Editor’s Message

My sincere gratitude goes to the Intellectbase International Consortium (IIC) Team for their hard work in producing Volume 6, Issue 13. In addition, I want to thank the Executive Editorial Board (Executive Editorial Board), Reviewers’ Task Panel (RTP), Contributing & Managing Editors (CME) and the Senior Advisory Board (SAB) for their efforts who have made JKHRM a successful and an accredited academic Journal. They work diligently to review, comment and provide significant feedback to authors of the many research papers submitted to fulfill accreditation standards. The goal of the Journal of Knowledge and Human Resource Management (JKHRM) is to enhance performance in business, government and academic communities, as well as promote the interdisciplinary exchange of ideas on a global scale.

JKHRM is a double blind reviewed Journal which aims to address several and various frameworks that have been under-researched in human resource planning (e.g. challenging tasks at the micro or macro levels). The Journal is an abridgment of evolution from advanced management to knowledge-based infrastructure, which have necessitated further research on intellectual capital, culture and organizational learning. Dynamic knowledge (implicit, transitional and explicit) analysis on strategic, operational and tactical levels is essential for human resource planning methodologies. The dynamics of knowledge and management models that will promote the design for optimum performance of knowledge and human resource management initiatives are encouraged.

JKHRM seeks research innovation and creativity and presents original topics. The Journal provides an international forum for all aspects of study and highlights critical research. Rigorous and coherent contributions from both qualitative and quantitative case studies, tools, and techniques are welcome. We continue to look for individuals interested in becoming a reviewer for Intellectbase conference proceedings and Journals. Potential reviewers should send a self-nomination to the editor at JKHRM@intellectbase.org. Reviewers may also be asked to be part of the Executive Editorial Board (EEB) after they have established a positive record of reviewing articles in their discipline.

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LEADERSHIP AND THE EFFECTS ON EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

Kathleen E. Wolfhope and Jennifer Myers
The Pennsylvania State University, USA

ABSTRACT

The primary purpose of this paper is to determine the factors involved in employee engagement/disengagement related to leadership ethics and the impact on an organization’s ability to achieve high performance employees and achieve business goals. It was describe the factors related to employee engagement and to what extend leadership ethical decision-making impacts employees and organizations. This paper will report on various secondary research which used three data collection techniques; interviews, surveys, and focus groups to acquire qualitative and quantitative data. This study compiles this research from employees from various industries, universities, and/or non-profit organizations to be able to cross-reference the information to find out if there are consistent factors related to employee engagement or disengagement from these different structured areas. From the readings that this researcher has already conducted on research that has been published, the data has been specific to certain organizations for their own insight on employee issues. This research will also need to take into consideration International research publications that may have different work environments than that of the United States or include these variances into my own research. There is more research readings to complete to ensure that this topic will add to this topic and not be a facsimile to research that has already been completed and published. Despite organization’s providing incentivizes to increase employee retention, engagement, and productivity levels, there have been increases in employee turnover and in employee engagement. In our global economy, organizations are vying for the recruitment and retention of talented employees to maintain and/or increase their organizational competitiveness with their products and services. Research is needed to look at the factors that are related to the successful recruitment and retention of employee talent. Based on recent Gallup Management Journal survey of U.S. employees, employee engagement can affect employee performance, which will also affect the organizations performance and their ability to remain competitive in the global economy. Gallup uses its employee engagement survey, the Q 12, to measure workplace engagement and glean insights about the kinds of manager behaviors that are most likely to cause employees to disengage from their workplaces (The Gallup Organization, 2007).

Keywords: Leadership, Ethics, Engagement, Workplace Environment, Ethical Decision-Making, Engagement Approach.
INTRODUCTION

Leadership and administrators have the ability to create tougher rules and regulations to address these problems and also to create a work environment based on equality across the board. They also have the responsibility to ensure these standards are being met and enforce the regulations. An environment that is positive, professional, and promotes equal treatment of all employees should be the gold standard, the only standard. It is free of prejudices and discrimination of all types. This should be the standard and must be the standard for our organizations and for our country. Martin Luther King (1963) said “I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the content of their character. Equality for all people, regardless of sex, race, religion, and other differences should be everybody’s right to have. Let this be the resounding message taken from this paper and from this discussion: The content of a person’s character is what is most important, not their sex, not their race, and not any other difference that has often been used in police department and in society to label them in a negative light. Nor should a lesser value be placed on an individual by another individual who identifies himself or herself as superior.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Work Engagement and Leadership

Leadership at all levels has a significant impact on an employee's work engagement and it is critical that a work environment is created that is positive and fair to all employees. Work Engagement has been defined as “a positive, fulfilling, and affective-motivational state of work-related well-being that can be seen as the antipode of job burnout. Engaged employees have high levels of energy, and are enthusiastically involved in their work” (pp. 1-2). Work engagement is also described “as a state characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (Bakker et al., 2010, p. 26). Engaged employees normally seem to have energy levels higher than that of unengaged employees, and are excited to be involved in their work. It is ideal for all three aspects to be present concurrently to have the best result. (Bakker et al., 2010, p. 26). Vigor is described as the resilience, energy, mental ability to bounce back, determination, and commitment to one’s abilities (Bakker et al., 2010, p. 69). Dedication is regarded as “a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge” (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 74). Absorption is characterized by being absorbed and engaged in the work one is accomplishing; to the point a person is reluctant to stop what they are doing for a break (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

According to Development Dimensions International, Inc. (DDI) survey, 22% of highly engaged employees indicated that they are likely to leave their organization while 55% of disengaged employees are likely to leave their organization. In research studies that span 35 years DDI has shown that organizations with a higher percentage of highly engaged employees outperform others in their selected industries. Engaged employee are committed to their organization and its bottom line; have tremendous pride and job ownership; put forth more discretionary effort in terms of time and energy; and/or average, demonstrate significantly
higher levels of performance and productivity than those who are not engaged (Development Dimensions International, Inc., 2007). From these studies, DDI has created three key components needed for an organization to drive employee engagement to a higher level and to sustain this level (Development Dimensions International, Inc., 2007):

- The right people in the right jobs
- Highly engaged and supportive senior leaders
- Skilled first- and second-level leaders

According to DDI research most employee engagement initiatives do not focus on the crucial role of an effective selection system in building and engaged workforce. Employees are often selected with strong knowledge, skills, and experience in a particular job are hired or promoted without adequate attention being paid to criteria that are the key to being personally engaged: job fit, culture fit; and propensity to be engaged (Development Dimensions International, Inc., 2007). Senior leaders in organizations set the tone for the culture of an organization, in addition to setting the strategic plans, goals, and objectives for the organization, it is imperative that they are fully supportive of any initiatives to increase employee engagement (Development Dimensions International, Inc., 2007).

The standardized survey instrument; The E3: A Measure of Employee Engagement that DDI uses to measure employee engagement is composed of 17 items that are related to three factors contributing to employee engagement; the organization, the leader; the individual. This measurement is organized into five areas of focus (Development Dimensions International, Inc., 2007):

**Align Efforts with Strategy**
- Overall, I have a good understanding of what I am supposed to be doing in my job.
- I am kept well-informed about changes in the organization that affect my work group.
- My work group makes efficient use of its resources, time, and budget.
- In my work group, meetings are focused and efficient.
- In my work group, people are held accountable for low performance.

**Empower**
- I can make meaningful decisions about how I do my job.
- I find personal meaning and fulfillment in my work.
- Promote and Encourage Teamwork and Collaboration
- People in my work group cooperate with each other to get the job done.
- In this organization, different work groups reach out to help and support each other.
- People in my work group quickly resolve conflicts when they arise.
- People trust each other in my work group.
Help People Grow and Develop

- My job provides me with chances to grow and develop.
- In my work group, people try to pick up new skills and knowledge.
- In my work group, people are assigned tasks that allow them to use their best skills.
- Provide Support and Recognition Where Appropriate
- In my work group, my ideas and opinions are appreciated.
- I get sufficient feedback about how well I am doing.
- People in my work group understand and respect the things that make me unique.

This measurement developed by DDI also contains three standard questions related to employee satisfaction and loyalty, and four standard demographic questions. For any organization, this measurement on employee engagement can be customized to link demographic information to participant responses and to correlate other operational and organizational measures such as turnover, productivity, profitability, absenteeism, safety, and error rates (Development Dimensions International, Inc., 2007). For effective employee engagement it also takes an integrated, holistic approach, where leaders in the organization attain an understanding of what engagement is, and how their actions and leadership behaviors can have an immediate and long-lasting impact on engagement (Development Dimensions International, Inc., 2007).

From DDI research, senior leaders must demonstrate the skills needed to engage those around them and set a high standard to which others can aspire. Employees cannot be engaged if their senior leader is not engaged (Councelman, 2007). Because of the important role that senior leaders play in driving employee engagement, they must be involved in any engagement initiatives; they need to feel they “own” the initiatives and have a stake in measuring its impact (Councelman, 2007). According to DDI's research spanning over the past 35 years, which has been conducted on the competencies that define effective leadership and the role of leaders grow in importance and complexity, DDI has identified seven essential capabilities, or Leadership Imperatives, that people leaders must master in order to be effective in their jobs to create a highly engaged workforce (Councelman, 2007):

- Coach and develop for results
- Drive performance
- Inspire loyalty and trust
- Manage work
- Partner within and across teams
- Influence through personal power
- Select talent

In today’s economic volatility, diverse workforces, and global competition, leadership in organizations is different now than in the past (Councelman, 2007). To meet today’s challenges, leaders are being asked to execute business strategies while simultaneously
engaging higher levels of commitment and effort from employees (Councelman, 2007). From research conducted over the past 35 years, DDI has developed competencies that define effective leadership. These seven leadership imperatives are essential for leaders to master to be effective in their roles within their organization (Councelman, 2007):

**Coach and Develop for Results**
- Stay ahead of the game – effective coaches are proactive. They anticipate problems, barriers, and difficulties and help people avoid or overcome them before they get in the way of success and development.
- One size doesn’t fit all – Each person and situation is different so leaders need to adapt their styles to provide the most effective coaching.
- Seek 80, tell 20 – Many leaders do the opposite, thinking they need to jump in and solve their people’s problems. In contrast, effective leaders ask the right questions, and help people think through their own solutions.
- Coach on strengths, not just weaknesses – This builds competence and confidence and makes it easier to address weaknesses.

**Drive Performance**
- Make the most of your performance management process – learn to leverage the process to communicate performance expectations and hold people accountable for achieving objectives.
- The “how” are as important as the “what’s” – effective feedback on competencies is critical.
- Drive ownership and engagement – people perform at their peak when they embrace goals and objectives.
- Think process, not event – driving performance is a continual process of communication, coaching, and feedback.
- Keep the A Team – recognition and reward the best performers and deal with poor performers in a fair and consistent manner.

**Inspire Loyalty and Trust**
- Avoid trust traps at all costs – pay attention, don’t sugarcoat a problem, watch promises or commitments that are made, trust is hard to build, but easy to tear down.
- Inspire others – people who feel that they are growing and developing are more satisfied with their organizations and more engaged in their work.
- Change for the better – change challenges trust; leading change is a critical capability for leaders. Leaders need to know the difference between introducing change and communicating change, and know how to overcome resistance to change to avoid losing trust and loyalty.
- Trust requires integrity – integrity needs to be demonstrated every day, effective leaders that recognize their roles as the primary drivers of employee satisfaction and engagement and that it’s imperative to act with integrity and to create an environment of loyalty and trust.
Leadership and the Effects on Employee Engagement

Manage Work
- Don’t avoid risks – effective leaders have the confidence in their abilities and the abilities of others.
- Decide – acquire the right information and think through all of the options to make decisions.
- Stretch delegation – delegation is a tool to stretch the knowledge, skills, and abilities of people.
- Don’t dump – don’t confuse assigning work with delegation. Effective delegation requires clear links to personal and organizational objectives, clear task assignment, and effective follow-up.

Partner Within and Across Teams
- Jump start teams – leaders need to know how to charter a team or work group and how to get them performing.
- Partner across boundaries – reach across organizational boundaries to other leaders to get things done. Find a common purpose and work through organizational issues to accomplish a task or to meet customer needs.
- Build consensus – define issues, process options, value input from employees, and gain commitment to action.
- Take the lead – organize the right people, meet with a clear purpose, and a specific agenda.

Influence Through Personal Power
- Use multiple approaches – multipronged strategy to obtain buy-in and commitment to ideas and actions.
- Package ideas – creativity and connection to strategy are powerful packaging, good ideas need to be promoted above the flow of other information.
- Politics are politics, not influence – keep the needs of both co-workers and the organization front and center as people are moved to action.

Select Talent
- Effective talent selection and promotion create the following results:
  - Raising the bar – better talent entering the organization
  - Setting a faster pace – more productive people, sooner.
  - Advancing careers over time- more potential for people to achieve higher levels of performance.
  - Higher retention – overall improvement in employee motivation and satisfaction.

Principles in selecting talent
- Take the lead to help HR develop a success profile for the position
- Know that a candidate’s past performance is a predictor of future success
- Make hiring or promotion decisions that align with the success profile
• Build relationships and make referrals as a talent advocate for the organization
• Assess talent potential and manage the performance and development of current talent

Many articles have been written concerning employee engagement, while some leaders may ask, “Why do I need to be concerned if my employees are engaged in the organization?” Leaders at all levels within an organization need to understand how the lack of employee engagement can affect their organizations growth and profitability. The interesting finding is all studies by The Conference Board published in 2006 reviewed across all location and all ages have agreed that the direct relationship with one’s manager is the strongest of all drivers. The Conference Board published “Employee Engagement, A Review of Current Research and Its Implications” in 2006 which reviewed research conducted by 12 major research companies on employee engagement. Looking across these studies resulted in employee engagement being defined as: “a heightened emotional connection that an employee feels for his or her organization, that influences him or her to exert greater discretionary effort to his or her work.” At least four of the studies that they reviewed agreed on the following eight key drivers:

Trust and integrity – how well managers communicate and ‘walk the talk’.  
Nature of the job – Is it mentally stimulating day-to-day?  
Line of sight between employee performance and company performance – Does the employee understand how their work contributes to the company’s performance?  
Career Growth opportunities – Are there future opportunities for growth?  
Pride about the company – How much self-esteem does the employee feel by being associated with their company?  
Coworkers/team members – significantly influence one’s level of engagement  
Employee development – Is the company making an effort to develop the employee’s skills?  
Relationship with one’s manager – Does the employee value his or her relationship with his or her manager?

