a victim of VAW varies with factors, such as the nature of the work being performed, gender, age and experience. They note that the effects of VAW of a psychological or physical nature can be severe, concluding that VAW is a major occupational health and safety hazard in all nations. They assert that reducing VAW requires concerted and integrated strategies, together with rigorous evaluation of preventive measures.

In short, there are numerous issues regarding violence at work. Businesses are particularly concerned about the impact that violence may have on firm performance. They are concerned about both the productivity or employees and their well being. Some of these issues relate more to the costs associated with organizational performance, including productivity and effectiveness, as well as the damage to the organizations culture, image and reputation. Other issues are costs that are directly related to employees such as voluntary turnover, litigation against the employer, increases in workers compensation claims, increases in medical claims, increases in time away from work, and increases in presenteeism.

KEY ASPECTS ON MANAGING VIOLENCE IN THE WORKPLACE

There are several key issues that regarding workplace violence. One of the most pressing issues is the effect of workplace violence on the overall health of an organization. In short, businesses are concerned about the impact that violence may have on the productivity and well being of employees. Moreover, there are hidden costs to workplace violence (Nater, 2004). Open costs that can be readily calculated reveal that workplace violence costs USA businesses approximately $36 million a year in losses related to organizational performance, including productivity and effectiveness, as well as the damage to the organizations culture, image and reputation. Other costs may include voluntary turnover, litigation against the employer, increases in workers compensation claims, increases in medical claims, increases in time away from work, and increases in presenteeism (being physically at work; but not working).

Exhibit 4: Key Issues in Managing Violence

- Identification
- Measurement
- Leadership Training
- Intervention
- Prevention

These issues of identifying workplace violence, measuring it, providing training, intervening methods, and preventing workplace violence are discussed below.

Identifying Workplace Violence

One of the main issues regarding workplace violence is the lack of understanding on how to identify violence in the workplace. Too often it is only associated with open acts of aggression, particularly physical, while other signs go unnoticed. These are not easily detected due to not understanding the true nature of violence, as well as the circumstances in which acts of violence may occur. It is not simply the innate aggressive of a person that may cause him/her to act violently. Rather, the pressures to cut costs in organizations combined with the drive to achieve continually higher performance standards has created more stressful jobs for managers and workers and induced greater incivility, abuse and sometimes violence in the workplace (Deery, Walsh, & Guest, 2011). Because organizations continuously face these challenges, they may be commonplace, ignored, or given little attention.

Nevertheless, there are several ways for identifying potentially violent situations. One indicator of potentially violent situation is the frequency and nature of conflicts with customers, co-workers, or supervisors. While conflict in the workplace is common and in some cases healthy, situations where a person or people are constantly in conflict is an indication that a form of violence or harassment exists. Another indicator is abnormal behavior that appear extreme or out of the ordinary. Obviously, bringing a weapon to work or making threats about using weapons is thought to clearly be an indication of potentially violent behavior. In addition, substance abuse may lead to violence. However, other behaviors, which are indications of violent behavior, include bullying, belittling, aggressive behavior, inappropriate behavior, intimidation, and harassment.

Measuring Violence

To really capture the toll that violence is taking on an enterprise, it is important to establish suitable metrics to measure violence, to measure violence before and after intervention programs or training, and to set goals to reduce the likelihood of violence in an organization. According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics, about 500,000 victims of violent crime in the workplace lose an estimated 1.8 million workdays each year. This represents about $55 million in lost wages for employees, not including sick and annual leave days and loss of productivity (The Financial Impact of Workplace Violence, 2012). Typically workplace violence is measured by the number of reported incidents such as fatalities. However, it is important to note that workplace violence is severely underreported, particularly due to the fact that violent behavior such as verbal threats, abusive language, hostility, harassment, and stalking are not reported until it reaches the point of actual physical assault.

Organizations can anticipate both direct and indirect costs associated with workplace violence. The direct costs include turnover costs and increased legal fees or settlement costs. The indirect costs

however, are more difficult to quantify. Such costs may be hidden in low productivity, high absenteeism and low morale.

Turnover is an excellent metric to assess the success of prevention methods, especially in high risk industries since it is natural for an individual to get out of dangerous environments. *Replacing employees* is expensive; and ranges from as low as 75 percent to as high as 250 percent of their annual salary. *Workers compensation* benefits are another metric that organizations may utilize.   As early as 1995, the National Council of Compensation Insurance reported that there were $126 million in workers compensation claims for workplace violence (The Financial Impact of Workplace Violence, 2012). *Legal fees* for workplace violence are also a direct cost, which could average $2.2 million. A complaint that escalates to a lawsuit can take three to five years to settle and can easily cost $50,000 to $100,000.

Indirect costs are more difficult to define, because we are not always able to attach a monetary figure to abuse or harassment. In manufacturing productivity losses can be more easily captured versus in industries such as education where productivity per employee is harder to compute. Nevertheless, it is important to use as many of the more appropriate metrics as possible. For example, with indirect costs absenteeism or time spent away from work could be insightful measures that might alert management to hidden workplace issues such as violence. Furthermore, organizations may analyze data to determine if absenteeism has decreased since implementing a workplace violence prevention program. Employee grievances are another metric that can be used to assess the success the extent of employee concerns regarding managerial behaviors or other employee behaviors that seem inappropriate to them. The same can be used to determine the impact of workplace violence prevention programs. More specifically, analyzing the amount of grievances or complaints filed before and after program implementations, allows for management to determine whether fewer incidents are occurring.

Leadership Training

Organizational leaders specifically should receive training on how to address issues of violence, how to set clear standards and to discipline and counsel violent offenders. It is important to understand that while organizational leaders are not expected to act as the police or be an expert on violence prevention, they must understand their duties and responsibilities in preventing workplace violence, and be willing to act without hesitation to prevent such situations from becoming major problems for their organization and all parties involved. Knowing what to do and who to call for assistance is a crucial step in the prevention process (The USDA Handbook on Workplace Violence Prevention and Response, 1998). Workplace violence leadership training should also include tools for conflict resolution, as well as emergency and crisis handling. Leaders should be knowledgeable on the processes and procedures for pre-employment screening. In addition, they should be trained on ways for identifying workplace violence. Leadership training should also include ways to promote an open door policy, as well as ways to encourage employees to report potentially violent or threatening situations (The USDA Handbook on Workplace Violence Prevention and Response, 1998).

Methods for Intervening

Many managers and employees do not know what to do in the event that an act of violence occurs. One question that employees would have is: whose responsibility is it to intervene? Others are how does a person effectively intervene without making the situation worse and specifically how does a person, while intervening, avoid becoming a victim? When is it best and most appropriate to intervene? Who should be included in the intervention process? Safety of all the parties and the organization as a whole is an essential factor in effective interventions.

There are intervention programs that can be implemented and steps that organizations can take to keep all parties involved safe. The first step, however, is the acknowledgement that employers have the legal responsibility to keep their work environments safe. Their responses and mitigation procedures can help avoid financial loss, liability costs, injuries, and even the loss of life (Workplace Violence Manual - Attorney General, 2001). For example, implementing an Employee Assistance Program and a Workplace Violence Prevention Program are good ways of having planned interventions for mild cases of workplace violence. However, in extreme cases such as bomb threats, fires, natural disasters, emergency plans should be issued to each employee. This plan should outline the proper procedures to follow when such events occur. This plan should also include contact numbers for security, medical, supervisor, and police personnel (The USDA Handbook on Workplace Violence Prevention and Response, 1998).

Preventing Workplace Violence

The prevention of violence in the workplace is a major issue faced by many of today's organizations. Many organizations have policies regarding the prohibition of violence in the workplace, but not many organizations do what is necessary to prevent it from occurring in all of its many forms. Most responses to violence in the workplace are reactionary. However, if organizations created violence prevention programs and policies, it is likely that the number of workplace violent cases would decrease dramatically. There are many tools that can be used to prevent workplace violence. Some of these tools include awareness/training, threat assessments, and long-term security. Other tools include Alternative Dispute Resolution and Employee Assistance Programs (The USDA Handbook on Workplace Violence Prevention and Response, 1998).

The ability to identify intimidation, threats, and other disruptive behavior and report such behavior to the proper personnel is a major step in preventing violent acts from occurring. Many organizations do not offer training on how to recognize, prevent, or respond to workplace violence. However, training is one of the most critical tools for preventing workplace violence from occurring. All employees should be trained on how to recognize and report potentially violent behaviors before they become violent situations. They should be aware of who they should speak to and what steps they should take at removing themselves from the situation if necessary (Levi-Minzi, Romano, Rugala, & Van Hasselt, 2010). Training on workplace violence should also include anger and stress management, dealing with hostile people, diffusing aggressive behavior, conflict resolution, and security measures and procedures. Empowering employees with the tools to counter workplace violence is an effective way to prevent it (Levi-Minzi, Romano, Rugala, & Van Hasselt, 2010).

HOW ORGANIZATIONS ARE MANAGING POTENTIAL VIOLENT BEHAVIOR

Many organizations have different forms prevention for workplace violence. In an effort to control and prevent violence in the workplace, an organization might study its critical events to grasp a better understanding of points where violence may occur and what might instigate it. From those findings, it might create a method to utilize its resources to prevent any altercations from arising. A "zero tolerance" policy has been adapted by organizations nationwide, but that alone is not enough to keep different forms of violence from occurring or going undetected.

Too many organizations place the responsibility with the employees. However, the responsibility to circumvent violence should be primarily with the leaders of the organization. Thus, simply stating that there is a "zero tolerance" policy is not sufficient. Variations of violence exist. Therefore, creating a solid foundation for identifying such behaviors, providing training, auditing managerial behaviors and conflict management styles, reviewing employee behaviors such as productivity, turnover, time off, and grievances and complaints, and providing methods of prevention are essential.

Violence in the workplace is not a new issue. An organization that manages violence in a good way is a safe haven for their managers and employees. Such organizations are among the most sought after places to work. They have identified the most appropriate method of managing potential acts of violence in their enterprise and continue to implement these to protect their employees and their organization. Also, these companies have been noted for their success for minimizing violence in the workplace through effective methods of prevention.

Google is one such organization. It not only has an outstanding compensation package; but it promotes a safe work environment. Google's code of ethics, begin with a simple phrase "don't be evil". They expect the highest levels of respect to consumers, investors, partners, and all employees. Failure to uphold the standards of the company will result in disciple action including termination. With the work being difficult and challenging and with Google's efforts to maintain a competitive advantage; it can become a very stressful environment. Google has devised a plan that keeps the employee's motivated and stress-free, which has a direct impact on minimizing violent behavior and ultimately results in minimal violence. The plan includes various team building activities, an accessible on-site cafeteria, people who are available to talk to about issues that troublesome, a gym, and other activities that keeps the mind.

One of Google's biggest factors is that the company encourages and emphasizes on <u>not</u> keeping silent about violations of the company's code of ethics. When employees or managers have a question or think that one of their fellow employees or the company may be short on commitment to the code, they are encouraged not to be silent. In the event that this method fails and violations occur, Google stated that violence of any kind would not be tolerated at their company and will be handled accordingly. However, their emphasis is to not let any stress or problem build to the point where an employee feels that it is necessary to result to violence of any form.