The concept of engagement has evolved from studies on high involvement, empowerment, job motivation, organizational commitment and trust. “Engaged” is defined as being involved or being committed to something such as goal or action. Employees feel engaged when they find personal meaning and motivation in their work; receive positive interpersonal support and function in an efficient work environment. An engaged employee feels that he has a stake in the outcome, with the desire to contribute to achieving more than personal goals (Rosas-Gaddi, 2006).

Effective Leadership

Creating an engaged workforce remains to be a challenge for many organizations. It requires effective leadership and other organizational factors to help employees realize their full potential and value. With a volatile economy, organizations need to concentrate on optimizing employee productivity and available organizational resources. Great revenues can only be
realized by an organization through optimal engagement of its employees' knowledge, skills, abilities and motivation. In Development Dimensions International, Inc's Leadership Forecast 2003 Study, results show the link of leadership to productivity and engagement. Employees with strong leaders are more engaged, satisfied and loyal than those with weak leaders (DDI, 2003).

The January 2003 issue of the Harvard Business Review highlighted substantial researches conducted on workforce motivation throughout the years and revealed consistent findings that emphasized the need to let employees to become fully engaged in their work in order to gain employee commitment (Rosas-Gaddi, 2006). Giving employees more responsibility for their work and the way it to do it, along with clear measures for accountability, reinforces employee productivity and inspires employees to be more committed to their work (Rosas-Gaddi, 2006).

"Lack of employee engagement is like a cancer, eating away at an organization's vital organs," writes Ayers who has spent almost thirty years as a consultant to organizations in Australia, South East Asia, and North America. Although almost all employees start out as engaged on their first day in a new job, The Gallup Organization's research claims that by the time they have been with the organization for just 6 months, only 38 percent of employees are still engaged. For employees with 10 years of service or more, the engagement level is down to just 20 percent (Ayers, 2006).

The Role of Leaders

Leadership plays a vital role in influencing levels of employee engagement. Goal clarity and direction are identified as factors that can influence an employee's level of engagement (Rosas-Gaddi, 2006). Employees perform well when they are clear with their goals and objectives, and know how to go about achieving them (Rosas-Gaddi, 2006). As a result, employees tend to be motivated and committed to it (Rosas-Gaddi, 2006). Hence, communication of clear goals and direction from the leader becomes crucial (Rosas-Gaddi, 2006). In addition, leaders must help employees develop personal accountability for their goals and help achieve them (Rosas-Gaddi, 2006). Setting performance expectations and instilling personal accountability among employees are critical for getting results (Rosas-Gaddi, 2006). People leaders spend the majority of their time leading small groups or individuals to achieve performance expectations that contribute to their team’s success (Rosas-Gaddi, 2006). They are successful when they attain the proper balance between achieving results through managing work and leading others in a way that supports the organization’s cultural strategy or values. People leaders drive performance by holding both their direct reports and themselves accountable for results and for desired behaviors while staying focused on their customers and desired outcomes (Rosas-Gaddi, 2006).

In the context of enhancing and maintaining employee motivation and commitment, leaders help employees achieve their maximum potential through coaching (Rosas-Gaddi, 2006). This involves guiding employees to think on their own of the best way to accomplish their goals. One can never coach results but rather guide employees on how to get there (Rosas-Gaddi,
2006). The benefit of focusing on quotas may be short-term compared to having sustained levels of motivation and high performance (Rosas-Gaddi, 2006). But until an employee gains experience and develops mature thinking skills, a leader needs to be a coach and an ethical model (Rosas-Gaddi, 2006).

**Performance Management**

With an unstable economy, senior leaders should highlight the need for accountability and to drive performance. Employees are expected to work harder in order to meet its targets. However, driving performance is not all about pushing employees to make figures but equally important is for them to know how to meet their targets. Many leaders concentrate on what needs to be done instead of how to get there. Refocusing on how goals are achieved becomes more essential because it facilitates learning and initiating action in the employee. It also provides support in terms of enhancing an employee’s capabilities, preparing them to meet future challenges. To be able to increase employee engagement, an effective performance management system is necessary (Rosas-Gaddi, 2006).

In a performance management study conducted by Development Dimensions International, Inc., *Managing Performance: Building Accountability for Organizational Success*, results indicate that a good performance management system enables employees to attain all their performance goals, which leads to successful business outcomes. However, one of the biggest challenges that leaders face is how to effectively motivate, initiate change and sustain improved performance among employees. Not all employees have the same sources of motivation or can they be influenced to initiate action and change behavior by the considering the same factors. Factors that contribute to an employee’s level of engagement are can be specific and vary per individual. It then becomes imperative for leaders to determine what organizational factors contribute to employee engagement and must be able to enhance and maintain them, both on an individual and group level (Rosas-Gaddi, 2006).

So, how can leaders become effective in engaging employees without adding to our already demanding schedules? According to George Ambler, MBA from DeMontfort University, UK and the author of The Practice of Leadership he suggests applying the following 10 C’s of employee engagement as leaders in our organizations:

**Connect:** Leaders must show that they value employees. Employee engagement is a direct reflection of how employees feel about their relationship with the boss.

**Career:** Leaders should provide challenging and meaningful work with opportunities for career advancement. Most people want to do new things in their job. For example, do organizations provide job rotation for their top talent? Are people assigned stretch goals?

**Clarity:** Leaders must communicate a clear vision. Success in life and organizations is, to a great extent, determined by how clear individuals are about their goals and what they really want to achieve. In sum, employees need to understand what the organization’s goals are, why they are important, and how the goals can best be attained.
**Convey**: Leaders clarify their expectations about employees and provide feedback on their functioning in the organization.

**Congratulate**: Exceptional leaders give recognition, and they do so a lot; they coach and convey.

**Contribute**: People want to know that their input matters and that they are contributing to the organization’s success in a meaningful way. In sum, good leaders help people see and feel how they are contributing to the organization’s success and future.

**Control**: Employees value control over the flow and pace of their jobs and leaders can create opportunities for employees to exercise this control. A feeling of “being in on things,” and of being given opportunities to participate in decision making often reduces stress; it also creates trust and a culture where people want to take ownership of problems and their solutions.

**Collaborate**: Studies show that, when employees work in teams and have the trust and cooperation of their team members, they outperform individuals and teams which lack good relationships. Great leaders are team builders; they create an environment that fosters trust and collaboration.

**Credibility**: Leaders should strive to maintain a company’s reputation and demonstrate high ethical standards.

**Confidence**: Good leaders help create confidence in a company by being exemplars of high ethical and performance standards.

Dr. Vince Molinaro and Dr. David Weiss co-authors of Driving Employee Engagement, believe that leaders today need to be able to create inspiring workplaces that truly engage employees to give their best to the organization. The first step is to ensure that leaders have an intimate knowledge of where their employees stand in terms of engagement. Over the past few years, they have conducted interviews with hundreds of employees at all levels and in a cross-section of sectors. Their findings have found some striking similarities in the factors that drive engagement and the personal investment that employees make to their organizations.

**Being part of a winning organization**: Employees want to know they are part of a winning organization. This could mean the organization is financially successful, or that it is recognized as a thought leader among customers, or that the organization has an ambitious vision, core purpose, and well-articulated business strategy in place.

**Working for admired leaders**: “Admired leaders” are one of the most important non-monetary drivers of performance. Organizations with a strong network of admired leaders create the conditions for high engagement.

**Having positive working relationships**: Employees value positive working relationships with high caliber and professional colleagues. Employees describe being excited about the thought of coming to work with these kinds of colleagues.

**Doing meaningful work**: Meaningful work is often defined as work that makes a difference or has an impact to the organization. Employees often want to see how their work impacts the
organization’s vision and strategy. They also want to know that the organization’s customers are “touched” by their work.

Recognition and appreciation: Recognition is another important driver of employee engagement. Recognition may mean monetary rewards and compensation, but it also can refer to the appreciation and direct feedback that employees receive from managers. This recognition and appreciation demonstrates that employees are valued and that their contribution is acknowledged by the organization. Recognition also means that leaders notice the often unnoticed things that employees do to make their organization successful. Living a balanced life: organizations that create cultures that value balance and assist employees to achieve life balance will be rewarded with highly engaged employees. Work-life balance does not mean that employees are not loyal, nor committed to their organizations; it means that employees want to lead whole lives, not lives solely centered on work. When leaders understand the factors that drive employee they are then able to create the conditions that drive higher levels of organizational performance (Molinare, Vince, Weiss David, 2005).

According to David Zinger, M.Ed., a leading expert on both employee engagement and strength-based leadership as leaders we need to be aware that we are also employees and to apply the suggestions listed below to our leadership traits:

**Engage yourself.** Before you can foster or enhance the engagement of employees, never lose sight that you are one of those employees. Keep a focus on your own levels of employee engagement as you also champion engagement for others.

**Hold engaging conversations.** Avoid making employee engagement an announcement or policy. Ensure your employee engagement has a grass roots conversational quality to it. Talk with your employees. Doc Searls co-author of the business best-seller The Cluetrain Manifesto: The End of Business as Usual, talking about conversational marketing stated: conversations are about talking, not announcing. They’re about listening, not surveying. They’re about paying attention, not getting attention. In many ways, employee engagement is less about what you put in and more about what you draw out of employees.

**Be strong and strengthen others.** Employees who work from their strengths and have work designed around their strengths are more engaged. As leaders, we must also talk with people about their strengths. There are many pathways to strengths.

**Apply the simple and significant.** I am passionate about employee engagement and believe it makes a huge difference for all in the workplace and I recognize how many things the average leader must attend to. It is not my intention to make employee engagement an imposition in an already overcrowded day. I encourage you to find the http://davidzinger.files.wordpress.com/2007/09/david-zinger.jpgsimplest yet most significant thing you can do to advance employee engagement.

**Engage the clutch.** My experience with the majority of leaders in organizations is that they respond to the full slate of demands with an excess of engagement and hours worked. We must regularly engage the clutch and go to neutral. Engaged leaders also find time for rest,
Leadership and managers place a key role, not only by the work environment of which they create but also by the way they lead. If managers and leaders do not want women to rise through the ranks, then, they won't allow them to. It is as simple as that. The leaders have the power to make or break a person's career, whether right or wrong, they hold the power. Depending on the character of those in charge largely depends on the integrity of the promotions system and the decisions made that affect employees in the organization and the organization’s business growth and revenue.

CONCLUSIONS/RECOMMENDATIONS

In today’s fast paced workplace, we can lose sight of how we interact with employees to foster engagement. The research presented in this paper outlined the three types of employee engagement; engaged, not-engaged, and actively disengaged. The methods and instruments described in this paper are to assist leaders in organizations to implement employee engagement strategies in their own companies to start the employee engagement process. However, this is a beginning and not an end to the complete understanding of the components of job satisfaction that pertains to employee engagement. Future research in employee engagement still needs to be completed in the areas of demographics (i.e., gender, age, culture, race ethnicity) to study if there is an overall engagement component and/or if there are any correlations on employee engagement from demographic characteristics.

According to Development Dimensions International, Inc.’s (DDI); Leadership Forecast 2003 Study, “Engaged” is defined as being involved or being committed to something such as goal or action. Employees feel engaged when they find personal meaning and motivation in their work; receive positive interpersonal support and function in an efficient work environment. An engaged employee feels that he has a stake in the outcome, with the desire to contribute to achieving more than personal goals. Effective leadership is the key to developing and maintaining employee engagement. Leaders need to have an intimate knowledge of where their employees stand in terms of engagement. To ensure and maintain employee engagement, leaders must know what factors influence an employee’s sense of involvement, motivation and commitment to their job and to the organization. Information obtained from employee engagement measures can guide leaders on how to manage an employee’s performance ensuring his growth, commitment and productivity in the organization. Employees with strong leaders are more engaged, satisfied and loyal than those with weak leaders. Leadership skills do not happen by chance. It requires systematic development. Exceptional leaders generate more engaged employees. Exceptional development helps create exceptional leaders (DDI, 2003, p. 1-35).
REFERENCES


PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES AND ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Christine A. Nwuche and O. Awa Hart
University of Port Harcourt, Nigeria

ABSTRACT

Managing the performance of employees is considered important for an organization’s effectiveness. Two models of performance management practice (PMP) namely the traditional “hard performance improvement” and the newer “soft developmental/motivational” frameworks are explored, the study proposing a high incidence of the former. Adopting goal-setting, performance appraisal and rewards as indices of performance management PM, a survey of 10 firms was carried out using a structured questionnaire. Data generated were analyzed using descriptive statistic including percentages and means as well as using test of correlation. Results indicate that all 3 elements of PM are present albeit in different magnitudes. Specifically, goal-setting is not overly participative but set goals are clear and employees are committed to them; performance evaluation is used for training, pay and promotion decisions; and only a moderate association exists between PMP and organizational productivity. We conclude that PM systems in these organizations are dual-focused; that organizational effectiveness may not depend on wholesale employee participation. However, we recommend greater participative PM processes in other to improve productivity and overall organizational effectiveness.

Keywords: Organizational Effectiveness, Participative Performance Management, Goal-Setting, Commitment to Set Goals, Employee Satisfaction, Productivity.

INTRODUCTION

Researchers have suggested that a major task for organizations is the effective management of human resources (Guest et al, 2003). Organizations are faced with the challenge of operating in aggressively competitive landscapes characterized by accelerating changes and the growth expectations of an increasingly well-educated workforce (Guest et al, 2003; Riordan et al, 2005). Although the exact processes for achieving effectiveness in these environment remain unclear, many organizations seek success by, among other strategies, paying attention to the management of employees performance. The hope is to achieve organizational goals through the improvement of individual and organizational performance.
Traditionally, the interaction between the ability and motivation of the individual was seen as key to effective performance and, the management of employees’ performance centered on evaluating their behaviours and outcomes and allocating rewards (Grobler et al, 2006; Torrington et al; 2008). In this regime, assessment is almost unilaterally carried out by managers, the essence being to review employee performance so as to determine the extent to which the individual conformed to expectations. Allocation of rewards serves to take care of the motivation of employees. The traditional system described as a ‘harder’ performance improvement approach, appears to be control-driven, backward-looking, focused on historic performance and do little to improve future performance of employees (Torrington et al, 2008).

More recently, the management of performance in organizations has adopted a more future–oriented strategic focus. The desire is to design Performance Management (PM) systems that enable the achievement of business goals in a hypercompetitive world. The interest is in finding ways of getting all employees involved in implementation of strategic goals so as to maximize current performance and enhance future potentials (Grobler et al, 2006; Lucas et al, 2008). In effect, current focus is to establish a ‘softer’ developmental and motivational framework in which employees’ performance can be directed, monitored, motivated and refined, and which effectively aligns individual and organizational needs (Houldsworth, 2004; Clark 2005; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2008).

When such alignment occurs, employees are expected to be more satisfied and committed to the organization and willing to work towards the achievement of its goals. However, while some analysts point to current trend towards a more developmental framework which targets high performance and autonomous working (Marchington & Wilkinson, 2008), others suggest the persistence of ‘harder’ performance improvement approach (Grobler et al, 2005; Redman, 2006).

Evidently, there appears to be abundant literature on the nature, content and processes of PM. But, much of this emanates from foreign research studies. So, in this article, we seek to examine the nature and content of PM in a cross section of Nigerian firms. We explore whether the focus of PM in these organizations is more developmental than control driven or vice versa. A recent Nigerian study specifically explored participative goal-setting in the rubber industry and reported outcomes as including the creation of ‘work environment that promotes employee commitment, motivation and the attainment of increased productivity goals of the organization’ (Akpan, 2010, p. 37). Aside from this, we are not aware of any studies that have assessed the quality of PM practices in this clime, nor of any analysis on the relationship between PM and organizational effectiveness, defined by improved organizational productivity, developing the capacities of personnel, employee commitment to set goals and persistence of effort; and employees satisfaction with the organization. We propose a higher incidence of the ‘harder performance improvement’ model and that organizational effectiveness is dependent on the extent to which PM practices are participative.
With due consideration to the above discussions, the following hypotheses are raised.

**Ho**₁: There is no association between use of participative performance management practices and employee satisfaction with the organization.

**Ho**₂: The use of performance management practices will not be associated with commitment to set goals and persistence of effort.

**Ho**₃: The use of performance management practices will not be associated with developing the capacities of personnel.

**Ho**₄: Participative goal-setting and appraisal processes will not be associated with organizational productivity.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**The Concept of Performance Management**

At the organizational level, performance has been defined as the ability to attain goals by efficiently using available resources (Daft, 1995) while at the individual level, it could be seen as ‘a record of a person’s accomplishments’ (Armstrong, 2001, p. 468). Whereas economists recognize the role of ability in performance, psychologists point to variables like personality, the need for achievement and self-esteem (Perkins & White, 2008, p. 162). However, Armstrong (2001) posits that performance is better defined as involving both behaviour and outcome. From the premise that behaviour could be seen as outcomes; is attendant to ability; and that the employee can exercise control over it, performance could be taken as behaviour.

Hence, PM could be perceived as concerning the management of behaviour of workpeople. It is an element of organization design concerned with how work can be organized so that the organization functions effectively in its environment to achieve its long-term goals (Armstrong, 2001; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2009). Storey and Sisson (1993, p. 132) see PM as ‘an interlocking set of policies and practices which focus on the enhanced achievement of organizational objectives through a concentration on individual performance’. For Lucas et al (2008, p. 174) PM is concerned with how work people are ‘managed and developed to improve their performance and ultimately to maximize their contribution to the organization’.

PM practices grew out of ‘the realization that a more continuous and integrated approach was needed to manage and reward performance’ and it is a partnership which ‘focuses on future performance planning and improvement rather than on retrospective performance appraisal (Armstrong, 2001, p. 473). That is, in PM, both the manager and the managed share responsibility and are jointly accountable for results. The parties agree on what needs to be done, how to achieve it, and together monitor performance and take corrective action when need be.
Recognizing PM as occurring in a wider organizational context, Cummings and Worley (2005) describe it as an integrated process of defining, assessing and reinforcing employee behaviour which seeks to align employees' work behaviour with business strategy, employee involvement and workplace technology. In effect, organizational success is expected to be achieved through a strategic and integrated approach to improving performance and developing the capabilities of individuals and work teams (Armstrong & Baron, 2005).

Houldsworth (2004) identifies two strands of Performance Management – one is the ‘hard’ variety oriented towards ‘performance improvement’ and the other is a ‘softer’ more forward-looking and developmental strand. The ‘hard’ approach, which appears to coincide with traditional performance appraisal, is measurement-focused, judgmental and control-oriented affording managers opportunity to assess, get more out of employees, allocate reward, or indeed dispense with employees who ‘fail’ (Goss, 1994; Redman, 2006; Torrington et al, 2008). Redman (2006) notes that control seems to be the underlying aim of the hard approach. Here, the ‘obsession with measurement, control and rationality’ (Beardwell & Holden, 1997, p. 597) results in employees having to operate within varied organizational constraints and therefore may not really be able to improve their actual performance to any great extent unless there are changes in the work system.

The soft, developmental PM approach, on the other hand, is more strategic and integrative. It is motivational, encourages two-way communication and is an opportunity to align roles and training with business needs’ (Torrington et al, 2008, p. 298). For Marchington and Wilkinson (2009, p. 264), it seeks to ensure that ‘employees understand not only the nature of their tasks but also how these fit into broader organizational culture’. Lucas and his colleagues (2008, pp. 174-175) elaborately identify the principles underlying this approach. They agree that developmental PM approach is a strategic process aligned to the long-term direction of the organization. It is integrative in so far as it aligns organizational objectives with those of organization members. Thus there is shared understanding, continuing dialogue and agreement between the manager and the managed. For them, its concern with performance enhancement ensures that employees efforts are goal-directed and the development of their capabilities are actively supported by line management who own and drive the approach.

Hence, in this approach, managers are more supportive than dictatorial, encouraging frequent dialogue about performance and developmental needs as well as reward outcomes (Armstrong, 2001; Houldsworth, 2004). In all, the model seems focused on developing rather than assessing and control of work people.

Apparently embracing the softer developmental model, Storey and Sisson (1993, p. 132) had identified ‘three critical elements’ of PM as objective setting, formal monitoring and review of progress and follow-through. These elements they emphasis ‘constitute the heart of the concept’. In a similar vein, Cummings and Worley (2005) see PM as including goal-setting, performance appraisal and reward systems. They believe these practices jointly influence the performance of individuals and work groups. As they elaborate:
'goal-setting specifies the kinds of performances that are desired; performance appraisal assesses those outcomes; reward systems provide the reinforcers to ensure that desired outcomes are repeated' (2005, p. 368).

It is expected that in goal-setting, managers and employees jointly define work behaviours and outcomes such that the duties and responsibilities of job holders are made clear and are supportive of strategic goals. Participation in setting goals would ‘convince employees that the goals are achievable and can increase their commitment to achieving them’ Cumming and Worley (2005, p. 369).

Performance appraisal is also expected to be a joint effort where in individual performance assumes a strategic importance. Whilst seeking to balance individual and organizational needs, appraisal here enables a review of performance against set goals (Redman, 2006; Lucas et al, 2008) providing performance feedback useful both for developmental purposes as well as for linking goals and rewards. In this, there seems to be a shift away: from mechanistic and depersonalized behavioural task assessment towards joint problem-solving; from secret and confidential appraisal schemes towards openness; and from recording of information towards provision of open and constructive feedback (Goss, 1994, p. 55). Actively involving employees in appraisal increases their acceptance and understanding of the feedback process.

Lastly, the reward systems, with intrinsic and extrinsic elements, should elicit and reinforce desired work behaviour and outcomes. PM is goal-driven and the achievement of set goals is often expected to attract reward. The relevance of the reward system in performance management lies in the point that people will do things that fetch them reward. It is notable that by its nature, ‘soft’ performance management is imbued with extrinsic, non-financial rewards. Training to support identified developmental needs, career guidance, praise and recognition for achievement are all attendant to a properly conducted performance review (Lucas et al, 2008).

However, while there appears to be a general recognition of both goal-setting and performance appraisal/review as key elements in PM, this is less so for reward system. For instance, Lucas et al (2008, p. 176) observe that ‘performance management models place objective-setting and formal appraisal systems at the centre’. Also, in listing what he labels as principles of Performance Management, Armstrong (2001, p. 470) is clear that Performance Management ‘is not primarily concerned with linking performance to financial reward’. In addition, management may opt for hard performance management practices wherein goals may be assigned to employees rather than jointly determined and the appraisal process may be non-participative and devoid of direct feedback.

Given this possibility of variations in practices, research exploring the nature and content of PM in Nigerian firms was undertaken. Recognizing the potential influence of culture on practices (Lucas et al, 2008) we seek to assess the extent to which practices are participative, control-
development oriented. In addition, we attempt to ascertain the possible implication of this for organizational effectiveness.

Organizational effectiveness

Organizational effectiveness concerns an organization’s ability to meet its objectives which for many private sector businesses means ‘a sustained period of commercial success vis-à-vis principal competitors’ (Torrington et al, 2008, p. 16). That is, an ineffective organization ‘fails to reach goals that sustain the company’s competitive advantage’ (Gomez-Mejia et al, 2008, p. 7). On the other hand, an effective organization, among other things, ‘creates a culture that promotes commitment’ (Armstrong, 2001, p. 258), and has ‘robust systems for the development of the skills and knowledge’ (Torrington et al, 2008, p. 16). For Fajana (2006) indices for organizational effectiveness include measures of productivity, profitability, turnover, employee stability, team working spirit etc.

In their model of organizational effectiveness, Field and House (1995) identify a number of effectiveness criteria among which are accomplishment of set goals, developing the capacities of personnel and achieving at least minimal satisfaction of employees.

METHODOLOGY, FINDINGS, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The data for the study came from a survey of 10 organizations that cut across industry sectors namely financial services, manufacturing, public utility and construction, all located in Port Harcourt, Nigeria. A total of 250 copies of the questionnaire were distributed, 25 copies in each organization, administered to managerial level employees across functions. The spread across functions rather than restriction to HR was informed by the view that all line managers necessarily need to actively participate in the process. 127 copies of the completed questionnaire were received out of which 111 copies were useable. This represents a response rate of approx. 51% of employees originally contacted.

Items were designed to enable evaluation of the PM practices by employees in the participating organizations. From a review of the literature, we identified a range of variables to account for both the existence and content of the practice as well as some criteria for organizational effectiveness. All measures were based on a 4-point Likert-type scale which ranged from Strongly Agree (4) to strongly disagree (1).

Three variables were used to operationalize PM namely goal setting, performance appraisal and employee rewards. The interest to assess whether practices are development-or control-oriented led us to pursue different lines of enquiry. With regard to setting goals, we explore: (a) the extent to which goal-setting is participative; (b) goal clarity; (c) agreement and clarity concerning the skills and competencies needed to deliver results; and (d) opportunities for individuals to plan and develop their knowledge, skills and competences.
Assessment of performance appraisal used the following: (i) ‘the performance management system in organization clearly specifies the criteria for measuring performance’; (ii) ‘individuals receive clear feedback on their performance’; (iii) ‘In my organization, performance reviews are conducted periodically to determine achievements, progress and problems’; (iv) ‘performance reviews in my organization involves open, free and frank exchange of views about areas of strength and weakness’.

Further, 2 items used to assess the reward dimension include: ‘my organization uses performance evaluation for pay and promotion decisions’ and ‘my organization uses performance evaluation to determine training and development needs’.

Indices for organizational effectiveness used in the study are ‘commitment to set goals and persistence of effort satisfaction with the organization; developing the capacity of personnel; and increase in organizational productivity. Most of these variables are not amenable to direct measurement and we did not seek more sophisticated measures other than rely solely on respondents perceptions. Items used for evaluation include: ‘employees are committed to set goals and persist in effort to achieve them’; involving employees in performance management activities improves their satisfaction with the organization’; and ‘the performance management activities in my organization increases organizational productivity.

The percentages of responses on questionnaire items are presented in Table 1 (available upon request). As the table shows, over half of respondents (56%) disagree or strongly disagree that employees participate in setting work goals. On the other hand, 95% agree or strongly agree that set goals are clear. In effect, many respondents who deny involvement in setting work goals still accept clarity of set goals. As many as 86% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that needed skills and competencies requirements are made clear and so also is there significant agreement (62%) that opportunities are provided individuals to plan and develop these required skills and competencies.

Over half (74%) of respondents agree that they receive clear feedback on their performance; 72% that performance reviews are conducted periodically to highlight achievement, progress and problems; 66% that their organization use performance evaluation to determine training and development needs; and an equally significant percentage of respondents (65%) agree or strongly agree that performance evaluation is used for pay and promotion decisions.

With regard to the effectiveness measures used, only 21% disagree or strongly disagree that employees are committed to set goals and persist in effort of achieve them while the rest (79%) affirm the statement. Furthermore, 67% of respondents strongly agree or agree that involving employees in performance management activities improved their satisfaction with the organization; and 79% strongly agree or agree that the use of performance management practices enhance productivity in their organization.
Table 2 (available upon request) presents the mean scores of the respondents’ perceptions on the study variables. As is evident, aside from employee participation in setting work goals which is below average (2.41) all other measures are above the average, the highest (3.33) being the perception that set goals are clear. In between these two mean scores lie results of perceptions that opportunities are provided individuals to develop required skills and competencies (2.86); employees get feedback on performance (2.90); performance evaluation is used to determine training and development needs (2.89) as well used for pay and promotion decisions (2.91).

Tables 3 to 6 (available upon request) present the correlations for the variables in the study. Specifically, the relationship between the simple summation of various PMP scores and distinct effectiveness measures are assessed. Hypothesis 1 (H01) proposed that there is no association between the use of participative performance management practices (PAPMP) and employee satisfaction. The results do not support the hypothesis. As table 3 shows, there is a strong association between the variables under study in view of a correlation coefficient of 0.852 and the p-value (0.049) which is less than 0.05 level of significance for a two-tailed test.