Whirlpool is also noted for their success in the prevention of violence. It takes a similar approach to preventing workplace violence. Whirlpool also has a zero tolerance policy for violence and has been successful with their team building efforts that reduce stressful issues. Although Whirlpool does not have the gyms and on site spas, it focuses on team building exercises to promote open communication and trust amongst teams and employees. It does not provide outlets from relieving stress, but it creates the family environment where team members are comfortable communicating. For example, different team member are responsible for coordinating work events that focus on the trust factor.

Macy's a retail giant known for their various products from household goods to clothing have also been noted for their methods of workplace violence prevention. Their method weighs heavily on training managers to recognize violent qualities with potential candidates. Their model is designed to help managers recognize this behavior amongst existing employees, in case intervention becomes necessary. Macy's NIX Model for Preventing Workplace Violence is implemented companywide. The benefit of using this model is that it is designed to reduce risks and improve morale. Operating in the retail industry, Macy's encounters a significant amount of violence in the workplace, from customer to employees. With the retail market having such a high turnover, they have to use a combination of methods to improve employee retention.

The common factor across these organizations' prevention practices is the fact that each of them encouraging constant communication. Google, Whirlpool, and Macy's all focus on team building and trust of managers and coworkers to prevent any escalated issues. Also their strong and well-articulated policies and procedures on workplace violence add to the managing violence prevention. These companies represent models for others to follow. No matter what prevention method is being used by any company, the desired results are the same, to reduce any violence that might potentially occur, to improve morale and employee retention and engagement, and above all to create a safe work environment. Given the breadth of workplace violence, it is difficult to construct an all-inclusive prevention plan and to

always effectively convey that to the staff. However, once an organization has carefully studied its context, it should be able to clearly define a violence prevention plan. Each industry has different woes that can trouble their company, but the successful ones identify those and plans accordingly.

KEY STEPS FOR VIOLENCE PREVENTION

Two examples of violence prevention programs are discussed briefly.

An example of a Workplace Violence Prevention Program

A violence prevention program usually has five to seven components. They include: (1) managerial commitment, (2) employee involvement, (3) assessing hazards, (4) preventing and controlling hazards, (5) training, (6) reporting procedures, and (7) evaluation.

Firstly, a team of managers and employees work together to provide feedback that might address workplace violence. Secondly, assessing the hazard is a detailed and logical look at existing or potential hazards for workplace violence in order to identify existing and potential hazards. Thirdly, the hazard prevention and control phase moves into action where preventative measures are carried out. Fourthly, the training and instruction stage educates the employees of hazards and how to use the preventative measures. Fifthly, the confidential reporting procedure is an outlet for reporting violent (physical and non-physical) incidents that have occurred. Sixthly, record keeping, is used to help dictate the intensity of an issue that has occurred in order to find areas for improvement through training and hazard control. Finally, evaluation is where the company takes a critical review of the safety and security of the program and discusses it with the employees. These seven components are designed to work together to make the program successful.

Exhibit 5: A Workplace Violence Prevention Plan

1. Managerial commitment and employee involvement
2. Hazard assessment
3. Hazard prevention and control
4. Training and instruction
5. Reporting procedure
6. Record keeping
7. Evaluation

The NIX Model for Managing Violence Prevention

The National Institute for Prevention of Workplace Violence, Inc., a premier consulting and training firm, specializing in helping public and private organizations address workplace violence. Originally created in the early 1990's, W. Barry Nixon--a recognized worldwide expert on workplace violence--revamped his existing model for violence prevention to adapt to the changes that have occurred. When revamping the model Nixon worked closely with OSHA to fuse his prevention plan with OSHA's guidelines. OSHA adapted the motto "plan, prevent, and protect" to reflect the direction of where it believes workplace violence prevention should go. Since the construction of this model it has been adopted by many organizations such as Macy's and FedEx. The Nixon model is constructed of seven steps that work together to prevent violence. It relies heavily on the use of experts to develop and manage a successful prevention plan and implementation.

Exhibit 6: NIX Model for Managing Violence Prevention involves the following steps:

1. Comprehensive plan
2. Risk Assessment
3. Comprehensive policy development
4. Implementation of security policies, procedures and processes
5. Implementation of human resources policies, procedures and processes
6. Crisis management and response plan
7. Evaluation and continuous improvement

___
See the National Institute for the Prevention of Workplace Violence, Inc., for the details of the model: http://www.workplaceviolence911.com/docs/The_Nix_Model.pdf .

It is the job of upper management to understand the physiology behind why employees result to forms of violence in the workplace. This will help them and their companies to gain insight into what precipitates and fuels violent behavior at work. Using a combination of methods for understanding and preventing the "why factors," can decrease violence in organizations. As time progresses and the definitions of workplace violence are expanded, the methods of detection will become more comprehensive and hopefully more creative and effective. Creating a positive work environment is one of many steps that can be used to deter violence and having the right procedures can reduce the risk of violence escalating throughout the organization. Every organization should have a prevention plan. The NIX Model, which is suited for both public sector and private sector organizations, is focused on managing violence through preventive measures. It begins with a comprehensive plan and the final step involves changing the environment.

BEST PRACTICES IN VIOLENCE MANAGEMENT

Over one-third (36%) of organizations reported incidents of workplace violence; compared with two years ago, most organizations indicated that incidents of violence had either stayed about the same (45%) or decreased in frequency (40%), while 15% reported an increase in frequency (SHRM Survey: Workplace Violence, 2012).

The best practices identified in this section are aimed at managing violent activity by detecting and deterring such acts in the workplace. Workplace violence is recognized as an occupational hazard, and can be avoided or minimized if companies take appropriate risk management precautions. Too many organization take on a reactionary strategy when it comes to managing violence. As such, they only implement workplace violence prevention programs in response to incidents of violence in the workplace. A more effective approach would be to have a plan of management established prior to any incidents in order to enable the organization to minimize its risks when violent behavior occurs (Mayer, 2001). Five such practices are decussed below.

Exhibit 7: Best Practices for Managing Violence at Work

- Employee Assistance Programs
- Threat Assessments
- Safety and Security
- Written Policies
- Behavioral Interview Questions
- Background Checks during the Hiring Process

Employee Assistance Programs

Employee Assistance Programs, EAP, are offered by employers as a best practice of workplace violence prevention, and are intended to help employees with personal and professional problems which may impact work performance, health and well-being. EAPs are effective because when employees are experiencing personal distractions they are more like to be involved in an accidents, they are less productive, and spend more time away from work, which all have negative effect for the organization. EAPs are able to help employees cope with life's struggle, whereas they remain an asset to the company. Researchers suggest that organizations with on-site facilities such as counseling increased EAP participation nearly sixty percent. This added resource for employees, can yield results of increased productivity, decreased absenteeism, and increased morale. If organizations lack the man-power to maintain an EAP, it may also choose to outsource the responsibility, which can assist employees in the following areas: employee safety programs, substance abuse counseling, legal counseling, financial counseling, time management and even stress management.

Threat Assessment Team

Developing a Threat Assessment Team (TAT) is another best practice because it allows for organizations to analyze and track the number of incidents through OSHA logs and Workers Compensation Reports. Members of the threat assessment team may include representatives from the following: management, employee relations, EAP, security, EEO, unions, and/or safety and health management. The structure of the team will vary depending on the situation. An essential element to any workplace prevention program is appropriate documentation. TATs are able to monitor reoccurring trends, and collaborate with the leadership team to formulate a plan of action. For example TATs may compare overtime records to disciplinary actions, primarily because the increase in hours worked will result in stress, leading to more aggressive behaviors. TAT also analyzes the workplace security, to determine whether unsafe areas arise and offer suggestions for improvement.

Safety & Security

Another best practice is safety training, for obvious reasons, it helps employees to be able to recognize and report dangerous situations. Successful programs have included the following topics within the workplace violence prevention training: company workplace violence policy, encouragement to report incidents, ways to prevent or defuse aggressive behavior, ways to deal with hostile people, anger management, conflict resolution, stress management, and/or security procedures. Research shows that training for supervisors should be relatively different. Successful supervisory trainings have included the following topics: ways to encourage reporting incidents, developing compassionate and supportive skills, skills in taking disciplinary actions, basic crisis management skills, basic emergency procedures, appropriate screening mechanisms, and basic conflict resolution. Additionally, implementing security measures is yet another good best practice. Some of the methods used, which help to reduce workplace violence from occurring include: requiring photo identification, security guards at entrances, installed key codes for access to buildings. Installing survillence cameras, alarm systems, metal detectors and proper lighting, all enhance the level of security and provide a sense of safety putting employees at ease. These measures are aimed to bring about awareness and prevent incidents from arising or resolve issues before escalating, which will ultimately help to reduce workplace violence. Referring back to the concept of saving the organization from costly expenses associated with violence acts.

Written Policies

A written policy is another best practice because it establishes a clear message of the organizations philosophy on a specific topic. One of the simplest and most common approaches is to declare the

organization a "violence-free workplace," or "zero-tolerance workplace." After the tragedy with the US Postal Services in the early 1990s, it has also adopted the zero-tolerance policy. The idea is that with this clearly stated policy, individuals who have a tendency to be violence will self-select out of the applicant pool. Successful policies have been endorsed by the leadership team, and articulate the organizations philosophy for addressing workplace violence and are joined with an open door policy. Furthermore, effectively communicating this message throughout the organization is also crucial to the success of this best practice. In 2006 the Bureau of Labor Statistic (BLS) reported that over 70 percent of USA workplaces do not have a formal program or policy that addresses workplace violence.

Behavioral Interview Questions

A behavioral interview questionnaire is currently a best practice method used by many organizations in the prevention of workplace violence. These questions are effective because they are able to discover how an applicant will react in specific employment related situations. These types of questions have become more prevalent within the applicant interview process. Researchers believe that past performance is a key indicator of future performance, and therefore, if you want to know how someone will react or behave in possible future situations, you must examine their behavior in the past. However, it is important to note that even with many years of interviewing experience, interviewers may still have a difficult time identifying potentially aggressive or threatening behaviors in applicants. Nevertheless, here are some behavioral interview questions that interviewers may use to identify aggressive behavior. These include: Tell me about a time when you had a disagreement with a boss, fellow worker or customer. How did you eliminate the problem (Norris, 2000). Other effective questions for discussion may include: How do you express your anger (Mayer, 2001).

Background Checks

Background checks are also a best practice of workplace violence prevention. Background checks are effective because they are able to identify past violent behaviors, while also "weeding out" applicants who may become violent on-the-job. Background checks also serve as a defense for organization if ever sued for negligence. "Legal expenses for negligence lawsuits (for issues including negligent hiring, supervision, security, training, and retention) average $2.2 million, according to Rebecca Speer, a workplace-violence attorney. The courts have consistently ruled that employers can be held liable for negligent hiring if they do not check references, particularly when sensitive jobs are involved. It is, therefore, a prudent business decision to examine a candidate's background and references to fully assess the person's capabilities and employability and to limit the company's liability if an incident later occurs" (Crimcheck.com, 2008). These methods are generally used prior to extending a job offer or contingent upon passing the background checks (Crimcheck.com, 2008).