Table 4 (available upon request) shows the result of tests to assess the association between the use of PMP and commitment to set goals and persistence of effort. A correlation coefficient of 0.857 suggests a strong association and the p-value (0.043), less than 0.05 level of significance for a two-tailed test, indicates a significant association. Thus, the null hypothesis (H02) which proposed that the use of PMP will not be associated with commitment to set goals and persistence of effort is rejected.

The result in table 5 (available upon request) presents a similar picture. Evidenced here is a very strong association between the use of PMP and developing the skills and knowledge of employees. With a correlation coefficient of 0.983 and p-value (0.017) less than 0.05 level of significance for a two-tailed test, the null hypothesis (H03) which states that the use of PMP will not be associated with developing the skills and knowledge of employees is rejected.

The findings from the test of hypothesis 4 (H04) which proposed that participative goal setting and appraisal process will not be associated with organizational productivity are presented in Table 6. (available upon request) Shown here is a correlation coefficient of 0.649 and a p-value of 0.05. Although the hypothesis is rejected, these values imply that only a moderate association exists between participative goal setting/appraisal processes and organizational productivity.

The study did not set out to evaluate the PM process as it were but rather to identify what there is and the relationship between this and organizational effectiveness as measured. There is support for the idea that participative performance management system is associated with organizational effectiveness. Our expectation of a high incidence of ‘hard performance improvement’ PM is not supported by the research results. On the evidence of the study, all
three elements of PM suggested by Cumming and Worley (2005) are present albeit to different magnitudes.

With regard to goal setting, it appears the premium is not so much on employee participation in the exercise as it is on setting clear and acceptable goals. The focus seems to be more on getting employees involved in goal implementation rather than setting goals. Cultural bias may be at play here. Perhaps, cultural idiosyncrasy makes it possible that employee participation in setting work goals would not be a necessary condition for new model PM (i.e. softer developmental focus,) as western literature suggests. This is in consonance with Hofstede's (1980) family categorization (to which West Africa including Nigeria belongs) wherein the boss is like a father, in an extended family, to whom problems are constantly referred. Previous studies (e.g. Oladunni 1998; Nwuche, 2010) have shown that in many Nigeria organizations generally, the manager is the boss who sets goals that provide direction for work.

Although many deny involvement in goal setting, results suggest that employees are committed to set goals and persist in effort to achieve them. Perhaps set goals are more acceptable because of the perception that the needs of employees are taken into cognizance. In effect achievement of organizational effectiveness may not really depend on wholesale employee participation. The strong association between PM practices and commitment to set goals may owe much to the other elements of PM. Similarly, the rather moderate association between participative goals setting/appraisal processes and organizational productivity as the results show could be explained by the low involvement in the goal setting activity. Perhaps there would have been a stronger association between the variables as with Akpan’s (2010) rubber industry study if goal setting was more participative.

A fundamental consideration is the evidence that nearly half (48%) of respondents disagree that performance reviews are open, free and frank and used to define areas of strength and weakness. It is therefore quite probable that management engage in these exchanges but go ahead to decide what it thinks is best for the organization. Quite possibly, management engage in dialogue essentially to ensure that employees understand what is expected of them. Hence, training and development decisions in these organizations may not really be made on a collective basis. Developing skills and knowledge of personnel may be in areas management deems fit.

Real evidence of developmental performance management lies in the significant proportion of respondents who affirm: (a) the existence of opportunities to plan and develop knowledge, skills and competencies, (b) open, free and frank exchanges at performance reviews which highlight achievements, progress and problems; and (c) that the organizations engage in evaluation which determine training and development needs. In engaging in open, free and frank exchanges, it appears the organizations understand that ‘performance expectations need to be understood and where possible to involve a contribution from the employees’ (Torrington et al. 2008, p. 301). Besides, what is also apparent from the results and which is also in consonance with Armstrong’s (2001) view is that managers seem to be more supportive than
dictatorial. In addition, appraisal schemes are not carried out unilaterally by managers; they are less secretive and confidential providing more open and constructive feedback. These attributes are in Tandem with Goss’s (1994) view on ‘soft’ PM system.

CONCLUSION, LIMITATION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is difficult to say that what is practiced is not the softer, developmental PM framework simply because employees do not appear to participate sufficiently in setting work goals and nearly half disown free and frank exchanges. In so far as the PM process seeks to balance organizational and employee needs; set goals are largely clear; some opportunities are provided individuals to develop required skills and competencies; employees receive feedback on performance; and performance evaluation is used to determine training and development needs, one may be tempted to conclude that interest is in ‘the softer developmental’ rather than ‘the improvement’ approach. However, this conclusion becomes somewhat shaky when considered alongside the fact that results also show that organizations equally use performance evaluation for pay and promotion decisions. On the evidence from the study, what appears to be a more plausible conclusion is that PM systems in these organizations have dual focused-development and improvement. The former refers to a more future-oriented focus which gives attention to knowledge and skill development for the enhancement of future potentials while the latter refers to the control-oriented reward allocation focus. This is consistent with Torrington and colleagues (2008, p. 298) observation in relation to the UK that ‘it appears many organizations are trying to achieve both development and reward outcomes’.

Before considering the implication of the results for management practice we need to acknowledge inherent imperfections and limitations of the methodology and the results. First, the adoption of convenience sampling of organizations and managers as was the case in the study may have introduced some bias which may be damaging to the validity of descriptive results (Fenton-O’ Creevy, 2001). Secondly, while the relatively high response rate may cushion the effect of systematic bias, we also agree with Fenton-O’Creevy(2001) that using a single questionnaire to collect perceptual data on both dependent and independent variable may itself account for some degree of correlation, suggesting therefore a sense in discountenancing small correlation between variables. However, the level of correlation between most of the tested variables were sufficiently high, hence the influence of common method variance is limited. Thirdly, there is a limitation deriving from the cross-sectional nature of the study which limits the conclusion we can draw in terms of causality. Besides, the study restricts itself to exploring associations and ignored examining the effects of mediator variables. Organizational factors other than PM could possibly influence the study variables. It is also notable that by spreading sampling across sectors, we are unable to control for industry effects. Further research is needed to investigate whether practices vary across industry and whether the positive associations between performance management practices and organizational effectiveness are moderated by industry type.
These limitations notwithstanding, we believe the measures remain useful indicators of employee perceptions of PM effects and that the study, overall, provides empirical support for association between performance management practices and organizational effectiveness. Hence, we consider some implications for management practice. First is the significant association between use of participative performance management practices and employee satisfaction with the organization. This suggests the need for managers to engage more in participative goal setting, an aspect they seem deficient in. It demands a lot of compromise from managers who may consider the strategy as amounting to relinquishing of their prerogative or who may indeed perceive employees as incapable of the activity. Relatedly is the need for management training to acquire the skills, knowledge and competencies required of managers in order to optimize the management of employees’ performance. Further, achieving employee satisfaction in this regard may depend on the options of PM practiced. It may require consultation which different groups of employees to ascertain what practice emphasis-developmental and/or improvement options would enhance satisfaction. Perhaps younger employees may be better satisfied with a more developmental focus rather than with the improvement focus or even a certain mix of both. However, it does seem plausible to suggest that developmental strand of PM which entails long term management commitment and incorporates provision of adequate resources is more likely to be effective in the achievement of employee satisfaction with the organization and commitment to set goals.

In addition, given the strong association between performance management practices and organizational effectiveness, there is the need for more indepth studies in order to hopefully unearth the aspects or combination of aspects of practices that actually engender positive outcomes. Practices which place a premium on employee training and development opportunities may improve perceived organization support and, coupled with open, frank exchanges as well as giving cognizance to employee needs generally may well hold an important key for commitment to set goals and satisfaction with the organization.

REFERENCES


EMPLOYMENT DISTRIBUTION IN THE MOST COMPETITIVE BUSINESS SECTORS FOR THE TOP 500 U.S. COMPANIES ON 2012

Rolando Pena-Sanchez
Texas A&M International University, USA

ABSTRACT

This paper describes the number of employees in the most competitive business sectors in terms of rankings (achieved through the 3-year % revenue-growth rate) for the top 500 U.S. companies on 2012; which have been classified in 25 business sectors; we decided to compare the 3-year % revenue-growth rates, because these indexes indicate if the demands for the company’s products are strong and growing; moreover, the revenue (in millions of dollars) for each business sector were included in this analysis, since during the recent years many companies have been using such revenue as one of their competitive tools, which have become a central element of the strategic management process. A nonparametric correlation method (named Spearman’s rank correlation) was selected (whose justification is explained) to estimate the correlation coefficients (p-value<0.05). The service segment "Media" is presented as the most competitive business sector, which includes a group of 10 companies; heading the list by Facebook with revenue of $3,700 million.

Keywords: Number of Employees, Business Sector, Revenue, Growth Rate, Spearman’s Rank Correlation

INTRODUCTION

The productivity and competitiveness of all type of organizations depend on their efficiency, effectiveness, and quality. About the 25 business sectors included in this report the majority belongs to the service sector; also called the tertiary sector, which is one of the three parts of the economy in the Three-sector hypothesis. This hypothesis breaks down the different economic sectors into three parts, so we can better understand them and how each one works. The other two sectors are the primary (mining, fishing, etc.), and the secondary (manufacturing) sectors.

The service sector is the one in charge of producing intangible goods or items that cannot be held in your hand. Activities in the service sector include retail, banks, hotels, real estate, education (Kirschner 2001), health, social work, transport, computer services (Jones 2002),
recreation, media (Hilton 1999), communications (Steen 2006), electricity, gas and water supply.

Output in manufacturing is measured by quantity units and is more successful by increasing the amount of “standardized” production; whose advantages are described in the following section. On the other hand, service sector output usually has no high values by the aspect of quantity; therefore it is increased by providing higher quality to customers and overall seeking customer satisfaction.

Many people think of quality as some level of superiority or innate excellence; others view it as a lack of manufacturing defects (Krajewski 2010). The official definition of “quality”, standardized by the American National Standards Institute (ANSI) and the American Society for Quality Control (ASQC) in 1978, is "the totality of features and characteristics of a product or service that bears on its ability to satisfy given needs"; meanwhile "competitiveness" is defined as a 'company's ability to provide goods and services at least as effectively and efficiently, if not more so, than the relevant competitors'; its measures include profitability, the extent to which a firm exports, and market share in domestic and international markets. Thus, productivity, quality and competitiveness can be working synergistically in manufacturing and service sectors.

Productivity is a result of the real process, and productivity gains can be observed during the income distribution process.

**Standardization**

Extent to which there is an absence of variety and/or variation in a product, service, or process; products are made in large quantities of identical items. Every customer or item processed receives essentially the same service.

The standardization process can be instructed through interactive software (Pena-Sanchez 2009); the major objective of interactive software is to provide to the learners with an understanding of how to interpret results, and how to solve problems as applied to scenarios of standardization. In general, the selected software should run in different modes: First, using the instruct mode, the user gain an understanding of the technique and/or methodology. Second, using the practice mode, the participant gains the mastery of the technique with hints and help available to assist his/her training. Third, using the certify mode, the user are required to obtain his/her certificate indicating mastery of the topic without help or hints. At the end of a time-period of training, the employee will be credited for each certificate earned. The total credit will be equal to a specific percentage with each certificate carrying a specific weight.
Advantages and disadvantages of standardization

Advantages
1. Fewer parts to deal with in inventory and in manufacturing
2. Reduced training costs and time.
3. More routine purchasing, handling, and inspection procedures.
4. Orders fill-able from inventory.
5. Opportunities for long production runs and automation.
6. Need for fewer parts justifies expenditures on perfecting designs and improving quality control procedures.

Disadvantages
1. Designs may be frozen with too many imperfections remaining.
2. High cost of design changes increases resistance to improvements
3. Decreased variety results in less consumer appeal

Service and manufacturing industry sectors

The service sector industry has been recognized by many organizations as a very important factor for an increased and better economy. Manufacturing employment was at its peak in the late 1970's, but has since then decreased up until 2012. The manufacturing productivity has increased in the United States, as more manufacturing capacity and output has been achieved efficiently with a smaller work force. Employment in the U.S.-based service sector has increased compared to the manufacturing sector. But gains in the service sector have been decreasingly lower. When gains in the service sector decrease: the living situation of many people in different countries decreases as well. Japan and Germany, who both are major industrial countries, are experiencing this situation.

The importance of productivity management in the service industries is a relevant topic when it comes to the global economy. The gains of increased productivity are diverse. At the national level, productivity growth raises living standards because more real income improves an individual's ability to purchase goods and services, enjoy leisure, improve housing and education and contribute to social and environmental programs. Productivity growth is important to a firm because more real income means that the firm can meet its growing obligations to customers, suppliers, workers, shareholders, and governments, and still remain or improve competitive advantage. There is a clear difference between effectiveness and productivity. Effectiveness is the ability of the organization (Sitkin 1992) to attain its objectives, while productivity concerns the relationship between outputs and inputs. Increasing productivity is not a sufficient condition for enhancing an organization's effectiveness. Productivity may be increased at the cost of effectiveness in meeting the goals set for any organization.

Economic well-being is the result of a good production process; there can be difficulties when trying to achieve productivity. Countries may often employ a massive amount of foreign workers and this can lead to decreased productivity. Such is the case of Singapore. A recent
research revealed that "growth in Total Factor Productivity (TFP) was attributed to technical change with no improvement in efficiency change. Such results suggest that gains from TFP were input-driven rather than from a 'best-practice' approach such as improvements in operations (Pohlen 2005) or better resource allocation" (Lee 2013). There have been several productivity studies on Singapore at the national service sector level; but, has not been any officially published productivity study on Singapore’s service sector since 2000. The decrease of Singapore’s service sector productivity is related to the employment of a large quantity of foreign workers. This example is only related to Singapore’s service sector (Maclean 1996), but can be applied to many other countries, including the United States of America.

Manufacturing jobs are jobs that involve the production of physical objects. Manufacturing jobs consist of mechanical and craftsman work, laboratory production in chemicals & petro-chemicals, also pharmaceuticals and bio-pharmaceuticals, food processing, electric and electronic jobs, etc. Manufacturing can occur in factories; mass production, one of the drivers of the boom in industrial manufacturing, often including assembly lines with specialized tasks to produce complex items (computer servers, air-planes, jets, etc.)

Service Sector jobs have a much broader function. The service sector is defined by the U.S. Department of Labor as including workers as varied as health care employees, educators, financial advisors, restaurant employees, hair-stylists and even performers like musicians and actors. Essentially, service sector jobs can involve working with objects or with people.

OBJECTIVE
The main objective of this article is to evaluate the statistical relationships between the three variables: 3 year % growth rate, revenue (million $), and the number of employees per company; based on the 2012 annual data of the top 500 U.S.-companies.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES
There is a significant correlation between at least two out of the three variables: 3 year % growth rate ($x_1$), revenue (million$) ($x_2$) and the number of employees per company ($x_3$):

\[
H_{1,1}: \rho_{1,2} \neq 0 \tag{1}
\]
\[
H_{1,2}: \rho_{1,3} \neq 0 \tag{2}
\]
\[
H_{1,3}: \rho_{2,3} \neq 0 \tag{3}
\]

Thus, the correspondent null hypotheses can be specified as

\[
H_{0,1}: \rho_{1,2} = 0 \tag{4}
\]
\[
H_{0,2}: \rho_{1,3} = 0 \tag{5}
\]
\[
H_{0,3}: \rho_{2,3} = 0 \tag{6}
\]
DATA, METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

A sample of the top 500 U.S.-Companies (http://www.inc.com/inc5000/list/2012) was used for this research.

In order to use the correlations analysis through the Pearson Correlation Coefficient (Hair 1998), which is a parametric technique (Cooper and Schindler 2008), the 'response' variable must be linearly related (Mood 1974) with the independent variable for each population. In other words, the correlation coefficients assume the relation can be described with a straight line. The most direct way to explore linearity is to review the scatter plot (Figure 1), where we can perceive the lack of linearity between the variables revenue and the number of employees per business sector. Inferential methods require that the joint distribution of the two variables must be bivariate normal.

![Scatter Plot for the Variables: Revenue and the Number of Employees](image)

**Figure 1:** Scatter Plot for the Variables: Revenue and the Number of Employees

A scatter diagram (one of the basic seven statistical tools) displays each observed data pair \((x_i, y_i)\) as a dot on an X/Y grid, indicating visually the strength of the relationship between the two variables. This statistical tool gives the researcher some ideas about the form of the functional relationship between the variable \(X\) and the variable \(Y\).

In order to avoid any risk imposed by the parametric techniques if their assumptions are not valid, we decided to use a nonparametric statistical method to test the null hypotheses; the
Employment Distribution in the Most Competitive Business Sectors for the Top 500 U.S. Companies on 2012 analysis was developed through the Spearman's rank correlation test (Conover, 1999); and the results are shown in Table 3.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for the Number of Employees per Business sector

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Business Sector</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food &amp; Beverage</td>
<td>389.09</td>
<td>483.907</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>995.728</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>197.7</td>
<td>461.358</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Services</td>
<td>162.11</td>
<td>302.923</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>154.83</td>
<td>219.495</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Hardware</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>170.097</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>127.89</td>
<td>264.49</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Services</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>153.812</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Services</td>
<td>121.16</td>
<td>173.909</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Products &amp; Services</td>
<td>108.06</td>
<td>169.34</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telecommunications</td>
<td>105.92</td>
<td>165.71</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real Estate</td>
<td>101.62</td>
<td>175.51</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy</td>
<td>96.91</td>
<td>108.567</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Software</td>
<td>90.4</td>
<td>85.253</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT Services</td>
<td>57.59</td>
<td>68.289</td>
<td>58</td>
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<tr>
<td>Insurance</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>25.77</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer Products &amp; Services</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>72.791</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertising &amp; Marketing</td>
<td>49.67</td>
<td>49.849</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail</td>
<td>39.42</td>
<td>48.554</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logistics &amp; Transportation</td>
<td>39.36</td>
<td>38.378</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>2.828</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>21.56</td>
<td>12.401</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resources</td>
<td>19.29</td>
<td>12.107</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>18.82</td>
<td>9.914</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel &amp; Hospitality</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.828</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>96.41</strong></td>
<td><strong>223.155</strong></td>
<td><strong>500</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for the Revenue (in million $) per Business sector

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Business Sector</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Media</td>
<td>380.57</td>
<td>1166.36</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food &amp; Beverage</td>
<td>90.02</td>
<td>182.11</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy</td>
<td>82.65</td>
<td>177.48</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telecommunications</td>
<td>42.55</td>
<td>60.54</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>39.40</td>
<td>72.34</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Hardware</td>
<td>37.10</td>
<td>47.52</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Services</td>
<td>33.13</td>
<td>58.37</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>32.34</td>
<td>44.92</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer Products &amp; Services</td>
<td>32.31</td>
<td>62.71</td>
<td>35</td>
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<tr>
<td>Environmental Services</td>
<td>32.17</td>
<td>48.59</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Products &amp; Services</td>
<td>27.28</td>
<td>64.04</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Services</td>
<td>20.71</td>
<td>20.86</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resources</td>
<td>18.30</td>
<td>29.65</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT Services</td>
<td>17.03</td>
<td>24.03</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logistics &amp; Transportation</td>
<td>16.35</td>
<td>17.75</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>14.70</td>
<td>22.30</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real Estate</td>
<td>14.39</td>
<td>13.02</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertising &amp; Marketing</td>
<td>13.42</td>
<td>18.95</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>12.69</td>
<td>17.43</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insurance</td>
<td>12.34</td>
<td>16.49</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Software</td>
<td>12.30</td>
<td>12.12</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>11.08</td>
<td>10.15</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail</td>
<td>10.26</td>
<td>8.07</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel &amp; Hospitality</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31.4896</td>
<td>174.9228</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tables 1 and 2 show descriptive statistics for the 500 companies grouped in 25 business sectors, whose sub-sample sizes (n) are shown in the last column.

Moreover, the business sector **Media** has been integrated by 10 companies: {Facebook (Crews 2012), Livestream, Refinery29, Gravitas Ventures, Footage Firm, Total Beauty Media Group, BiblioLabs, Business Insider, Z Squared Media, Thrillist Media Group}, whose more important member in terms of revenue is **Facebook** with $3,700 million.

![Table 3: Spearman’s Rank Correlations Matrix (Coefficient // Sig. (2-tailed) // n)](attachment:table3.png)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>3 year % Growth Rate</th>
<th>Revenue (million$)</th>
<th>Number of Employees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 year % Growth Rate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.149**</td>
<td>0.103*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>500</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revenue (million$)</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.520**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Employees</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)  
**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Figures 2 and 3 are graphical representations of the mean estimates on Tables 1 and 2 respectively through the 25 business sectors; meanwhile, Figure 4 represents a graphical view of the Confidence Intervals of 95% for the average number of employees across the 25 business sectors.
Figure 2: Mean of revenue (Million $) per Business sector

Figure 3: Mean of the Number of Employees per Business sector
The two factors in varied market turbulence that can help to identify the most competitive business sectors are the more recent 3 year % revenue-growth rate and the last-year revenue (million $).

On Table 2, the data-set Inc.com (2012) permits to identify what business sectors are associated to the high significant revenues; for example, the business sector with the highest average revenue is "Media", and such sector has been conformed by the 10 companies: {Facebook, Livestream, Refinery29, Gravitas Ventures, Footage Firm, Total Beauty Media Group, BiblioLabs, Business Insider, Z Squared Media, Thrillist Media Group}. Similarly, Table 1 shows the two business sectors: Food & Beverage and Media with the largest averages on the number of employees.

The first position on Table 2 about the highest average-revenue corresponds to the business sector: Media; but the positions 2nd and 3rd belong to the business sectors: Food & Beverage and Energy respectively.

Our conclusion supported by a nonparametric (Conover, 1999) statistical method through the Spearman's rank correlation test (significant p-values on Table 3) permits the rejection of the
three null hypotheses (H0,1, H0,2 and H0,3); thus, we can conclude that there are significant correlations among the three variables: 3 year % growth rate (x1), revenue (million$) (x2) and the number of employees per company (x3), being the highest correlation (r=0.52, p-value=0.001, n=500) between the revenue (million$) and the number of employees per company.

Here we are taking in account that correlation does not equate with causation. The arriving from statistical relation to a causal relation requires a different framework, like path analysis.

Figure 4 is graphical evidence about the largest employment dispersion in the business sector “Media”, whose leadership is heading by the company: Facebook. The leadership of Facebook is not only because this corporation has a strong competitive culture, but because this company possesses a superior knowledge development.

When measuring productivity (Maclean 1996) and quality levels in manufacturing and/or service sectors, one must pay attention to the various inputs and outputs, as tangible or intangible as they may be. One of the most important factors when it comes to the manufacturing and service sectors is "competitiveness". Thus, investing in the most competitive business sectors greatly supports the quality and productivity as it helps decrease labor intensive activities.

Statistics' tools (Taguchi 1987) such as the Taguchi methodology, and the Six Sigma method can be used to increase quality, productivity and competitiveness for the companies or organizations of all kind of business sectors.

REFERENCES
IMPACT OF PROACTIVE PERSONALITY AND PERFORMANCE GOAL ORIENTATION ON CAREER SATISFACTION WITH MEDIATION OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT: MAJOR TELECOMMUNICATIONS INDUSTRY OF ISLAMABAD, PAKISTAN

Amna Fahim and M. Ali Shahid
Air University, Islamabad

ABSTRACT

Purpose – The rationale of this study is to analyze the effect of proactive personality, performance goal orientation on satisfaction of the career, find the level to which psychological empowerment is recognized by workers and how this effect on satisfaction of the career. Design/methodology/approach The population selected for the goal of evaluation of satisfaction of the career in the telecommunications industry workers affected by the psychological empowerment atmosphere constituted with the personal features of workers in the major telecommunications industry of Islamabad, Pakistan. The choosing shape includes workers working in the companies working with telecom companies. Supporters of population was selected by using probabilistic choosing technique as it is one of those techniques from which each part of the population has the same possibility of being selected. Findings – This research requires the connection and impact of individual features of workers mediated among proactive personality in the firm to see the satisfaction of the career among the workers. As a result of connection research, all the constructs were found significant predictors of career satisfaction. Satisfaction of the career is related to, goal orientation, proactive personality and recognized psychological empowerment and better connection with manager. Psychological empowerment turned out to average the connection between objective orientation, proactive personality and satisfaction of the career. Originality– This paper is unique in that it takes an integrative approach so it investigates proactive personality and goal orientation, which has previously been studied, and has a worldwide sizing, based on the Pakistani social perspective.

Keywords: Proactive Personality, Performance Goal Orientation, Career Satisfaction, Psychological Empowerment

INTRODUCTION

Industries are presently having difficulties to endure in an ever vaster, unpredictable, and global market; it is not amazing that companies rely on workers to maintain an edge against
your competitor. During a period outlined with continuous technical developments, a company’s human capital is often the key ideal component to simply being a proactive opponent and important to being a leader in the industry. Skilled personnel who are prepared and able to perform wider tasks are important for companies to stay competitive and to deal with empowerment full surroundings (Parker, 1998). Two popular principles from divergent advantage points have appeared within business research to explain inspirational causes that enhance a worker action: worker proactive personality (Bateman & Crant, 1993), which is suggested as a constant personal distinction varying, and empowerment (Conger & Kanungo, 1988), which is marketed as a contextual varying or a notion of someone’s business perspective.

Psychological empowerment is undoubtedly related to an individual’s temperament, it is mostly motivated by an individual’s understanding of their work and office (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Some empowerment scientists focus on social-structural aspects, but much of the attention has been placed on psychological aspects. The psychological view of empowerment focuses on a psychological state based on views of meaningfulness, proficiency, self-determination, and impact (Spreitzer, 1995b and Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Both proactive personality and empowerment deal with workers taking control to modify their places of work in a good reputation. Both constructs emphasize the responsibility of “personal control” as a procedure for describing good results (Spreitzer, Kizilos, and Nason, 1997). Finally, in an integrative model of proactive habits (Crant, 2000), proactive personality is seen as an important personal distinction varying that plays a role in someone’s tendency to take effort, but contextual antecedents to proactive habits are similar to empowerment (e.g., situational hints, management support, business culture). Modern companies need versatile workers who go beyond filter process specifications and illustrate individual effort (Hertog and Beischak, 2007). This is predominantly true for careers that are regarded culturally packed in that they require higher levels of cultural connections, cooperation, and possibilities for settlement and synchronization with others within the office (Bing, Davison, and Novicevic, 2009). Firms are becoming progressively decentralized and group focused, culturally packed job actions are growing more and more in companies across a number of sectors. The most imperative modifications in the psychological agreement between companies and people, significances for professions in the twenty-first millennium have significantly modified (Feldman, 2000). Moving main liability for profession development mostly to individual, in last two years profession development has much more significance (Noe, 2002). Sooner or later, most employees in companies develop into progressively enthusiastic about their self-development, i.e., the getting new abilities and capabilities which will lead to ongoing individual development and longtime profession achievements. In most, companies now they see their selves as offering learning possibilities whereas inspired people obtain new capabilities and knowledge this will increase their value in future.

Achievements of career defined as “work-related and affirmative psychological results gathers as end result of someone’s performance experience” (Seibert and Kraimer. 2001). Career satisfaction is generally evaluated as very subjective achievement of profession (Assess et al.,
1995). Important satisfaction predictors of the career are goal specific ecological facilitates and all sources which always provide social and content support for all individual’s objectives (Barnett and Bradley, 2007). Profession achievements are regarded as self directed when psychological achievements are recognized by people rather than a straight line profession improvement in an business structure as it become more difficult for company to recommend one size fir profession routes and developing possibilities (Area, 2002).

These varieties of profession objectives has led to a major move in profession control obligations, from action orchestrated by a central HR division to action planning performed in show with your first manager (Noe, 2002).

**Problem Statement**

While typically a profession was regarded to be confined to experts, or those who innovative through business structure (Barnett and Bradley, 2007), these days in the European lifestyle where the flexibility is high, the phrase, profession, is more generally defined and is generally regarded to be the long phrase series of role-related encounters of people (Hall, 2002). However, in Pakistan where the flexibility is relatively low, the idea of profession is more targeted on inner work industry within a company than exterior work industry. That is, a greater part of workers in Pakistan connects a firm in a beginner after finishing from institutions, ascend the business steps throughout their profession life, and then live and retire from the same company. Therefore, business and supervisory assistance for their profession growth is still critical. Little research has analyzed the antecedents of profession achievements in the worldwide perspective. The purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of personal characteristics (i.e. proactive personality) on employees’ career satisfaction with mediation of psychological empowerment.