There is no one solution that will eliminate workplace violence in its entirety. In order to reduce the amount of violent acts, organizations must implement a combination of methods and practices (Violence in the Workplace, 1995). All of these methods combined, are factors that are necessary for the success of a workplace prevention program, saving the organization millions of dollars a year.

CONCLUSIONS AND PROPOSED FRAMEWORK

Through the key issues [i.e., identification, measurement, leadership training, intervention, and prevention] and best practices that were discussed in the previous sections [i.e., employee assistance programs, threat assessments, safety and security, written policies, and behavioral interview questions and background checks during the hiring process], organizations are able to create a framework that enables them to operate more efficiently with regard to managing workplace violence (WPV). Indeed, OSHA has developed instructions that provide helpful procedures and general policy guidance on workplace

violence. It recommends conducing a workplace violence hazard analysis, providing employees with training on violence, and implementing engineering controls such as alarms. Through these methods and practices, employers can reduce their likelihood of experiencing violent incidents in their workplaces.

Too many employers are still in the dark concerning WPV in their workplaces. Thus, there is still much work to be done in uncovering the barriers that limit the understanding and prevention of workplace violence. For example, data are limited on the cost-to-benefit of workplace violence prevention programs, as well as the actual frequency of occurrence for each type of workplace violence. This is typically because many cases of workplace violence are not reported, and many organizations fail to collect data or grant access to the data when collected. In this regard, employers present the greatest barrier to workplace violence prevention. They may fail to thoroughly investigate the risks of workplace violence prior to selecting and implementing interventions. They may be "wary about a negative company image, legal liability, assuming responsibility for workers' private lives, and worker enlightenment and empowerment" (Howard, 2004) and allow that to stand in the way of their progress on WPV deterrence. Their fears may be that workers who become aware of these issues will file complaints and claims (Howard, 2004).

Such opinions and fears become barriers and hindrances to fashioning the most effective solutions. They obstruct the company's insights into the full scope of violence that may be occurring and potentially exposes the company and its employees to unnecessary risk factors. Companies that have not identified their risks, cannot provide customized interventions and well-thought prevention programs. They may also be indifferent and fail to see the value of managing workplace violence until a devastating event occurs.

Applying a comprehensive Workplace Violence Framework can minimize the lack of awareness of WPV on the one hand, and on the other hand promote appropriate actions to reduce it. Such a comprehensive WPV Framework is presented here. This proposed framework would establish a process for applying best practices and developing innovative approaches to reduce WPV. It would encourage action research for continuous improvements and facilitate building better business-level intelligence in this area, thereby enabling the organization to gain a greater handle on innovative ways to reduce the occurrence of workplace violence.

The proposed framework would include a *discovery* phase in which management would identify the company's workplace violence issues and risks; an *action* phase in which management would establish policies, processes, and practices as well as implement the appropriate training for the entire organization; and an ongoing *learning and innovation* phase in which management would determine how well the company is doing, through the appropriate metrics, and also determine innovative ways to continue to deter violent behavior in the workplace. A snapshot of the framework is in Exhibit 8, followed by further details.

The *discovery phase* would include activities such as identifying the WPV risks at the industry, business, team or unit, job, and individual levels; determining the potential costs of WPV at each level; providing employees with confidential, private, and fully secured and protected means of reporting workplace violence incidents; identifying internal and external resources to address WPV; exploring what-if scenarios regarding the companies risks; and identifying best practices and innovations that could be applied. The *action phase* would involve building and rolling out the best policies, processes, and practices; implementing targeted training for all employees and managers; and implementing routine practices with rewards for acceptable violence prevention behaviors and reporting.

Exhibit 8: Proposed Framework for the Effective Management of WPV
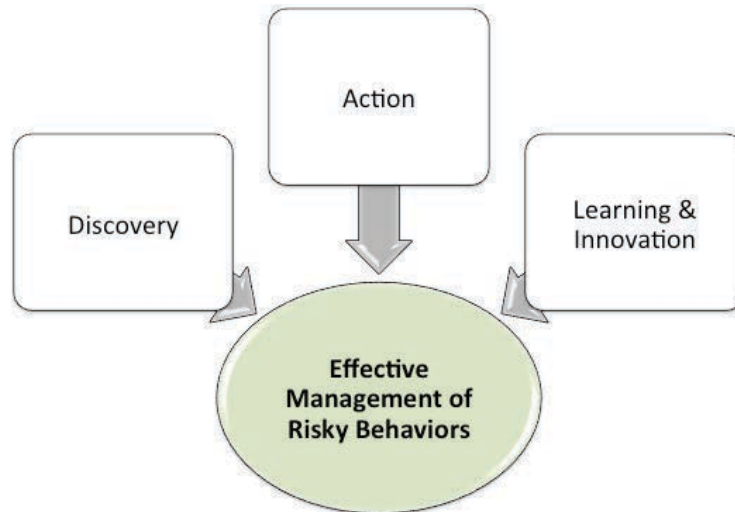
The *learning and innovation phase* would involve significant learning from direct experience, other companies' best practices; using acceptable measures and analyses to evaluate what's working and what's not working in the company's WPV interventions; and initiating "employee suggestion programs" that support building smart systems and business intelligence to arrest WPV incidents before they can occur.

The stakeholders in the area of WPV include the government (federal, state, and local), businesses operating domestically and globally; managers and employees; society with its neighborhoods and communities; safety and security professionals; technology professionals; legal professionals; and social services and law enforcement agencies. This proposed framework would require sufficient coordination and integration of systems, policies, and critical thinking on the part of these stakeholders in order to render the most comprehensive, effective, and detailed strategies to curb and even significantly reduce the growing problem of workplace violence.

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Web-based Accountability: An Integration of Extant Knowledge, Research Gaps and Future Directions

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Because Internet-based technologies are readily used by businesses, research scholars have begun to focus on the specific use of such technology by nonprofit organizations for accountability purposes. A central focus of this paper is to review some of the most significant extant literature on web-based accountability, with particular emphasis on conceptual and empirical studies focusing on the nonprofit sector.   Much of this research is situated within the public relations literature, as some of the primary elements of online accountability are directly related to establishing relationships and disclosing information to stakeholders. Finally, this paper presents research gaps and future research propositions regarding the impact and value of web-based accountability practices amongst nonprofit organizations.

INTRODUCTION

The operating environment for nonprofit organizations (NPOs) has grown more challenging in recent years with greater emphasis on transparency and accountability. NPOs are under ever-increasing pressure to demonstrate high levels of accountability to donors, those who volunteer, and others (Melendez, 2001). They must also be transparent in order to maintain public trust (Melendez, 2001). The sector is filled with organizations dedicated to the common good; however, a long list of recent public scandals, executive misdeeds, mishandling of donations and unflattering news reports have raised concerns about accountability (Slatten, Guidry and Austin, 2011).   Thus. nonprofit managers are increasingly required to develop and design effective accountability mechanisms that demonstrate credibility and their commitment to the public good (Valentinov, 2011).

RESEARCH PURPOSE

The objective of this paper is to review current research on web-based accountability in the nonprofit sector, to identify shared themes and gaps amongst the studies, and to set forth future research propositions in this area. This research synthesis begins with an examination of the extant literature on general accountability and then moves into a more specific discussion of web-based accountability in the nonprofit sector.   Within this discussion, we highlight the link between the various elements of online accountability and public relations efforts. The integration of theoretical and empirical literature in these distinct areas will help to more comprehensively reflect on the determinants of online accountability and the outcomes thereof.   In doing so, we seek to better understand the construct of web-based accountability and its application in the nonprofit sector.

The review of literature mostly includes articles that have been recently published in academically refereed journals. The readers of these journals were identified as academics, administrators, and business persons/practitioners. Following the work of others, theses or dissertations, textbooks, and unpublished working papers were not included in this review (Nord and Nord, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Bachrach, and Podsakoff, 2005). The studies were identified by an extensive literature search in three academic databases. The articles were found by searching for the keywords "accountability" and "online accountability" in the ProQuest and EBSCOhost academic databases.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this review is to explore current literature related to web-based accountability. Although studies of NPO accountability are not new, research relating to the specificities of web-based accountability in the sector has only emerged since the early 2000s. This is largely because NPOs have generally lagged behind in developing a web presence and embracing the use and full potential of Internet-based technologies (Corder, 2001; Hackler and Saxton, 2007). Thus, it is necessary to begin with a review of some of the most significant extant literature on general accountability to gain proper perspective on this topic.

ACCOUNTABILITY LITERATURE – 1st GENERATION (CONCEPTUAL)

Accountability has many dimensions and has continued to be one of the most pressing matters facing the nonprofit sector in the US today (Moore, 2001). Bies (2001) advances a general definition of accountability by describing it as "the means by which individuals and organizations are answerable to others and are held responsible by their actions" (page 52). Ebrahim (2003) offers his own comprehensive definition: "the means through which individuals and organizations are held externally to account for their actions and as the means by which they take internal responsibility for continuously shaping and scrutinizing organizational mission, goals, and performance" (p. 194). Brody (2002) reported that accountability is important to NPOs but that the term has different meanings to different stakeholders. Ospina, Diaz and O'Sullivan (2002) stated "accountability is defined in terms that reach beyond traditional concerns with financial health, internal controls and regulatory compliance" (p. 28). Furthermore, these definitions fall short of providing managers and other stakeholders with a means for measuring progress – positive progress related to mission fulfillment and program outcomes, as well as poor performance in any organizational metrics (Ospina et al., 2002).

Numerous conceptual frameworks to explain the concept of accountability exist (see Candler & Dumont, 2010 for discussion). The accountability environment is simply explained in work done by Kearns (1994) whereby he presents a classification system of accountability. One unique aspect of the nonprofit sector is its diversity. More than one organization can impact child welfare, improve education, offer a way out of poverty, and tutor at-risk children after school. Further, in later work by Kearns (1996), he explained the need for a link between accountability and strategic management in NPOs in order to maintain the public trust. In fact, Brown and Moore (2001) stress the importance of having accountability aligned with the strategies that guide an organization and the decision-making that occurs within. Importantly, executive directors must be able to manage accountability upwards with donors and government regulators, as well as downwards with staff members (Edwards and Hulme, 1995).

Studies have also reported findings related to accountability that bring to light a different point of view. Ebrahim (2005) challenged the traditional thinking and reported that too much accountability can hinder the ability of the NPO to advance their mission since there are as many forms of accountability as there are relationships between multiple groups with power (donors, clients, government regulators, staff and board members). At the height of many nonprofit scandals and reports of misdeeds and self-dealing, Herzlinger (1996) suggested an Security and Exchange Commission (SEC)-like enforcement agency should be created to improve the quality of data being reported about NPOs. Such efforts have been undertaken by nonprofit reporting and watch dog agencies like GuideStar, Charity Navigator and the Better Business Bureau's Wise Giving Alliance. Each has developed evaluation or reporting mechanisms to report on good governance and management practices in NPOs in an attempt to provide appropriate information to donors regarding financial information, program quality and organizational effectiveness. Finally, Schmitz, Raggo, and Bruno-can Vijfeijken (2012) interviewed 152 leaders of transnational non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and found there are many challenges associated with strengthening accountability. These researchers call for a way to better balance the demands for transparency from

many stakeholders and explained that the conversation about accountability should move away from one heavily based on financial measures to one that allows the reporting of meaningful information about program activities and outcomes.