**Rationale of study**

The potential efforts of this research lie in its integrative strategy covering both individual and contextual aspects. Little analysis has examined on the impact of genuine empowerment to mediate the impact of these on profession fulfillment. This analysis is one such effort to respond to the needs of indigenous analysis in the worldwide perspective.

**Significance of study**

This research linked character analysis, authority analysis, and profession development analysis. This research found that it takes the multilevel efforts: business stage as well as group stage and individual stage (personalities). The efforts of this study to concept lie in the fact that it took an integrative strategy covering both individual and contextual aspects and was a worldwide research, based on Pakistani social perspective.

This research attempted an integrative strategy. While given and colleagues (Lent, 2004, 2005; and Brown, 2006) suggested a comprehensive social intellectual profession concept model that forecasts how contextual and individual character, intellectual and attitudinal factors
Impact of proactive personality and performance goal orientation on career satisfaction with mediation of psychological empowerment: Major telecommunications industry of Islamabad, Pakistan

predict business fulfillment has been analyzed (Lent et al., 2005). Psychological empowerment has been confirmed to generate fan successful business dedication, performance, and citizenship behavior of organization through believe in the innovator and identification with the leader (Walumbwa et al. 2008, 2010, 2011). Similarly, attitudinal reliability has been confirmed to generate fan performance and business citizenship habits through perceived believe in fulfillment with the innovator, and fan successful business dedication (Palanski and Yammarino 2011; Dineen et al. 2006; Simons et al., 2007).

Objectives of study
Following are the objectives of the study:

To analyze the effect of proactive personality performance of the worker on satisfaction of the career.

To analyze the extent to which psychological empowerment is recognized by workers and how this effect on satisfaction of the career.

To analyze the effect of goal orientation of the worker on satisfaction of the career.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Career Satisfaction
Success of career is determined as affirmative work-related or psychological results or success a person builds up as a result of perform encounters (Judge et al., 1995). Profession success is generally separated into two parts, purpose or external, and very subjective or innate. Objective career success represents straight visible success such as variety of special offers and wage development. Subjective career success represents the person's fulfillment with their career success (Assess et al., 1995), and is generally evaluated with satisfaction or satisfaction of the career (Heslin, 2005). Designs of career success have involved a variety of market, human capital, and inspirational factors have been found to be relevant to career success (Assess et al., 1995; Assess and Bretz, 1994).

In the earlier period, much research on professions has considered the individual as being inactive and intensely influenced by situational factors (Bell and Staw, 1989). However, more recent reports have presumed that personality through certain habits can have a positive change on the surroundings. However, only in the last ten years or so have scientists taken notice of this with regards to learning career success (Seibert et al., 1999). It has been suggested that there is a strong reason to believe that personality factors should be involved on types of career success. Since career success can be seen as the collective result of habits over a quite a while frame, personality is likely to perform a significant part (Seibert et al., 1999). Especially, individuality is likely to perform a bigger part in poor circumstances. To entice and maintain skilled workers, companies need to perform a new helpful, rather than instruction, part in allowing their employees' career success (Baruch, 2006). The literary works
identifies supervisory career support as a key factor affecting employees’ career development. Employees’ professions are likely to be rich by helpful connections with their managers. Research on satisfaction of the career indicates that it is influenced by different variables not only in persons but also in companies. One of the predictors of satisfaction of the career is business studying lifestyle that facilitates employees’ studying and growth in common and profession growth in particular. Employees' satisfaction with their profession growth can be carried out when their objectives and business needs are met. Such a go with between objectives of the company and the individual ensure improved business dedication. As Lee and Bruvold (2003) mentioned, using the inspirational procedures of social exchange concept and the standard of reciprocity, workers who understand better business studying lifestyle may feel a higher satisfaction of the career and illustrate a high dedication level.

**Proactive personality**

Proactive personality is a complicated, multiple-caused build that has important individual and business repercussions (Crant, 2000). It is defined as a perception in someone’s capability to get over restrictions by situational causes and the capability to impact changes in the surroundings (Bateman and Crant, 1993). Proactive people look for possibilities and act on them, show effort, take action, and are chronic in efficiently applying change (Crant, 2000; Bateman and Crant, 1993). Therefore, proactive actions is more crucial than ever because of the modifying personalityistics of perform (Parker, 1998). More specifically, Crant (2000, p. 436) described proactive actions as “taking effort in enhancing current circumstances or creating new one; it includes complicated the position quo rather than passively changing current circumstances”.

Previous research discovered that proactive personality is connected with distal career conclusions such as marketing, wage increase, fulfillment (Seibert et al., 2001), and triumphant job search (Brown et al., 2006). Proactive personality is favorably appropriate to purpose job performance (Crant, 1995), satisfaction of the career and success (Erdogan and Bauer, 2005). Proactive personality influences someone’s capability to modify to ever-changing performs circumstances by taking liability for profession development and the growth of individual systems (Hall and Mirvis, 1995).

In accumulation, proactive temperament estimate broker habits appropriate to profession growth, such as inspiration to learn and involvement in growth. People with a proactive personality usually practice specific habits and cognitions such as profession effort and advancement (Seibert et al., 2001). Lent and Darkish, (2006) stated that forecasts how contextual and individual personality, intellectual and attitudinal factors estimate business fulfillment, Barnett and Bradley (2007) discovered that proactive personality and profession control habits were all favorably appropriate to satisfaction of the career, partly mediated by profession control behaviors:
**H1. Proactive personality has significantly positive impact on career satisfaction**

Frese and Fray (2001) highlight that the international competitors associated with 21 millennium tasks require higher stages of effectiveness and advancement. Given that personal workers differ in their tendency to take activity in an effort to modify their atmosphere (Chan, 2006) proactive personality is believed to be the person feature that describes whether an personal is prepared to act as a good effect (Bateman & Crant, 1993) by interesting in a variety of habits that can range from personal effort, reviews looking for, and taking control. Proactive habits are an individual’s attempt to definitely enhance good modify to their work establishing. Individuals who are extremely engaged and dedicated as separate members to the company with effort and a sense of liability are recognized as proactive workers (Campbell, 2000). Ashford (2008) summarizes proactivity as a process used to actions through expectation, planning, and determined to create an effect. Within the progress of proactive actions, analysts have often wedded the subject of proactivity with the principles of in-role and extra-role habits. Proactive personality is believed to be a substance varying (Hough, 2003), which means it is consists of basic personality that do not all covary and is based in individuals' needs to control and management their atmosphere (Langer, 1983 and White, 1959). In addition, proactive personality has been proven to be associated with need for accomplishment and need for popularity, but not locus of management (Bateman and Crant, 1993).

Proactive people take activity to enhance, rather than adjust to circumstances as they happen (Crant, 2000). It is believed that proactive people are more pleased because they eliminate hurdles that avoid fulfillment, create new ideas, have higher knowing of business state policies, and upgrade their skills (Erdogan and Bauer, 2005). They recognize possibilities for modify and growth, act on those possibilities, and continue to persist in their initiatives until modify has happened. These actions are believed to market higher stages of fulfillment based on their common promotive and flexible features. In support for the linkage to satisfaction, proactive personality has been associated with innate profession success (job and satisfaction of the career)

Bodner et al. (2009) recommend proactive people will make sure you either change the surroundings so that it matches them, or discover a new atmosphere that is more attractive when they end up in a scenario that is displeasing to them. Using this reasoning, they suggested and reinforced meta-analytically that proactive people are likely to experience greater stages of satisfaction of the career Bodner and co-workers found a mean impact size .19, which was considerably different from zero, assisting the connection between proactive personality and satisfaction of career.

**H3. Psychological empowerment significantly mediates between Proactive personality and career satisfaction**
Performance goal orientation

Objective orientation that represents the objectives followed by people in accomplishment situations is a inspirational varying expected to affect the allowance of attempt during studying (Fisher and Honda, 1998). Objective orientation can be described into two categories: studying (task or mastery) orientation as well as (ego/social) orientation. Performance goal orientation represents a desire to show someone’s proficiency to others and to receive good assessments from others. Individuals with good recital goal orientation are interested in indicating process proficiency through getting good and preventing adverse conclusions of proficiency. Thus, such people tend to avoid difficulties, decrease their attempt and determination following failing, and worry adverse assessment by others (Button et al., 1996). Considering performance goal orientation had a good relationship with the comparison objectives (Brett and Vande Walle, 1999) and with psychological fulfillment of work encounters, performance goal orientation may have a good influence on satisfaction of the career of workers when professionals provide appropriate projects and reviews improving the strong points of performance goal orientation. Joo and Park (2010) discovered that performance for goal orientation was considerably associated with contentment of the career, whereas studying goal orientation was discovered to be non-significant. Performance goal-oriented workers are likely to be satisfied with a process that they can easily compare to that of others or from which they can acquire results without additional initiatives. Thus, it is likely that workers with powerful goal orientation are easy to be satisfied with their current profession, as their profession goal could be relatively low. Thus, it is likely that performance goal orientation will favorably influence satisfaction of career.

H2. Performance goal orientation has significantly positive impact on career satisfaction

Empowerment is believed to improve overall business performance under the supposition that employees nearer to the perform situation will have greater possibilities to give rise to business success by indicating upgrades that are not as easily apparent to management (Wilkinson, 1998). Additionally, the need for control systems are required to be significantly reduced which is believed to improve performance (Wilkinson). When employees are inspired it is easier for them to achieve more because they have the resources and they are highly inspired (Kanter, 1979). Energy research has been suggested to assist in companies in working with the battles with the competitive atmosphere that often demands downsizing (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). It is believed to help encourage employees that are depended upon to finish performance of those that have been fired (Brockner and Wiesenfeld, 1993). Structural empowerment can be believed to encourage worker drive, while at the same time offering the sources and assistance necessary to be effective. In theory, growth need durability is a procedure that can describe the connection between job design and quality perform as a result (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Concepts of worker independence and expertise variety that are important for architectural empowerment concepts are arranged with the job features design. Researchers posit that empowerment is effective in improving worker participation, which in turn increases performance (e.g., Bowen and Lawler, 2006; Laschinger, Cho, & Greco, 2009 Kanter, 1979).
Indeed, Kanter (1977) conceptualizes architectural empowerment as the lifestyle of social components in the perform context that allow employees to achieve their performance in significant ways. She claims that employees are inspired to achieve their performance when they have access to necessary information, sources, and assistance and are offered attention to finish projects.

**H4. Psychological Empowerment significantly mediates between performance goal orientation and career satisfaction**

**Psychological Empowerment**

Psychological empowerment is determined as a set of inspirational cognitions formed by a workplace and showing your active orientation to his or her perform part (Spreitzer, 1995). Building on the performance of Johnson and Velthouse (1990), Conger and Kanungo (1988) suggested that four intellectual tests signify an extensive task-specific assessment and presentation that decides innate process inspiration, hence, psychological empowerment. These four tests are significance, proficiency, option, and effect. Briefly, significance represents the value of a process objective or rationale, assessed in regards to your own principles or requirements. It shows innate attention in a process and includes a fit between perform part requirements and someone’s principles and principles (Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Brief and Nord, 1990). The congruence between personal value and perform part objectives plays a role in the fact that perform is an end in itself. Competence arises from Bandura’s (1986) perform on self-efficacy and is the level to which a worker seems he or she is able to perform projects with skill (Johnson and Tymon, 1994; Gist, 1987). Selection is the sense of independence in starting and managing perform and shows the level of self-determination in perform habits and procedures (Bell and Staw, 1989; Spector, 1986; Deci, Connell, and He, 1989). Selection is a key component of innate inspiration, resulting in learning, attention, and strength in the face of hardship (Deci et al., 1989). Impact is the level to which an individual seems that he or she can impact ideal, management, or managing results at performance (Ashforth, 1989). Impact is associated with performance and an insufficient drawback from difficult situations (Ashforth, 1990). Individuals who believe that they can impact the system in which they are included and impact business results tend to be more inspired (Spreitzer et al., 1997).

**Integration among psychological empowerment and career satisfaction**

Spreitzer (1995) suggested that the four size of empowerment merge to type a gestalt. A thesaurus meaning of a gestalt flows “any of the incorporated framework or styles that make up all encounters and have particular qualities which can neither is neither resulting from the components of the whole nor regarded basically as the sum of these elements” (Guralnik and Neufeldt 1997, p. 567). Although Spreitzer was not precise as to whether the four measurements impact job results additively or interactively, the idea of gestalt indicates that overall encounter is not basically the sum of all individual components. A reduced or advanced stage of one sizing might change the overall constellation and the whole encounter might be
impacted disproportionately. Actually, various research sources recommend possible entertaining results among psychological empowerment measurements. Workers have a recommended stage of certain job features. In particular, Warr’s supplement design of job features and psychological wellness indicates that excessive (i.e., far too great or low) stages of job features are dangerous. The supplement design is depending on an example with the point that natural vitamins are needed for wellness up to certain level; after achievement of that stage, improved supplement consumption can be dangerous. Consider job independence (i.e., choice), for example. When independence stage is too low, workers have little option or independence and are restricted to such a level that they experience covered. However, when independence is too great, workers can experience a deficiency of route or that they have too much liability, resulting in them to encounter part pressure. The same can be said for impact, another empowerment sizing. When an individual’s job has low impact, the worker can experience demotivated because he or she considers that his or her job has no importance to the company. A job that the worker thinks as having an impact incommensurate with the individual’s part can be frustrating and frustrating. Researchers on job pressure have examined the streaming impact of job design on the pressure process quite substantially.

In particular, Karasek’s (1979) job stress design postulates that psychological stress results from the combined results of work specifications and decision-making permission. The adverse impact of job need is biggest when choice permission (choice) is little, and it reduces as option improves. Daniels and Guppy (1994) found complicated three-way communications among job independence, locus of control, and stresses on workers’ psychological well-being. The person–environment fit design creates on the idea that job features have their main impact through the equivalence or difference between recommended and recognized ecological stages (Edwards & Cooper, 1990).

When the individual and the job fit well with each other, both efficiency and psychological well-being enhance.