Because the current environment requires dealing with issues such as decreased funding, increasing demands for accountability, and increased emphasis on verifiable program results and process metrics, organizations at the board and staff levels must make efforts to be accountable to their stakeholders. As Morrison and Salipante (2007) reported, NPO staff and board members are more obligated to account for and report on dollars spent on products, processes, program outcomes and program activities. They note that NPOs are standing up to the call for this new level of broadened accountability and can successfully manage the complicated aspects of accountability at multiple levels and dimensions. In a more recent study, Valentinov (2011) further validates this thinking and confirms that the notion of nonprofit accountability is increasingly required to expand beyond just mission outcome related measures. He suggests that movement towards expanding and broadening accountability can be justified because it is being demanded. Table 1 provides a brief summary of some of these studies on accountability.

TABLE 1: ACCOUNTABILITY LITERATURE, 1ST GENERATION (CONCEPTUAL)

Authors	Key results
Bies (2001)	The internal and external capacity of an organization to be accountable can augment nonprofit accountability.
Brody (2002)	NPOs are concerned about accountability; term means different things to different people, often involving multiple – and sometimes conflicting – demands from a variety of stakeholders
Candler & Dumont (2010)	Accountability framework focusing on stakeholder interests and resource allocation.
Ebrahim (2005)	Too much accountability can hinder NPOs in achieving their mission. Accountability is about relationships of power among multiple actors.
Edwards & Hulme (1995)	NGOs should be accountable at many levels– downwards (staff, members) and upwards (donors, trustees, government regulators); the impossibility of equal accountability results in actions that are tilted to the donors' interest.
Frumkin & Kim (2001)	Transparency regarding the operations and finances of NPOs leads to improvements in accountability.
Herzlinger (1996)	Using the SEC as a template, an enforcement agency should be created to improve the quality of useful data about NPOs; such efforts would increase public trust, promote donor confidence, and improve accountability.
Kearns (1996)	Accountability must be seen as a . resource linked to strategic management in NPOs---will enhance cost-effectiveness and service quality.Accountability has evolved into a wide range of performance standards for serving the public trust.
Kearns (1994)	Identifying accountability auditing and the resources for which the NPO should be prepared to account for
Ospina et al. (2002)	Traditional definitions of accountability do not provide an adequate measure of how well an organization is fulfilling its mission; broadened accountability requires consideration of multiple views.

ACCOUNTABILTY LITERATURE – 2nd GENERATION (WEB-BASED)

Every aspect of life today has been impacted by technology and the quick access to volumes of information on any topic. Accountability in NPOs is no exception. The explosion of research in this area

TABLE 2: ACCOUNTABILITY LITERATURE, 2ND GENERATION (WEB-BASED ACCOUNTABILITY)

Authors	Key results
Blouin & Lee (2013)	Benefits of web disclosure: improve transparency and accountability
Bothwell (2004)	Disclosure has become a popular means of self-regulation for NPOs particularly through the web; government provided access to IRS tax forms filed by NPOs has enhanced this.
Cnaan et al. (2011)	NPOs can demonstrate accountability by publishing information online; most donors do not consult watchdog ratings when making donation decisions and a large number do not use any online sources for information.
Gandia (2011)	There is a need for increased information disclosure; websites are mostly ornamental and should evolve towards more informational and relational
Goatman & Lewis (2007)	Charities seem to be using their websites as a one-way communicate tool for disseminating information regarding the organization and its purpose. Interactivity and fundraising are not a focus.
Gordon et al. (2009)	Accounting data and other information obtained by rating agencies and watchdog organizations that is readily available to donors on-line suggests that rating changes do impact contributions
Hackler & Saxton (2007)	NPOs are not using information technology in strategic ways for communication, relationship-building, and other mission-critical purposes. NPOs must strategically utilize information technology by engaging in proper planning and budgeting and enhancing Website design/capabilities.
Ingenhoff & Koelling (2009)	Most NPOs are not making efficient use of the web for two-way communications.
Jo & Kim (2003)	Websites should be built with the intention of establishing trust and building relationships. Focus should be on content and oriented to a variety of stakeholders in an effort to engage in positive relationship-building.
Kang & Norton (2004)	NPOs were found to be effectively using the web to post relevant and useful content and to establish a connection with the public. Relationship-building efforts (interactions, 2-way communications) were not successful on the sites.
Kent et al. (2003)	Organizations should design their websites with the intent of supporting dialogic communications with publics.
Lee & Joseph (2012)	Using disclosure and dialogue perspectives, the authors determined effective use of a website can bring more financial and performance data into the public domain and encourage more direct interaction with stakeholders.
Lee & Joseph (2013)	The majority of NPOs suffer from "organizational inertia" and have not implemented web disclosure and transparency practices.
Saxton & Guo (2011)	Developed two elements of online accountability; NPOs web-based accountability is influenced by strategy, capacity, governance and environment
Saxton, et al. (2011)	Established a relationship between contributions and web-based disclosure; positive relationship between contributions and release of organizational data
Waters et al. (2009)	NPOs on Facebook did a good job of communicating their mission, but did not take advantage of the interaction potential of this social media tool. Interaction and engagement mechanisms were largely absent from these social media sites.

has created a new generation of literature and provides a number of practitioner oriented suggestions on how to operate successfully in this new paradigm. Many scholars have studied this emerging stream of research in the last decade resulting in numerous sub-categories of topic areas including: accountability,

improved stakeholder interaction, relationship building, transparency, advocacy, fundraising and revenue generation, building trust, and dialogic communications. These studies will be included in the review below and some are briefly summarized in Table 2.

Saxton and Guo (2011) posit that online accountability has two primary dimensions: disclosure and dialogue, both of which broadly summarize the sub categories mentioned above, are closely related, and are inherent elements of public relations. According to the work of Waters, Burnett, Lamm, and Lucas (2009), disclosure and stakeholder interaction have proven to be beneficial in building relationships. Relationships are often cultivated and nurtured through the use of dialogic communication, a concept first presented in the public relations literature by Kent and Taylor (1998). Public relations scholars have continued to reflect on the practical application of this two-way symmetrical communication concept and its impact on relationship-building with publics (Taylor, Kent and White, 2001; McAllister-Spooner, 2009; Briones, Kuch, Liu, and Jin, 2011; Theunissen and Wan Norrdin, 2012). NPOs use of such communication strategies will be examined in the review that follows.

As mentioned previously, watchdog and rating agencies have played a role in the recent interest in disclosure and transparency. Many have issued guidelines, whitepapers and conducted seminars educating NPOs in the particulars of web disclosure and enhanced transparency. Organizations are commonly rated based on their financial performance and/or operational effectiveness. Typically, this information is available to any stakeholder via searchable on-line databases or information retrieval systems. These organizations provide all stakeholders with the information required to analyze the work and results of their operations. We find there are conflicting reports on the results of these efforts. Cnaan, Jones, Dickin, and Salomon (2011) analyzed the role of these nonprofit watchdogs and determined that 78% of donors do not consult any watchdog ratings on the Web when making a decision to donate money. A large number, (58%) do not use information from any Internet source – but information from those who do use the Internet indicated that the NPOs website is the most commonly used source. NPOs are constantly faced with financial challenges and are, therefore, always seeking opportunities to secure additional sources of income. Donors seldom make the decision to provide financial support for an organization just based upon their awareness of the significance and virtue of the programs they provide. Therefore, NPOs must engage in consistent, high-quality, and frequent marketing efforts. Research on contributions suggests the ratings are an important part of the decision to donate. Gordon, Knock and Neely (2009) examined the value of the star ratings (0 to 4) published by Charity Navigator and found a direct correlation between ratings changes and contributions.

Further, smaller and younger organizations were better at web-based accountability practices than larger and more mature organizations (Lee and Joseph, 2013). Smaller organizations can more easily adapt to changes which suggests an organizational environment that facilitates the implementation of online accountability practices (Lee, Pendharkar and Blouin, 2012).   Hackler and Saxton (2007) found critical deficiencies in the use of technology to help NPOs fulfill their organizational mission – thus making it hard for those without adequate resources to compete for support of their programs and perhaps even damaging the organization's reputation.

More current research has reported some positive changes in the use of technology (websites and the Internet) to report on NPO accountability. The merits of voluntary web disclosure are identified in the study of US community foundations conducted by Saxton, Neely and Guo (2009). Noting that many donation decisions are now being made based on online information, the researchers defined two primary elements of online accountability: performance and financial. The results of the study revealed organizations that make better use of online disclosure tools in these areas fare better and raise more money than those who do not. According to Sargeant, West, and Jay (2007), since 2005, NPOs have been slow to capitalize on the tremendous opportunity to use the Internet for fundraising, with only a small number raising funds successfully online (exceptions would be those raising money in response to

natural disasters or well publicized efforts by large charitable organizations). Lack of trust in the security of the Internet has led to difficulties in fundraising and donating online (Burt and Dunham, 2009). Blouin and Lee (2013) gathered and synthesized recent literature on Web disclosure in a best-practices checklist for practitioners and stakeholders. They noted that in a study of 1,769 NPO websites, 43% posted annual reports, 13% provided audited financial statements and IRS Letters of Determination were provided by only 3% of organizations. In the article, the benefits of web disclosure were clear: improved transparency and accountability for organizations that disclose relevant financial information in a format that is clear and concise. Building on the model developed by Saxton and Guo (2011), Saxton, Kuo, and Ho (2012) conducted a study of information disclosure by medical institutions in Taiwan and concluded voluntary disclosure of financial information would boost the organization's efforts to be accountable and provide a means to meet strategic goals. Furthermore, organizations can use the disclosure as an opportunity to inform stakeholders of their levels of efficiency, effectiveness, credibility, responsiveness and accountability (Saxton et al., 2012).

Much of the recent literature indicates that NPOs are not using available technology to its fullest potential for positive organizational impact. Gandia (2011) studied websites of NGOs in Spain and determined the websites were mostly ornamental and did not provide stakeholders access to relevant information. Lee and Joseph (2012) investigated factors that impact online accountability and issued a call to action: organizations that do not implement elements of online accountability (financial and performance data) on their website may not be able to survive in the current environment of openness and transparency. A follow-up study by Lee and Joseph (2013) included a website content analysis and the results suggested the root cause of the failure to implement appropriate web disclosure was due to organizational inertia and resistance to change.

Some of the web-based accountability literature includes a focus on stakeholder interactions and the ability of organizations to use their web presence to establish relationships with the public. The research of Ozcelik (2008), Jo and Kim (2003), and Corby and Sowards (2000), all note the use of the web as an effective way to reach out to and communicate with stakeholders. In surveying a a group of charity leaders and state regulators, Bothwell (2004) noted that transparency has become a prevalent method of providing accountability. Kang and Norton (2004) were on the forefront of web site content analysis and found in their examination of the web sites of the 100 largest NPOs in 2001 that the organizations were not maximizing the use of their web presence to interact and engage with the public. These results are consistent with more recent research (see, for example, Waters, 2007 and Waters et al., 2009) indicating that NPOs are not using Internet-based technologies to cultivate relationships with their stakeholders. Generally speaking, their web presence does not effectively encourage interactivity and other relationship-building mechanisms. Similarly, Goatman and Lewis (2007), Ingenhoff and Koelling (2009) and Saxton and Guo (2011) found that while NPOs use their websites to successfully disseminate relevant information pertaining to the organization (e.g. financial and operational) and to reach stakeholders, they failed in interacting and building relationships with the public. The study by Lee et al. (2012) provides further evidence of the lack of Internet use and web 2.0 technologies by NPOs to demonstrate accountability.

The previously mentioned public relations literature notes that favorable relationship building strategies involve two-way symmetrical communication between an organization and the public. For example, when studying the impact of interactivity on relationship-building, Jo and Kim (2003) found a positive and significant effect. Thus, while a focus on using the web for transparency and enhanced accountability purposes yields beneficial outcomes that include increased charitable donations and greater organizational success (see, for example Gandia (2011), failure to capture the attention and interest of stakeholders will not allow an NPO to maximize the benefits of a significant and meaningful web presence. Importantly, one study suggests that public perceptions of an organization do not increase with the presence of advanced multimedia elements on the website (Jo and Kim, 2003). Since NPOs largely

rely on stakeholders (e.g., volunteers and donors) to succeed, the larger focus should be on designing and maintaining websites to maximize interactivity (Kent et al., 2003), with less attention being placed on employing advanced technical features. This is consistent with the findings of Gandia (2011).

In the social media realm, but still focusing on the area of dialogic communication, Waters et al., (2009) assessed the Facebook profiles of 275 NPOs in search for evidence of disclosure and information sharing. In this study, NPOs on Facebook did a good job of communicating their mission, but did not take advantage of the interaction potential of this social media tool. Similar to the findings of the aforementioned studies of websites, interaction and engagement mechanisms were largely absent from the social media sites of the organizations under investigation. In their study of 73 NPOs efforts to engage stakeholders through their use of Twitter, Lovejoy, Waters, and Saxton (2012) also found that social media was being used primarily for one-way communication (e.g., relaying information to publics) with less than 20% of all tweets involving efforts to engage in dialogic communication with stakeholders.

In an examination of social media data from the 100 largest NPOs in the United States, Nah and Saxton (forthcoming) recently set forth to determine those variables that drive adoption and actual utilization of social media tools (i.e. Facebook and Twitter). Some inter-organizational variables (e.g., program service revenues, membership structure, board size) and external influences (e.g., dependence on donations from the public) were all found to be positively associated with NPOs adoption and utilization of social media.

WEB-BASED ACCOUTABILITY PRACTICES: RESEARCH GAPS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Research on web-based accountability practices in the nonprofit sector has provided initial insights that are relevant to both practitioners and academicians. Importantly, however, one must note that much of the research reported herein is limited when attempting to draw comparisons. The lack of consistency in measures and analytical choices limit our ability to quantitatively compare results of various studies in this area. And although this review of literature provides meaningful summaries and reflections on web-based accountability studies, future research in this area should seek to employ consistent research methodologies to allow for a meta-analysis to be conducted.

First, many of the studies discussed herein included content analysis (e.g. Kang and Norton, 2004; Saxton and Guo, 2011; Lee et al., 2012).   While we recognize that this method is widely used, the elements tend to be somewhat subjective.   To make content analysis more meaningful and objective in this research context, weights could be assigned to reflect varying degrees of transparency relating to disclosure. For example, it seems fitting that if an organization makes their financial statements available on their website, this would receive more points (weight) than if the organization did not do so. Similarly, if an organization places their mission statement on their website but does not include a link to their most recent IRS Form 990, how would this compare to an organization that does both? These weights could be determined by surveying experts (e.g., Executive Directors of NPOs) in an effort to understand their perceived level of risk associated with disclosure. Using a Likert scale for the purposes of the survey would assist in efforts to assign different weights to various components of the dependent variable (online accountability) thereafter.   If one component is perceived to be more risky and is reported, then it could be rewarded with higher accountability points.   The validity of research results would increase with such efforts. Further, following the work of Saxton and Guo (2011) and Lee et al. (2012), we recommend that future research focus on four different types of transparency (financial, performance, stakeholder input, and interactive engagement) when conducting content analyses. Since these types of online accountability practices were derived from a sound theoretical base, future research would do well to continue with these.

Another element that is readily missing from the empirical body of literature on web-based accountability in the nonprofit sector is the use of control variables. Although various independent variables are used to predict accountability levels (e.g., organizational age, organizational density, asset size, community poverty, net working capital) in many of the studies (see, for example, Saxton and Guo, 2011: and Lee et al., 2012), there is no mention of the use of covariates to control for other factors that may influence or minimize differences in online accountability efforts. For example, is there some measure that would quantify or operationalize the level of competitiveness in a particular sector? What about the type of organization or the generosity level of any given state?   Future research should seek to unveil other confounding factors that could predict transparency.

It would also be interesting to compare the degree of transparency across various categories of nonprofit organizations (e.g., arts, culture and humanities versus animal related). Alternatively, researchers could do these same comparisons across various National Taxonomy of Exempt Entities (NTEE) Classification codes. Stemming from the work of Lee et al. (2012), comparisons could also be made to determine how different sizes of NPOs use the Internet for fundraising. Does the Internet level the playing field for the nonprofit community? The literature indicates that NPOs in all financial brackets have opportunities to prosper in cyber-space. Perhaps, then, the web equalizes public relations success amongst NPOs (Goatman and Lewis, 2007).

Lastly, because literature pertaining to the use of social media for web-based accountability purposes has only recently emerged, most of the studies are concerned with how NPOs are using such tools to establish two-way communication channels and promote interactivity.   Thus, we agree with the recommendations set forth by Lovejoy, Waters, and Saxton (2012) suggesting that future research delve deeper into the understanding of the determinants of social media use. Furthermore, researchers should continue to weigh the benefits of using the various social media outlets (e.g. Twitter, Facebook, You Tube, LinkedIn) against the cost of doing so and examine how social media can be used to effectively push traditional media coverage.

Although the funding challenges of late can often prevent an organization from developing or maintaining their organizational websites and/or social media sites as they should, it is more important than ever to establish an effective web presence, practice transparency, and engage stakeholders. As the aforementioned review of literature revealed, doing so can also lead to significant tangible benefits.   We, therefore, encourage scholars to continue developing research to fill the recognized gaps (see Table 3) in the literature and to further expand the understanding and knowledge of the determinants and outcomes of web-based accountability in the nonprofit sector.

TABLE 3: RESEARCH GAPS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Gaps	Future Research
Lack of consistency in measures and analytical choices	Employ consistent research methodologies to allow for quantitative comparisons of results
Content Analysis methods	Improve validity of research results by developing rubrics or metrics to more objectively analyze web content
Use of Control Variables	Comprehensively identify other factors that may influence online accountability efforts and isolate their influence
Determinants of social media use not identified	Identify determinants of social media use in order to comprehensively understand NPOs applications of such tools and their impact; monitor introduction of new social media platforms

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The Use and Usefulness of Social-Network-Site Recruiting

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Human resources recruiters use many different methods to identify and attract desirable applicants to their organizations. The use of online social networks, such as LinkedIn, Facebook and Twitter, for recruiting purposes is one of the newer methods that organizations are using. This paper argues that employees recruited through online social networks are less likely to turnover than average; also, it argues that social networking sites (SNS) decrease the selection cycle time when hiring and are an effective means to recruit passive job candidates. Social recruiting produces the benefits identified by merging the speed of the Internet with the quality and effectiveness of recruiting on the basis of time-consuming personal contacts and networking.

INTRODUCTION

Recruiting is an essential human resources function for most organizations. It includes those practices and activities carried out by the organization with the primary purpose of identifying and attracting potential employees (Breaugh & Starke, 2000). Timely hiring of suitable and desirable employees is the customary goal of recruiting, as mistakes in placement are generally costly and time consuming. Consequently, companies seek to be effective and efficient in the methods that they use to bring in new talent. Effectiveness refers to bringing in employees who fulfill expectations in terms of performance and outcomes, and efficiency involves using a minimum of resources, such as time, money and effort to recruit desired employees.

With social networking sites (SNS) achieving high levels of use and popularity worldwide, many corporations are investing time and money in creating, purchasing, and advertising on SNSs (Boyd & Ellison, 2008). As far back as the 1990s, it was estimated that organizations were using the internet extensively for recruiting purposes (Elliot & Tevavichulada, 1999) and this phenomenon continues to produce questions about the impact of the internet on recruiting (Ployhart, 2006); social networking adds a different, social, dimension to internet-based recruiting. In this paper we distinguish SNS recruiting from other recruitment methods and identify key characteristics that contribute to the use and usefulness of SNS as a recruiting tool.

Boyd and Ellison (2008: 211) define SNSs as "web-based services that allow individuals to (1) construct a public or semi-public profile within a bounded system, (2) articulate a list of other users with whom they share a connection, and (3) view and traverse their list of connections and those made by others within the system". Not only are companies creating, purchasing, and advertising on social networking sites, according to Barnes (2013) and Larson & Watson (2011) over half of Fortune 500 companies had Twitter and Facebook accounts by 2010, and consumers increasingly expect a corporate presence on SNSs, just as they have come to expect companies to have a public-facing website and e-commerce activities. These findings suggest that organizations are undoubtedly using and becoming more familiar with the SNS landscape and how to operate within it.

Despite many influential companies becoming involved and investing within SNS, "within the academic literature, discussions of social media are sparse," (Larson & Watson, 2011). There is relatively little available statistical data on social media's effect on recruiting, including with respect to turnover, response time, or passive audiences reached. This paper will discuss these and other important criteria that relate SNS recruiting and present propositions and analysis that elucidate the appeal of SNS for organizational human resources recruiting.

REVIEW AND THEORY DEVELOPMENT

Successful recruiting is both efficient and effective, but heterogeneous in that different organizations at different times may need to hire skilled or unskilled workers, experienced or inexperienced workers, and diverse workers at many different levels and in many different professions. Strategies for recruiting can be expected to vary across different jobs and types of recruits (Philips and Gully, 2013). While recruiting with SNSs is relatively recent (e.g. 5-10 years), Capelli (2001) reported that 90 percent of large firms over a decade ago were engaged in online recruiting with official recruitment webpages. The use of internet recruiting tools has continued to rise over the last decade, (Anderson, 2003; Chapman & Webster, 2003) with a rapid increase in the use of SNSs. Beyond just having company recruiting pages, organizations have found that SNSs, such as Twitter, Facebook, and LinkedIn, offer a new and potentially more effective market to find talent. There are many potential benefits from a company's use of social recruiting: improved sourcing of high-quality candidates, enhanced potential quality, as well as increased time and cost efficiency, (Ployhart, 2012).

Cook (2012) has observed that SNSs generally function as either personal networks (e.g. Facebook and Twitter) or professional networks that aim to connect applicants with potential employers (e.g. LinkedIn or Jobvite). However, employers received more value in the recruiting process from their budgetary investments in social networking websites than in corporate employment websites (Cook, 2012). This is due to the social aspect of the networks; the average person sees socializing as a fun activity, which is more likely to lead him or her to spending more time on a SNS. Organizations are able to reach a larger audience more effectively the more time the audience spends on a SNS.