Discrepancies in moreover route (i.e., recommended stage being greater or less than recognized level) have adverse impacts on employees’ well-being. Among the empowerment measurements, only importance straight details the communication between the individual and the job, that is, the fit between the job part specifications and the individual’s principles and principles (Brief & Nord, 1990; Hackman & Oldham, 1980). We can thus anticipate importance to be favorably associated with satisfaction of career regardless of the stages of the other measurements, depending on the person–environment fit design. As opposed to importance, proficiency involves not only recognized congruence between abilities needed and abilities owned and operated but also recognized positive. Wang, Lee / satisfaction of the career and Psychological Empowerment difference among the two when abilities owned and operated surpass abilities needed. A qualified individual may be just right for the job or overqualified. When over requirement happens, discontentment may result. Impact and option are recognized job features that are not actually relevant to person–job fit. An individual may or may not wish a advanced stage of impact and may or may not be satisfied with a low option
job that has little liability and creating decisions permission. More than normal stages of impact and option can existing absolutely great part objectives that generate part pressure and part indecisiveness to some but may audio complicated and interesting to others. More gravely, unsuitable circumstances may increase when the various job measurements and features existing inconsistent objectives, which cause pressure, concern, recognized position inconsistency, and disappointment (Bacharach, Edwards & Cooper, 1990; Bamberger, and Mundell, 1993; Harrison, 1978). In the perspective of psychological empowerment, unsuitable circumstances may happen at different constellations of the four measurements.

First, from a job style viewpoint, option may be considered as a job need because of the scale of choices that have to be made, as a compensate to the worker because of the innate need associated with being able to make someone’s own choices, and/or a necessary allowing scenario for certain tasks to get the job done (Parker, 1993; Hackman and Oldham, 1980). When proficiency is low and impact is also low, great option may represent a inconsistent scenario that results in the understanding of an extreme need (because of low competence) that provides little innate compensate (because of low impact), and thus great option may be just as unwanted as low option when both proficiency and impact are squat. Alternatively, when proficiency is great and impact is great as well, great option may be considered as a necessary allowing scenario, thus the impact of option on fulfillment may be zero. When proficiency is great but impact is low, great option is likely to be recognized as a settlement or compensate for someone’s over requirement, a controlling aspect for an otherwise unsuitable scenario. Furthermore, when proficiency is low but impact is great, great option may indicate great job need, but this need can be considered in a good mild as fulfilling because of great job impact. Thus, it is possible that the choice–satisfaction connection is good when proficiency is great but impact low or when proficiency is low but impact great.

**H5. Psychological empowerment has significantly positive impact on career satisfaction**

**CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**
METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS AND RESEARCH DESIGN

This research presents a relationship among the variables act as the determinants of career satisfaction with mediating role of psychological empowerment of employees. This is a cross sectional study and data collected through the questionnaire.

Population & Sampling Frame

The population targeted for the study to check the impact of proactive personality and performance goal orientation along with mediation impact of psychological empowerment on career satisfaction. This study contains middle and upper managers of the telecom sector of Islamabad, Pakistan. U-Fone, PTCL, Warid, Zong and Telenor are the part of census and are considered to be the reliable scaffold as workers with this sector are qualified enough to manage the distinctive roles allocated by the authorities.

Sampling Tools & Techniques

Proponents of population was chosen by using probabilistic sampling technique as it is one of those techniques from which each component of the population has the same probability of being chosen. Random stratified sampling is used to further select the sample as all the importance of a right choice for the elements of the sample to make it representative of our population.

Sample & Respondents

Data was collected from the 350 respondents from middle level and top managerial level belongs to telecommunication sector of Islamabad. This sample will be chosen by considering their personal distinctiveness as age ranges from (30-40), qualification (degree level), work experience with the organization (minimum 3), and number of performance assessments in the organization (minimum 3).

Instrument & Measure

A structured questionnaire was used to collect data. The respondents were asked to articulate their judgments using a five point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

Proactive personality: The self-report measure of proactive personality was a ten-item scale of the proactive personality survey (PPS) (Seibert et al., 1999), a shortened version of the instrument originally developed by Bateman and Crant (1993).

Performance goal orientation: Performance orientation and learning orientation were assessed with two eight-item scales developed and validated by Button et al. (1996).

Psychological empowerment: Psychological empowerment was measured with the 12 items adapted from Spreitzer (1995).
**Career satisfaction:** Career satisfaction has been widely used in research as an indicator of subjective career success (Heslin, 2005). The seven item scale was used. This measure was developed by Blau (1989).

**Procedure and Analysis:** The questionnaire for survey was self-governed and in person disseminated by the researcher among the respondents for the study. One questionnaire was given to each of the respondents according to the extent and nature of data information required for this study. Researchers endowed with indispensable support to respondents in making technicalities understandable in answering the queries. For analysis of data quantitative tools and techniques Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was utilized for the data analysis. Descriptive frequencies, percentage and correlation were drawn using SPSS. CFA analysis is done to test the model.

**FINDINGS AND RESULTS**

### Table 1: Estimates

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>C.R.</th>
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</table>

The results of the table mentioned below demonstrates the relationships among the variables including proactive personality, Performing Goal Orientation, Psychological Empowerment, and Career Satisfaction are depict in the table 1.

The above table 1 divulges that the Beta result is .0789 between PE and PP and the association is apparent from the investigation that if there is one degree change in TMS there would be 7.8% change in PP. The relationship between PE and PGO shows the beta estimates of .0496 and the beta estimates of CS and PE, and CS and PP are .1451 and .2417 respectively. The table further depicts the beta results of CS and PGO are .0747 indicate association between the two variables.

The analysis highlights the relationships between the variable are statistically significant (P<.05). However the relationship between OP and TP is slightly high as compared to other variable with β=0.2417 variable is statistically significant (P<.05).

### Table 2: Model Fit Indices

<table>
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<th>ChiSqr</th>
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<th>AGFI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
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</table>
The results in the above table 2 explain model fitness index. The model chi-Square (Chi) and associated significant value indicates that this criteria does not fulfill the condition of model fitness as the significant value is less than level of significance (P<.05) representing inconsistency features in the model, whereas, the relative chi-Square value is also greater than 2 as suggested by (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007) to as low as 2.0 (Wheaton et al, 1977) as high as 5.0. Chi-square lack of it might be one of the possible reasons indicated by (Bentler and Bonnet, 1980; Joreskog and Sorbom, 1993). Another fitness measure is goodness of Fit index (GFI), by convention the value of GFI equal to or greater .90 is acceptable (Schumacker and Lomax, 2004).

AGFI is variant of goodness of fit which adjusted goodness of Fit index for degree of freedom. Further criteria contains CFI (Comparative Fit index) is revised form of NFI (Norm Fit Index). The recommended value for NFI and CFI is equal or greater .90 Hooper et al (2008). RMSEA (Root Mean Square error of approximation) tells about optimally chosen parameters would fit the population co-variance Matrix (Byrne, 1998). According to MacCallum et al., 1996) RMSEA value below .08 show good fit of the model.

DISCUSSION

The present research analyzed the effect of proactive personality on career related results in a modify establishing. The research plays a role in both proactive personality and modifies literary works in several ways. First, the research was an initial attempt to empirically test the conceptual design of proactive personality in a modify establishing. Second, the potential mediating part of successful dedication to modify and satisfaction of the career was empirically analyzed. Lastly, the research analyzed the moderating part of recognized business assistance, managing interaction, profession upcoming, and satisfaction of the career. Research has shown that tendencies affect the way in which workers understand their tasks, which consequently impacts their satisfaction of the career (Wagner, and Libkuman, 2005;
Bowling, Beehr). The results in this research reinforced this thinking as it was found that proactive personality has a positive and significant relationship with satisfaction of the career.

In a modify establishing, other elements such as concern, worry of the unidentified, and career uncertainty effect the revenues decision. In mild of this result, it is especially crucial for professionals to realize how useful it is to have pleased workers as such workers would plan to stay with company even in a modify atmosphere. This recommended that not only will disappointed proactive workers display no successful dedication but they also may not have objectives to stay in the company. Results with regards to satisfaction of the career were useful from a proactive perspective. Proactive personality workers are initiators and are open to modify as compared to the non-proactive workers. Hence they will not only be a resource for the company but their assistance for modify will be essential for the company. In mild of these results professionals must focus on whether their workers are pleased with their tasks especially before applying a modify or they risk not only dropping the dedication of these workers to modify but also may end up dropping this useful set of workers. The proactive workers are self-starters; initiators and hence may local plumber on their own conform instead of patiently waiting on their managers to give them reviews. In the same way, they may not be significantly reliant on getting assistance from the companies in the form of pricing and admiring them. Proactive workers will plan to stay with the company only when they highly considered that there is some upcoming for their profession in that company.

CONCLUSION

The conclusion in this research is that although proactive personality has a solid connection with satisfaction of the career; it is not very highly relevant to with purpose to stay with the company. There is hardly any doubt in the fact that proactive people are a resource to the company. However, it is up to the company to make sure that they do not lose such a resource. The outcomes have also shown that proactive people will intend to stay with the company only if they are assured that their profession has a future in the company. One possible description for why performance goal orientation, has significantly positive effect on satisfaction of the career is because in terms of group interaction on any effective company, people who want to perform better have to know how to work with others, and how to lead others to achieve efficiency assessments (Senge, 1990). To demonstrate, those who are triggered with exterior reviews can be more effective by helping other members or the company to be successful.

That is, seeking overall superior performance through internal support and collaboration. Therefore, assistance people need different studying to deal with different works. Besides, we have found the assistance people who owned and operated studying objective orientation always provided well services towards customer and co-worker. The aim of this research was mainly to determine the impact of psychological empowerment and proactive personality on satisfaction of the career. The outcomes from this research indicate a considerable connection between psychological empowerment, psychological empowerment objective orientation and proactive personality. The following empirical conclusions appeared from the evaluation of the
stated concepts. There is a significant connection between psychological empowerment on satisfaction of the career. There is a factor in psychological empowerment based on biographical features, namely gender and period excluding race. Employees who are psychological empowered are likely to experience higher levels of satisfaction of the career.

LIMITATIONS

Like all research, this research also has its restrictions. Information are only cross-sectional and thus do not allow causal results. This research also indicates that upcoming research can further analyze different functions of industries and/or business functions. Second, this research used self-reported signs for the measuring variable, although this is the typical use of behavioral science. Harris and Schaubroeck (1988) advised us of the care essential in decoding the means of the examined factors and the overall size the correlations acquired. However, they also mentioned that these results do not actually change noticed communications among variables and so do not actually damage the conclusiveness of the statistical research. Third, the use of positively written products only may have overstated typical method prejudice, due to the acquiescence (i.e. the propensity to promote products in spite of of their substance) might have inflated correlations.

Recommendation for futuristic study

The outcomes of this research provide proof for the importance of proactive employees in a amend setting. These outcomes have confirmed the fact that proactive individuals are indeed a resource to the company. The company can present a feeling of significance and effect for on per hour basis employees by fulfilling managers for providing reviews about satisfaction of the career. Pay attention to worker concepts clearly summarize and to be implemented (supervisory communication). Workers will then likely start to care about the execute they execute (meaning) and notice that their co-workers pay attention to their concepts. Paid workers who obtain related reviews and motivation is likely to feeling that they have the ability to impact their co-workers (impact), and might understand themselves as free to choose the execute that they execute (self-determination). If the company shows workers that they are valued this could cause them to view their interaction with the company in a positive light. This research indicates that future scientists use a longitudinal board design and range that includes both favorably and adversely illustrative terminology as remedies. Besides, we believe that for satisfaction of the career company require paying special concentration to inner and exterior connections.

REFERENCES


ANALYSES OF COMPETITIVE INTELLECTUAL CONTRIBUTIONS: SHINE AND NOT SHADE AND PUBLISH AND NOT PERISH

Kamal Dean Parhizgar¹ and Suzan S. Parhizgar²
Texas A&M International University, USA¹ and North Texas Osteopathic College of Medicine, USA²

ABSTRACT

The intellectual deliberated contributions of knowledge-based philosophy, evidence-based whyosophy, and opinion-based neosophy in academia hold that each academician has unique kinematic intelligence and competence in a specialized field of science and application of technology. Among all types of intellectual contributions academic refereed journals possess special values. There are two different trains of thoughts concerning ranking academic journals: (1) ranking journals based on the vast majority of quantitative citing articles by simply listing factual articles as references and (2) ranking journals based on the integral component parts of experimental and experiential scientific ideas or qualitative discovery formulas. Nevertheless, one of the crucial issues of today’s competition in academic community is related to the notion of “publish and not perish.” Rewarding academic performances of academicians is determined not only by the sheer quantitative publications that academicians produce but also by their quality. Academicians are under overwhelming pressure to be dynamic in production of new knowledge and reexamination of the validity and reliability of the current knowledge. The primary concern of this article is to first define and analyze the status of academicians’ interests and their intellectual contributions. The second concern is to discover how professors or researchers should strive for manifesting their intellectual abilities to educate other people concerning their scholarly discoveries. This could be possible through intellectual deliberated truthful publications in journal and textbook publications. The third concern is to analyze the status of competitive professorship in regard of professionalism and occupationalism. The forth objective is to review whether the status of tenured professorship is based on speculative individuality of professional commitments or it is based upon the legal occupational institutional responsibilities, or it should have holistic oneness in continuity of scholastic activities.

Keywords: Ecosophical; Whyosophy; Whyology; Intellectual Contributions; Professionalism; Occupationalism; Multiculturalization; Multiethicilization; Publish and Not Perish; Citation Impacts; Acceptance Rates; Citation Numbers; Tier I, II, and III Journals
INTRODUCTION

The intellectual deliberated contributions of knowledge-based philosophy, evidence-based whyosophy, and opinion-based neosophy in academia hold that each academician has unique kinematic intelligence and competence in a specialized field of science and application of technology. In both 20th and 21st centuries academic interest in determining the effects of academicians’ intellectual publications have remained high. Evaluating the importance of a piece of intellectual contribution frequently has been judged by citation counts. Also, each institution of higher learning and research center possesses specific capabilities in advancement of knowledge and technological development to seek and improve its academic performance by concentrating on those scientific research projects that best fit its faculty members’ competencies. High caliber researchers and diversified interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary research oriented universities are constantly realigning their intellectual contributions to focus on their academic strengths. All intellectual contributions manifest each university’s research potentials through their journal publications, conference proceedings papers, and different types of published scientific books. All of these types of deliberated intellectual contributions are the results of exploring and discovering unknown mysteries of ecology of bionic things based on ecosophical inquiries.