There are many different methods to recruit applicants to organizations, and each method has a different success rate. According to the "Use and Effectiveness of Recruitment Methods" research done by the Society for Human Resource Management, personal contact or networking traditionally has been the most effective type of recruitment by both job seekers and human resource professionals, (Search Tactics Poll, 2001). It can be inferred from this information that both recruiters and job seekers see making personal connections as an important aspect of the recruitment process. The same study also noted that the most popular tool to attract applicants for both human resource professionals and job seekers was internet job postings, as well as personal contact or networking, and employee referrals (Search Tactics Poll, 2001). Recruiting by means of SNSs combines two of the more popularly used tools, internet job postings and personal contact, and evidences potential benefits in terms of both efficiency (i.e. low cost, time and effort for the potential hiring company) and effectiveness (i.e. relatively rich and personal information about the potential applicant). This method, whereby contact is made online social networks can be identified as online social network recruiting or social network site (SNS) recruiting. We define social recruiting as recruiting that is sourced directly from social networking sites.

Because recruiting sources are different in the outcomes they yield, in part due to varying amounts of realistic information communicated when using that source or method, companies benefit from being selective in the types of recruiting methods they utilize (Wanous 1980). This is known as the *realistic information* hypothesis, (Wiley, 1992). Methods such as internet job boards, networking, advertisements, or employee referrals all have different realistic information that is communicated, making the yield of usable candidates different from each. Job boards, for example, are known for having especially low yields (i.e. employees hired) for the number of applications received but they are relatively inexpensive to maintain.

We summarize our basic argument made so far in this paper with the figure (Figure 1) below, and then present some additional related formal propositions.

FIGURE 1: EFFECTIVENESS/EFFICIENCY OF RECRUITING METHODS

	Low Effectiveness High	
High Efficiency	Internet Postings & Job Boards	Social Networking Sites
Low Efficiency	Job Fairs Published Ads Radio & TV	Personal Networking & Contacts

Figure 1 suggests that Social Networking Sites are both efficient (e.g. require little inputs of time, money and relative effort) and effective (e.g. provide relatively rich and personalized information for the organization and the individual about the potential employment relationship). Following our logic above, we present three related propositions.

Proposition 1: Employees recruited through social networking sites exhibit lower turnover rates than employees not recruited through social networking sites.

When using SNS to recruit employees, companies are able to take a look at more than just job history or education. Recruiters are able to look at the personality of a candidate, which can positively or negatively affect the hiring decision. This argument aligns with Waldman's (2012) finding that employees who were referred into positions, including through social media connects, had only a 12.8% turnover, whereas traditionally hired staff has a 19.3% turnover rate. By being able to look at social media, recruiters are able to look at a fuller picture of that potential employee. Not only does the hiring team see the past work experiences, it is able to see more fully the volunteer work, the group involvement, projects that have been worked upon, as well as connections that this individual might have. Recruiters will be able to more correctly match an employee to a job or even match them more correctly to the organization as a whole if they are able to see the interests, hobbies, and past work experiences that a person has. If a hiring team is able to see more than just the past work experiences, it is likely that the potential employee will be better matched to a job and organization, making turnover lower than traditional hiring methods.

Additionally, potential employees can look at the organization to which they are applying to see if they are a good fit on the basis of the organization's SNS presence, and the personal relationships that the potential employee has that may include relationships with past or present employees of the potential hiring organization. If the company does not have a presence on a SNS, this could be a topic for the potential employee to bring up in the interview. Also, organizations often make their goals and plans clearer on a SNS, as there is a limited space for them to explain their ideas. Not only are recruiters able to get a clearer vision of the potential employee, the potential employee is able to understand the kind of

company of which they are trying to become a member. It is intuitively appealing that the better a future employee knows the company before being hired, the more likely he or she will stay with the organization after joining.

Proposition 2: Social recruiting decreases the response time required between position announcement and candidate application and screening.

Hiring takes up many different resources, including time, expenses (advertising, mileage, etc.), as well as lost hours for the position that is being filled. "Time-to-fill" is a metric used by human resource professionals to gauge "the number of days it takes to fill a position," (Dooney, 2012). For example, in 2001, Hard Rock Café opened a restaurant in Florence, Italy. The organization was able to fill 120 open positions in four weeks, using Facebook's unique advertisements targeting locals who "liked" certain things on the popular SNS, (Colao, 2012). Using traditional recruiting methods, this hiring situation should have taken months, but because the company utilized Facebook's unique advertisements, it was able to shorten the hiring cycle. Hard Rock Café also saved a considerable amount of money using the inexpensive advertisements; the total was approximately $2000, less than a tenth of the normal recruitment cost (Colao, 2012). Organizations constantly look to decrease the time and capital that go into non-value adding processes, such as human resources.

Recruitment methods have been making the shift to different avenues to increase the efficiency and effectiveness as long as hiring has been used. Consistent with postings on internet job boards, the use of SNSs provides savings of time and money relative to traditional recruitment tools. In relation to job boards, "The amount of time spent in the recruitment and selection cycle has been estimated to decrease by as much as 25 percent" (Cober, 2000). Reducing by a quarter the time required to fill an empty position represents a substantial productivity improvement.

While the "time-to-fill" is different for every company, there is an apparent trend among small and large organizations. "Large organizations have a higher average time-to-fill, 43 days, compared with 29 days for small organizations" (Dooney, 2012). Following the logic and old saying that "time is money", being able to fill job openings more quickly is a clear advantage of social recruiting. Informality of social networks puts potential recruits at ease, as they feel more comfortable communicating with a person that they may know or with whom they may have a "weak tie"; this allows for quicker and richer communication than that provided through a faceless job-board posting.

Proposition 3: Organizations that use social media to recruit are able to reach a larger pool of passive job prospects than are reached with other recruiting methods.

Individuals who are currently employed and not seeking a job change are considered *passive jobseekers* (DeKay, 2009). That is, a "passive job seeker is not actively seeking another job, but he or she could be tempted by the right opportunity" (Phillips & Gully, 2013: 141). Passive job seekers are considered desirable hires generally because they come from the pool of employed, as opposed to unemployed, job candidates. But passive job seekers tend to be harder to identify, contact, and connect with, since they are not looking for a job. Sourcing new employees for organizations can be difficult, and an often untapped set is the passive applicant. However, these passive applicants are often exactly what companies desire: they tend to be stable and often they are most highly qualified, with a strong educational background and a healthy work history.

"Recruiters can quickly increase their candidate pool (when) they have the time to locate niche recruiting sources that uncover passive candidates," (Dooney, 2012). By increasing the pool and uncovering passive candidates, organizations are able to hire the most appropriate and best fitting candidates. SNSs are a good way to connect with passive job seekers because such a person may not go to an online job site to look for a job, but they may follow their friends and favorite organizations on SNSs.

Organizations have long used targeted advertisements to convince particular types of customers to purchase their products. SNS can be viewed as a type of population, with certain demographics clumped together in networks. "Using SNS can allow for more targeted recruiting" (Davison, 2011: 155). Organizations want to cast a wide net, but a targeted wide net may be the most effective way to reach the most appropriate audience. "The Internet has revolutionized the ability for the passive job seeker to find new employment opportunities and for organizations to reach out less intrusively to the passive job seeker" (Cober, 2006). Figure 2 shows a representation of the intersection of recruiting and SNSs.

FIGURE 2: INTERSECTION OF SOCIAL NETWORKING SITES AND RECRUITING
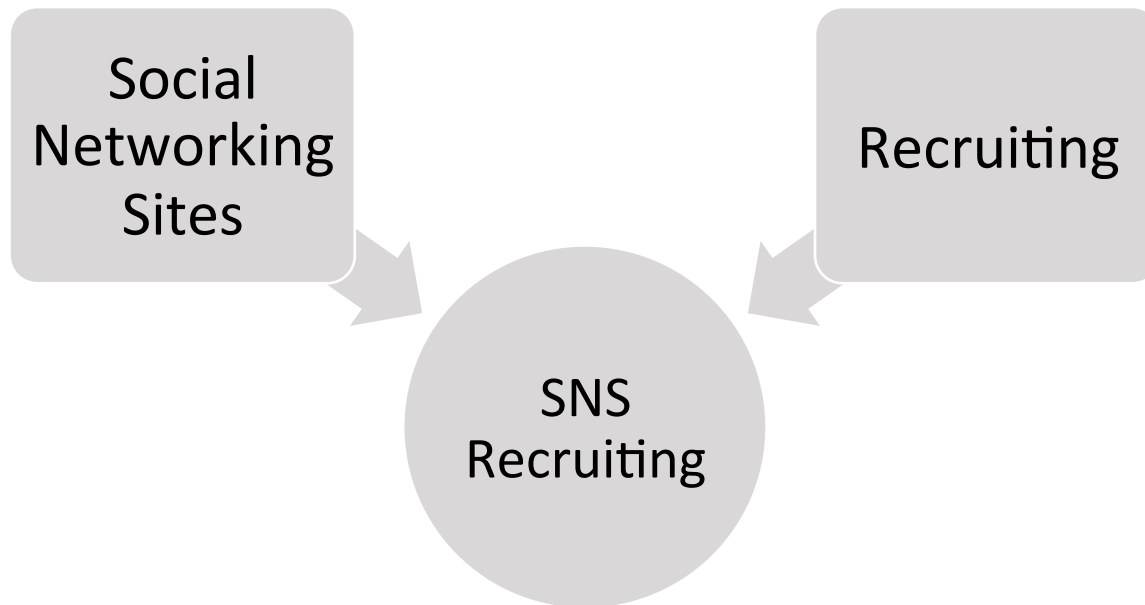
Traditional internet job postings are arguably the most efficient way to reach mass markets when recruiting for positions. However, they do not produce the same numbers of successfully hired employees that other methods, reaching fewer people, are able to. This is because the audience that is able to see the job postings may not be appropriate candidates for the position, or even the company. This is one reason why organizations and recruiters are sometimes wary of internet job postings; companies that place the postings may be inundated with applications from applicants who are not even qualified for the position posted.

SNSs are now a way that people, in business and in their personal lives, are able to network with each other. Not only are friends connecting with those they already have established connections with in the real world, they are also able to look at their friends' connections, to see who is attached to whom. In recruiting, networking and personal contact are the most used ways to find new potential employees.

By bringing together the speed of internet job postings with the personal and social qualities of networking through SNSs, social recruiting is able to decrease the time it takes for companies to find potential employees who possess appropriate qualifications and fit well with the job and organization requirements.

CONCLUSION

Long-term implications of social recruiting are still widely unknown. There is a definite need for more theoretical and empirical research on both the effects and utilization of social recruiting. While a majority of organizations utilize online applications for open positions, to the best of our knowledge no exact statistics exist on the hiring of applicants directly from SNS.

The use of social media is nonetheless a commonplace occurrence. A recent trend is for employers and recruiters to employ Facebook, LinkedIn, and Twitter to attract potential employees. Social recruiting may increase the pool of applicants, reduce applications from or allow quick disqualification of less qualified applicants, reduce turnover, and be able to reach desirable passive working candidates. With organizations and individuals becoming increasingly connected through technology, it appears that social recruiting will continue to be used in the foreseeable future.

One challenge yet to be fully addressed by SNS recruiting is the potential for employment discrimination (Ployhart, 2012). People are notable for preferring to socialize with individuals like themselves (e.g. age, ethnicity), but this could present legal challenges or issues in terms of how organizations use SNS recruiting in the future. Certainly, there will be a host of additional new issues that will also come to the fore as organizations use and scholars continue to study SNS recruiting.

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Performance Evaluation and Promotion Criteria: Perceptions of Faculty Evaluation in Promotion Decisions

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Performance evaluation and promotion of faculty can be difficult in higher education. The evaluation of faculty performance often creates confusion as the criteria for promotion are often poorly understood. Disagreements over effective, equitable performance evaluation tools and possible biases of how faculty may get promoted have been a concern in many institutions, possibly creating legal liabilities that underlines the need for designing promotion criteria that are effective and easily understood by administrators and faculty. The purpose of this paper is to evaluate the perceptions of faculty promotion practices and processes used in higher education institutions in the Midwest region of the US to identify equitable and effective performance measuring tools and promotion criteria that could be used to evaluate faculty in higher education. The survey instrument included five main categories of faculty performance evaluation: (1) teaching effectiveness and instruction, (2) student advising, (3) research and scholarship, (4) professional development, and (5) service to the profession and community. The instrument was pilot tested with faculty at various state and private universities and colleges to identify the most important promotional criteria in faculty performance evaluation as perceived by faculty. Recommendations are made to assist administrators and supervisors at American higher educational institutions to evaluate and award faculty promotions more effectively and consistently in the future.

INTRODUCTION

Performance evaluation and promotion of faculty can be difficult in higher educational institutions. The evaluation of faculty could be confusing as the criteria for promotion are often poorly understood.

Disagreements over effective, equitable performance evaluation tools and possible biases of how faculty may get promoted have been a concern in higher education which may also lead to legal liabilities. To minimize these concerns, it is important that institutions design promotion criteria that are effective and easily understood both by administrators and faculty.

The purpose of this paper is to evaluate the perceptions of faculty promotion practices and processes used in various higher educational institutions in the Midwest region of the US by surveying faculty to identify equitable and effective performance measures and promotion criteria in US higher education.

LITERATURE

Performance Appraisal

Performance appraisal is the process of maintaining and improving employee job performance. This is a crucial component of managing people to assure accomplishing the goals of the organization effectively. In my experience as supervisor of complex operations, we used a variety of performance assessment tools, coaching, and counseling as well as providing continuous feedback to assure that employees understood their expectations and were able to perform the job requirements in a timely fashion across different cultures and environments (Konyu-Fogel, 2012).

Organizations in general pay close attention to performance management appraisals because the contribution of each employee is necessary to achieve the organizational objectives successfully. Human

resource professionals are required to address individual performance factors as well as differences in employee expectations, values, norms, attitudes, and behaviors of a diverse workforce. The following are important factors that may influence performance management practices in organizations:

- Differences among employeesrelative to personal goals and interests

- Differences in individual motivational factors, such as values, beliefs, and attitudes

- Differences in job productivity standards as perceived by employees based on their expectations and norms and management practices

- Differences in management attitudes, administrative priorities, and institutional practices

- Differences in methods and expectations of employee engagement

- Differences in performance appraisal systems based on organizational culture and environments

Organizational factors play a significant role in assessing employee performance. It is important to avoid stereotyping or personal bias in evaluating performance issues. In higher education, institutional practices may conflict with the performance standards and supervisory appraisal practices of the various academic disciplines and departments which could make the performance assessment inconsistent and less effective for employees. Studies show that to develop effective performance assessment criteria, it is necessary to develop a performance measure system that is consistent, equitable, and fair across different job categories and all departments (Becker & Gerhart, 1996). The focus in performance management must be on identifying the standards and criteria to be used in the evaluation process and providing clear guidelines of the appraisal practices.

Performance Management Process

Figure 1 shows the elements of a typical performance management system and how these are related to each other (Konyu-Fogel, 2012). As shown in Figure 1, the performance management system is an on-going process that must start with first making clear statements on the organizational goals and values based on which performance management standards must be set to govern and direct acceptable employee performance and behavior on the job. Next, there must be a constant monitoring of employee performance with formal performance appraisal feedback and evaluation measures that ultimately should demonstrate the achievement of the stated business results by leading to organizational effectiveness and increasing employee growth.

Each phase of the performance management system is closely connected to the other parts and the relationship between each component is a dynamic relation implying that when one part changes, the other parts also must change simultaneously. Managers and supervisors must pay close attention to setting clear performance goals and appropriate job standards for employees with consideration for difference in country and cultural environments. In addition, it is important to understand that performance management is a continuous process and to achieve the desired results, employee standards must be assessed and measured with appropriate assessment tools and feedback mechanisms.Supervisors must be responsible for assuring a continuous and seamless operation of each phase of the performance management system.
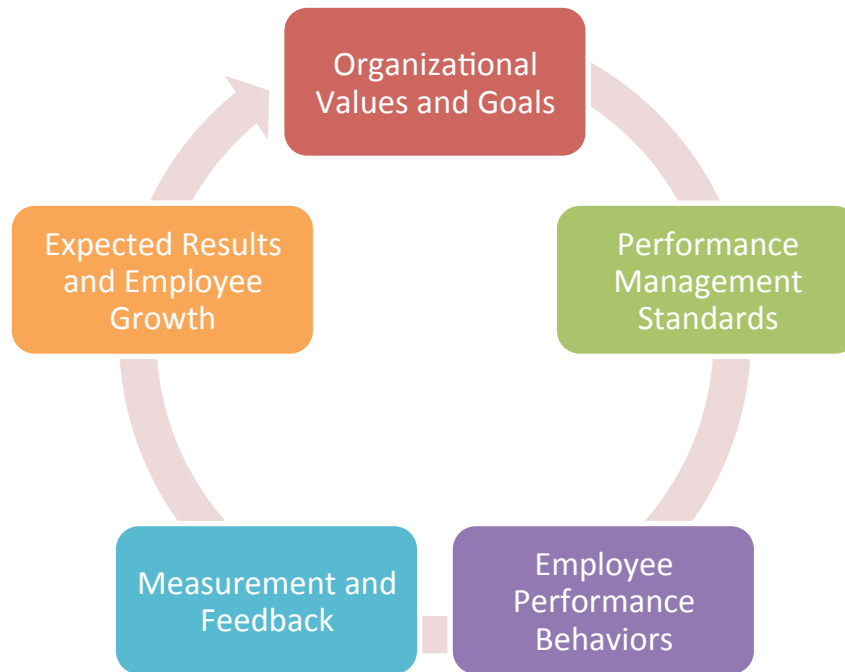
FIGURE 1. PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT SYSTEM (KONYU-FOGEL, 2012)

Planning and Implementing Performance Appraisals

Performance management in all organizations, including higher educational institutions, must address strategic alignment to organizational goals linked closely to individual goals. This must be developed by the mission and goal setting process.

Waldman and Kennett (1990) note that successful organizations incorporate organizational learning and knowledge management in their performance management practices to assure organizational capabilities for building a sustainable competitive advantage.

A critical factor in performance management is fairness in performance evaluation and the level of employee trust in the manager's standards and assessment process. It is important to conduct a fair performance appraisal that is free of bias or favoritism.

Sources of Performance Appraisal Input

Generally, it is good management practice to use as many inputs as possible from multiple sources to evaluate employees and their job performance. In addition to the employee's immediate supervisor, peers, customers, suppliers, and subordinates may provide different perspectives on the employee's performance.

By using multiple sources of evaluations, the performance appraisal may be improved in reliability and accuracy (Mathis, Jackson, & Valentine, 2014). A common practice often used for developmental purposes is the 360-degree feedback which facilitates evaluative inputs from a variety of individuals who have job relevant interactions or the opportunity to observe the employee's work and job performance. The 360-degree feedback evaluation is one of the best practices to conduct comprehensive performance appraisals. Figure 2 shows the various sources of performance appraisal inputs that could be used to evaluate employee performance.

As shown in Figure 2, the 360 evaluation includes multiple sources including self-evaluation by the employee, supervisors, subordinates (direct reports, staff members, administrative assistants), co-workers, colleagues, peers, and customers(Konyu-Fogel, 2012). In higher education, the customers consist of primarily the students and their parents but it also includes various academic departments, campus constituents, community partners, the public, and other stakeholders.

The evaluation by supervisors should provide an accurate assessment of the employee's strengths and weaknesses and the specific accomplishments of tasks on the job. There is evidence that self-evaluation by employees generally increases employee satisfaction (Anthony, Kacmar, &Perrewe, 2002). Peer evaluation inputs might not be useful when coworkers have a tendency to overrate their peers for the sake of keeping group harmony or maintaining their membership in the group.

**FIGURE 2. SOURCES OF PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL INPUTS
(KONYU-FOGEL, 2012)**

Best Practices in Performance Evaluation

Performance evaluators must assess the performance of the employee according to the stated performance standards and criteria. Employees must have a clear understanding of the standards and procedures of the evaluation (Waldman & Kenett, 1990). In addition to the immediate supervisor, the employee may be asked to conduct a self-assessment. Other evaluators may include subordinates, peers, customers, local host country employees and supervisors, with whom the employee is in close contact on the job. The following are common errors that may occur in performance appraisals (Dressler, 2013, page 303):

- Contrast Error - An employee's evaluation is biased either upward or downward because of comparison with another employee just previously being evaluated.

- *Similar-to-Me Error*: An error in which an appraiser inflates the evaluation of an employee because of a mutual personal connection.

- *Halo Effect*: This error is caused by the rater's general impression of specific qualities of the employee being evaluated.

- *Error of Central Tendency*: A rating error in which all employees are rated about average.

- *Leniency or Strictness Error*: A rating error in which the appraiser tends to give all employees either unusually high or unusually low ratings.

- *Recency Error*: A rating error in which the appraisal is based largely on an employee's most recent rating.

Dessler (2013) notes that to avoid and minimize errors in performance appraisals, the performance measures and standards should be clear, the appraisal process should be objective and fair, and employees should understand the basis on which they are being evaluated. Similarly, Weaver and Treviono (2001) note organizations must assure that employees perceive fair and equitable evaluation practices both in content and process of the performance evaluation.

Teaching Effectiveness

Faculty end-of-semester student course evaluations are many times the primary determinant of the faculty members demonstrated effective teaching ability and are used in determining faculty promotion. Medina (2011) states that "critics of giving end-of-semester student evaluations significant weight in measuring faculty performance say that the feedback is unscientific, that students as customers are not always right, and that increasing incentives for faculty to win over students could inadvertently lead to grade inflation" (Medina, 2011, p. 15). The increased accountability in higher education may be fueling the need to solicit student feedback more frequently. According to Davis (2009), the current emphasis on assessment and student-learning outcomes may be a contributor in helping create a culture of self-reflection and improvement. Faculty who do administer mid-semester course evaluations enables them to improve in order to obtain better evaluations by the end of the course.

Fairweather (2002a) found that portfolios including student assessment, peer reviews, and longitudinal tracking of student progress provide accuracy when evaluating faculty performance. With an increased emphasis in scholarly work, in addition to maintaining the responsibilities for exemplary teaching and advising with hefty teaching loads, faculty teaching and advising may be negatively impacted (Malachowski, 2010). According to Snell, Mekies, and Tesar (2001) faculty classroom performance should be measured and student course evaluations should be used as part of the faculty promotion process.Park (1996) notes that good teaching requires that faculty communicate their knowledge via active learning to diverse populations, and continue to gain knowledge in their subject area through professional development opportunities and research.

Academic Research

According Shen (1998):

> There is a desire on the part of faculty in all three types of institutions that a shift is needed from the current more research-oriented promotion criteria to the desired more teaching-oriented ones. On the one hand, research appears to be the common core of current promotion criteria for all groups of faculty members. On the other hand, teaching is the common core of desired promotion criteria for all groups of faculty members. The general trend here is that there seems to be a desire on the part of facultyfor a shift of emphasis from research to teaching for promotion purposes(p. 32).

Based on this, faculty will continue to be confronted with increased expectations for scholarly work. Fairweather (2002b & 1996) and Boyer (1990) found that there is a perceived lack of emphasis on teaching and believes teaching should be considered a form of scholarship. Boyer (1990) contends that institutions should reward faculty with the type of scholarship that is supportive of institution's mission so if teaching is your mission, then the institution should stress teaching scholarship for faculty promotions. He also notes that institutions should go back to their origins and reward faculty for teaching, applying knowledge, integration, and research. If an institutions primary mission is teaching, then teaching should be the primary promotion criteria and faculty should not be held back because they were not involved in the same kind of work as research faculty.

Fairweather (2002a) does not believe in one size fits all models. Fairweather suggests that strict criterion many times restricts promotions due to rigid requirements. Instead he recommends identifying the major and teaching-oriented journals in each department and utilize them to evaluate research productivity.According to a survey of 130 university deans, only 6.2% said that teaching was the most important aspect of being a college professor (Crawford, Burns, & McNamara, 2012). This study also found that critical to a promotion was published journal articles while book publication, grants, and service were not critical to successful faculty promotion.

Evaluating Service

Service is usually a requirement for promotion. A central part of faculty service is committee work. O'Meara (2002) criticized institutions for rewarding faculty publications more than teaching or service. Similarly to Boyer (1990), Colbeck (1998) believes that service should be considered a form of scholarship. Institutions value faculty members giving back to the community.Consulting may be considered as a service. Whether faculty is engaged in consulting at another institution or a private sector entity, it demonstrates the knowledge of the individual consulting and gives the individual as well as the institution credibility.

According to the literature, females and faculty of color seem to perform more institutional service than their male and white counterparts (O'Rourke, 2008; Porter, 2007; Park, 1996). Proposed reason for this may be because of institutional pressures to have faculty of color and females represented on committees to ensure diversity and secondly disproportionate service may be more of a preference for females and faculty of color who desire to be more involved in service than their male and white counterparts (Porter, 2007).

Faculty promotion decisions should be fair, consistent, equitable, and timely to ensure to reduce any legal liability. To prevent disparate impact of women and minorities, institutional promotion criteria should not be interpreted too restrictive or inflexible. For example, many female and minority faculty may have substantial institutional committee loads so sensitivity to these service requirements of women and minority faculty should be taken into account.

Faculty Scholarship & Professional Development

Faculty scholarship can be viewed as a wide range of activities but the focus is on those activities that reflect professional growth. Faculty need to demonstrate that they can keep growing professionally in their respected fields. In order for faculty to become more effective, Sorcinelli and Austin (1992) stress the need for faculty professional development to be part of the faculty performance criteria.

Contributions to Student Growth & Development

Contributions to student growth and development may include co-authoring a publication with a student (Fairweather, 2002a), advising (academic and career), mentoring, creating and advising student

clubs, offering teaching associate opportunities, providing letters or recommendation, etc. According to Baker and Griffin (2010), faculty advisors hold unique positions in which they are able to guide students in developing overall educational and career plans.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

The pilot-study survey will be administered to Inter-Faculty Organization members in Minnesota State Colleges and Universities and faculty in various disciplines and academic departments in other state and private universities and colleges in the Midwest region in the U.S.

Instrument

The survey instrument was developed partly based on the questionnaire used in Centra (1977). It differs from Centra's study in including five main categories of faculty performance evaluation measures: (1) teaching effectiveness and instruction, (2) student advising, sponsoring student clubs, contribution to student growth, (3) research and scholarship, (4) professional development and growth, and (5) consulting, service to the profession, campus, and community (see Appendix A for the survey instrument).

Data Collection

The instrument will be administered in a pilot study in January and February of 2014 with faculty from multiple disciplines and departments at state and private universities and collegesin the Midwest. The survey instrument will be revised based upon the findings of the pilot study and then administered to the faculty attending the 2014 Midwest Business Administration Association International Conference in March in Chicago, Illinois, to the Inter-Faculty Organization members in the Minnesota State Colleges and Universities and to faculty in various disciplines and academic departments in other state and private universities and colleges in the Midwest region in the U.S.

Data Analysis

The results of the pilot test will be used to identify the most important promotional criteria of faculty performance evaluation as perceived by faculty. Data generated will be analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS®) software. Each criterion in the survey has a five-point scale: not available, not a factor, minor factor, major factor, and extremely critical factor. The average response for each criterion will be computed and an analysis of variance and canonical discriminant function analysis will be used to investigate response differences.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

According to Diamond (1993), Chief Academic Officers are vital players in the faculty evaluation and promotion process; they are thought to ensure the integrity and fairness of the process, and they help promote the morale and growth of the faculty. According to O'Meara(2005b), there are various external, cultural, and leadership forces as barriers in effective faculty performance evaluations including: "(1) the political nature of faculty evaluation, (2) excessive paperwork for faculty evaluation, (3) insufficient training for department chairs and deans, (4) faculty concerns about unrealistic expectations that they excel in all areas at the same time, and (5) unevenness in applying new criteria and standards within and across units" (O'Meara, 2005b, p. 86).

Departmental disagreements, conflicts or splits over promotion can reduce faculty satisfaction and productivity and signal confusion over the department's direction. To avoid this confusion, departments could provide more senior faculty mentoring of junior faculty as well as open discussions from senior faculty and department administrators on what the department values and rewards (Hearn & Anderson, 2002).

The primary constituents of institutions are the faculty (Smart, Feldman, & Ethington, 2000). Faculty is an essential part of institutions as they are responsible for curricula, teaching, new knowledge, and participating in institutional governance (Rhoades, 2000; Turner & Myers, 1999).The five promotional criteria outlined in this paper that faculty promotions may use are not nor should they be equally weighted. Faculty in general are expected to do service, teaching, and research(Park, 1996). The key factor in faculty promotion decisions should be based on institutional priorities and fair and equitable standards clearly stated in the faculty evaluation policies and applied consistently in the performance evaluation and promotion process.

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APPENDIX A

Survey of Departmental Practices in Evaluating Faculty Performance

Listed below are the general criteria and evaluation evidence that might be taken into account in evaluating faculty members for promotion, salary increase, or tenure. We would like you to give your best judgment about:

A. how important each general criterion or evaluation element is in personnel judgments currently being made about faculty members within the department *(Column A).*
B. how important you think each general criterion or evaluation element should be. That is, given the goals of your department and institution, how much weight ought to be placed on each factor? *(Column B).*

Respond as follows:

1 = Not a factor	3 = Major factor	
2 = Minor factor	4 = Extremely critical factor	0 = Not available or applicable

	A Current use and importance in personnel recommendations *(Circle one response in each row)*	B Importance each should have in personnel recommendations *(Circle one response in each row)*
I. Demonstrated ability to teach effectively **Elements of Evaluation:**	1 2 3 4 0	1 2 3 4
▪ Student assessments of teaching effectiveness	1 2 3 4 0	1 2 3 4
▪ Peer evaluations and reviews	1 2 3 4 0	1 2 3 4
▪ Demonstrating the nature and quality of assignments	1 2 3 4 0	1 2 3 4
▪ Developing and updating curriculum and course content	1 2 3 4 0	1 2 3 4
▪ Incorporating pedagogical approaches	1 2 3 4 0	1 2 3 4
▪ Providing timely feedback to students	1 2 3 4 0	1 2 3 4
▪ Others	1 2 3 4 0	1 2 3 4

Comment on the above criteria or elements of evaluation:

	A	B
II. Scholarly or creative achievement or research **Elements of Evaluation:**	1 2 3 4 0	1 2 3 4

	A					B			
▪ Publications in professional journals	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
▪ Works in progress	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
▪ Applying for, writing, receiving, and reporting on grants	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
▪ Presenting at professional meetings	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
▪ Research projects	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
▪ Books or book contributions	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
▪ Editorial or advisory roles for professional publications	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
▪ Others	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4

Comment on the above criteria or elements of evaluation:

Respond as follows:

1 = Not a factor	**3 = Major factor**
2 = Minor factor	**4 = Extremely critical factor** **0 = Not available or applicable**

	A Current use and importance in personnel recommendations *(Circle one response in each row)*					B Importance each should have in personnel recommendations *(Circle one response in each row)*			
III. Evidence of continuing preparation and study	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
Elements of Evaluation:									
▪ Remaining current in one's discipline	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
▪ Participating in seminars, workshops, and continuing education courses	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
▪ Attending professional meetings and conferences	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
▪ Structured study and courses	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
▪ Participation in the accreditation process	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
▪ Others	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4

Comment on the above criteria or elements of evaluation:

IV. Contributions to student growth and

development
Elements of Evaluation:

	A					B				
	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
▪ Providing academic and/or career advising	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
▪ Participating in and supervising student-based research or creative activity	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
▪ Serving or advising student clubs, organizations or societies	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
▪ Student mentoring	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
▪ Others	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	

Comment on the above criteria or elements of evaluation:

Respond as follows:

1 = Not a factor	**3 = Major factor**	
2 = Minor factor	**4 = Extremely critical factor**	**0 = Not available or applicable**

	A **Current use and importance in personnel recommendations** *(Circle one response in each row)*					B **Importance each should have in personnel recommendations** *(Circle one response in each row)*				
V. Service to the community and University **Elements of Evaluation:**	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
▪ Service on committees	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
▪ Mentoring colleagues	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
▪ Performing leadership roles	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
▪ Participating in accreditation, program review, and assessment	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
▪ Fostering alumni relations and promoting University advancement	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
▪ Recruiting and retaining students	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
▪ Serving on external professional bodies	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
▪ Consultation with government or business organizations	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
▪ Developing and supporting community, national, or international partnerships	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
▪ Others	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	

Comment on the above criteria or elements of evaluation:

Optional information:

Name: Title or Rank:

Department:

Address:

University:

Highest degree offered by the department:

Number of full-time faculty members in the department:

☐heck here if you would like a copy of the final results.

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Under *general management,* manuscripts are sought on topics that encompass organizational behavior, managing quality initiatives, organizational theory, organizational change and development, organizational communication and decision making, organizational culture and climate, managing diversity in organizations, organizational management applications, managing organizations, emerging organizational forms, and teaching management.

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Unsigned short pieces announcing new publications, programs, resources, and events related to the broad field of managment studies will be considered for publication. The submission should be made to the Journal Editor and may not be used in its entirety, but will be used as source material for staff-written items.

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