Competitive intellectual contributions among academicians have always had ethos that called for effective communication among scholars. It is a professional tradition that academicians feel some pressure to publish their innovative ideas and research results. Publishing articles and presenting conference research papers advance scientific knowledge. It is through publications that science and technology can advance, develop, and flourish human civilization. Parhizgar and Parhizgar (2008: 362) stated:

Whyosophically, the growing interdependence of socially, politically, economically, and legally diverse countries has caused academic systems to reexamine a variety of their existing policies. Among these revisions are strategic management philosophies, strategic academic alliances, cooperative academic partnerships, service positions, total quality education (TQE), quality enhancement planning and performance (QEPP), and ethical-legal conduct. These revisions mandate academic institutions to create a new mission on the basis of both domestic and global perspectives, with ever-increasing awareness of multiculturalization and multiethicalization of academic visions. It seems clear that all environmental dynamic ethos of today’s academia is the subject of much competition among academicians. Whyologically, there are several questions that address academia’s mission concerning competitive intellectual contributions. These questions are:

1. Why is there so much pressure to publish?
2. Is there sufficient pressure to publish or perish in all institutions of higher learning?
3. Why are the issues of “flourish or perish” and “shine or shade” so complicated?
4. All publications are the real products of intellectual deliberations and contributors and/or authors?
5. Does the public expect new knowledge and ideas?
6. How do academicians know which intellectual contributive results represent advances in academic socialization?
7. If journal articles, conference proceedings papers, professional conference presentations, and show cases are refereed either by peers and/or experts, do they represent real professional impartiality in promoting professional knowledge?
8. Should academicians evaluate their intellectual contributions on the basis of the quality of ideas or the quantity of published articles and proceedings papers?
9. Should promotion and tenure granting committees meet in secret in a democratic institution such as a college or university and their views to be open to the public?
10. Are there systematic sufficient and comprehensive criteria as expected standards of academic performances for evaluating faculty performance? If not, why are academic merit systems so critical for the reputation of faculty members and their affiliated institutions?
11. Are there implicit rather than explicit pressures to publish in an academic institution for specific research fields in a discipline rather than in others?
12. How do we know what decision or an action is right?
13. What we must do to make educational services right?

Recruitment, retention, promotion, and granting tenure status to a faculty member is a holistic process that several intrinsic and extrinsic voices and votes are known as the cardinal principles of academic administration. Among all types of criteria concerning performance appraisal of a faculty member, publications play the most important role in institutional accrediting processes. Nevertheless, performance criteria are expected standards of commonly used for evaluating faculty members’ performances within an academic department or division. Criteria for performance appraisal could be classified as teaching trait-based, research productivity-based, academic services-trait-based, and/or comprehensive-intellectual contributive-based.

A teaching trait-based criterion identifies an academic subject area in a discipline with numbering of preparations, enrollments, students’ teaching evaluation efficacy, and different courses to be taught in a four-year cycle at the level of undergraduate, two-year cycle at the Master’s level, and four to five-year cycle at the doctoral level. All of these expected standards of performances identify subjective characteristics such as “effective teaching and learning outcome assessments,” “dedicated academic responsibilities and contributions,” “instructional innovative strategies,” “creativity in teaching and learning processes,” and “maintaining academic office hours for advising students.”

The research productivity-based criteria focus on specific intellectual contributions through publishing textbooks, supplemental reading books, refereed journal research articles, peer reviewed academic conference proceedings papers, monographs, conference presentations, show cases, workshop augmentations, acquisitioning research grants, preparing final research grant reports, and writing new degree plans or revising comprehensively the current curriculum designs and degree plans and programs.
The academic service-based criteria look at what faculty members have done or accomplished in both institutional and professional community services. Some faculty members have served at the university-wide, college-wide, and departmental or divisional committee assignments, others have served in the professional voluntary associations and organizations as directors, program coordinators, reviewers, session chairs, discussants, editorial board members, or editors and co-editors of conference proceedings. Others have served in academic journals as editors, co-editors, and members of the editorial boards of professional journals. Some faculty members serve in the joint venturing academic partnership programs within the context of international academic programs. Other faculty members may serve in the community’s medical and health clinics, humanitarian, philanthropic, musical, theatrical, and theoretical organizations as fund-raisers and/or lecturers.

Nevertheless, “to be or not to be?” is at its heart a question of inquiry in all aspects of life-span. In other words, the question is related to the nature of intellectual existence or non-existence and accomplishments among academicians’ deliberated intellectual contributions. Following beneath every human thought is the state of rational reasoning; wisdom. Admittedly, to seek the truth through intellectual philosophical reasoning and to follow it and wherever it leads, involves in-depth intellectual deliberations and contributions. To be a professional academician is an obligated rational reasoning to think through every aspect of inquiries to their very roots. When academicians go beyond their immediate consideration of reasoning for their cognitive altruistic intellectual deliberations, they are in the state of contributing reason’s territory within boundaries of syllogistic logical rules. We would have to use syllogistic reasoning processes even to debate for the soundness of refraining from rational discussions. Within such a philosophical deliberation, academician’ creativity presentations and others’ examined opinions are known as cooperative ventures among researchers and discoverers. For such a type of reasoning, we must have some ideas of what is “to be a true life-time truthful academician and discoverer?” This is the beauty of the spirit of being an academician.

The primary concern of this article is to first define and analyze the status of academicians’ characters of professors and researchers in terms of their in-depth curiosity in scholarship. The second concern is to discover how a professor or researcher should strive for disclosing their intellectual abilities to educate other people. This could be possible through intellectual deliberated truthful publications. The third concern is to analyze the status of academicians in regard of professionalism and occupationalism. The forth objective is to review whether the status of academicians is based on speculative individuality of professional commitments or it is based upon the legal occupational responsibilities, or it should have holistic oneness in synergistic curiosities. In addition, speculative understanding and pragmatic knowing are either for the sake of simply an individual’s conscience awareness and cognitive judgments or for the sake of formative and summative knowledge application to ordinate peoples’ behavior or their societal interactions in both professional rights and duties and institutional occupational commitments and responsibilities. Striving for reaching to such a holistic complex judgmental perception concerning the role of academicians mandates them to be involved within the competitive context of intellectual deliberations and contributions, time, and often debatable
arguments. Such a complex process varies culture to culture and generation by generation. In some cultures, the status of an academician is limited to the institutional boundaries of academic freedom in classrooms, while in other cultures, they are granted by the constitutional rights the privilege to be entitled to both institutional academic freedom and citizenry civil rights of free speech. Therefore, our concern in this article is to identify precisely what kind of professional speculative judgment or what pragmatic occupational civil mandates are possible through publishing or perishing and/or shining or shading.

**WHAT ACADEMICIANS DO?**

It is proper to recognize intellectual proclivities of human identities through two major forces: (1) the universal law of whyosophical hypothetical assumption of cohesive entropy and (2) the multicultural integrated social epiboly. Ecosophically, the term entropy means a somatic bionic system to be measured by the amount of unavailable energy for functioning during a natural process of life. In thermodynamic, such an organic system undergoes a spontaneous change. Also, the term epiboly means that the growth of one dimension of human life (e.g., culture, knowledge, faith and etc.) overlies on other parts as the formation of certain energetic processing of psychometric characteristics of existence. What universal language holds sway over both entropic somatic and epibolic psychic in both societal and spiritual functioning of an individual's identity in a group can be expressed by a medium of communication. Therefore, anthropologically, language is known as the technosophical creativity and innovation of human multiculture to integrate and interrelate all past and present generations together and bind them with future generations. Through analyzing application of universal languages in communication as the essence of knowledge, we are immersed in the ocean of words, phrases, sentences, numbers, and statistical norms to express our identities. We need to think about our judgments concerning societal cultural wisdom that is deemed in philosophical, biosophical, theosophical, and technosophical proficiencies in a nation. All of these propositions are the results of our intellectual capabilities that would emerge through higher educational systems.

Within the contextual boundaries of the Rainbow Multicultural Diamond Head of Kinesthetic Thinking and Reflecting, intellectual human beings are very much timeless concerning whyosophy and whyology. Whyosophy is the bedrock of deep thinking that does not eliminate encephalized syllogistic reasoning within the different modes of thinking. Rather, it searches to seek the most valid, valuable, and viable information in culturallogy. It identifies the way of enriching and enhancing the whole mindedness of informative human beings. Within the domain of such embodiment of universal understanding, multiculturallacy is known as the descendent of ecosophy, philosophy, theosophy, technosophy, and biosophy in both Eastern and Western civilizations. Also, whyology within the domain of culturallogy, questions fundamental changes in the structuring and processing of humans’ infosenses and inforeasoning to end up with ecosophy. For such a cardinal reasoning, intellectual contributions of academicians represent the depth of academic excellence in a nation.
Academics in classrooms provide audiences polished and published thoughts and precise meanings and applications of knowledge. They challenge, stumble, and prove that intellectual words, phrases, and technical problematic solutions are something that every learner can understand them and apply them. Their job is to make students to be smarter. Also, besides teaching, they need to be life-time scholars and conduct research projects and publish their discoveries, and render academic services to their institutions and professional community in order to enhance production of knowledge. The roles of professors are holistic. Professors need to insure that their own personal intellectual growth and their students’ knowledge development are harmonized. Professors must utilize their scientific expertise and pragmatic know-how skills to widening the horizon of their thoughts in order to profess values to their students. They must prepare students to take advantages of every updated rational opportunity for their personal development and growth. That is the main objective of academic inspirations. In multicultural societies, academicians provide all citizens and residents appropriate opportunities to prepare learners to play important roles in shaping the general character of their societies. Therefore, professors not only profess students to be effective and knowledgeable experts but also to be responsible citizens/residents through politically, economically, socially, and professionally well educated people.

The verb “profess” is transitive and the verb “research” is inquiring to discover solutions for complex and mysterious life issues. The verb academic service is known as effective rendering meta-knowable and kinesthetic intelligence in thinking, intuiting, conceiving, perceiving, inducting, conducting, judging, and practicing science in the real world. This raises a question. How well professors profess? Professors themselves are the closest observers of professing effectiveness in their classrooms and thus have the opportunity to become the most effective assessors of students’ learning opportunities. When professors profess, they endeavor to the blank places in knowing and eliminate as much as possible contradictory directive reasoning. When professors endeavor to know what principles they rely upon and how these are related to their focal points of reasoning, those address to their students’ desire to learn and enhance their knowing abilities. Professors give intellectual assent with concrete rational and logical reasoning. Through following the truthful paths of honesty, exactitude, and accuracy, professors can make a good beginning in the direction of critical thinking in order to provide students the reason why they should think about an ideal solution is correct, workable, and valuable. Parhizgar (1988: 132) indicated:

The common conceptualization of the relationship of institutional goals, roles, rules, mission, and objectives is that of a continuum or hierarchy of decreasing levels of generality beginning with mission and culminating in objectives. For this reason institutions of higher education having three sets of major roles: teaching, research, and services. We can consider a faculty member’s function as a role too; a recurring series of activities. The teaching activity of academics is influenced by more members of the role set than either research or service. These influences include the norms of scientific disciplines and fields of knowledge, policies established jointly by institutional faculty members and academic administrators, the expectations of students, and academic shared governance. The activity of research implies
extending the domains of reliable knowledge in specific fields of discoveries. Academic services imply the effective application of intellectual deliberations and contributions in providing competitive professional expertise to particular institutional and community members or organizations.

Also, the Los Angeles Times (2009) reported: “In 1993, Congress passed the religious Freedom Restoration Act, exempting believers in some cases from having to comply with applicable laws.” This indicates that those colleges and universities that are denominated by special religious sects do have the legal ground to prohibit faculty members not to teach evolution in their biological courses. Instead they should focus on creation theory rather than on evolution theory. Or in religiously denominated medical schools, medical curriculum prohibits teaching or practicing abortion in the courses and specialization of OBGYN. This is one of those issues that are related to the “occupational mandates” in their curriculum design and implementation of academic programs. Therefore, to be a professor of biology or medicine, professionally professors need to know all related scientific knowledge and practices without prejudice, but in religiously affiliated colleges and universities, biology and medical professors need to consider their institutional occupational codes of conduct through self-censorship or institutional limitations. Consequently, cognivistic mapping of students’ curiosity is the most teaching objective by professors in classrooms in order to help learners to develop their intellectual critical thinking, thinking critically, inductive thinking, deductive thinking, and holistic cognitive thinking skills, which all of these are necessary to grow. In addition, professors examine the state of intellectual deliberations that entails the processes of definition, classification, clarification, and generalization of scientific discoveries. They can be understood and appreciated in terms of intellectual deliberations. All can be presented within the domains of certain cultural values. Professors inspire their students by communicating the debatable reasoning through an aspiration of intellectual excellence and to help them acquire the qualities needed to foster the validity of their rational thinking. Some of these qualities are related to critical thinking, and developmental of analytical, verbal, and written skills. Some are self-disciplined and others are commitments to the truth and objectivity. All could be taught by words, examples, and expectations. For example, to be a professor of science is to be a scientist; to be a professor of philosophy is to be a sophist; to be a professor of bioethics is to be a biosophist, to be a professor of medicine is to be a physician; to be a professor of engineering is to be a technosophist; to be a professor of music is to be a musisophist; and so on. Nevertheless, to be a professor is not only to be expert in specific scientific, technological, and artistic disciplines but also they need to be interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary mindedness oriented scholars, researcher, and teacher in creative ideas, innovative techniques, and imaginative artful and literary masterpieces in creativity. In supporting such a statement, Markie (1994: 5) stated:

In short, we take on a complex role when we walk into classrooms and declare that we are the professor: the students’ guide to the subject and subject’s representative to the students, representative of intellectual excellence and related virtues, certifier of student progress, academic advisor, and practitioner of an intellectual discipline. To be a professor is to function
effectively and successfully in all these ways, though in any particular course with any particular group of students, all of us play some parts better than others. Being a professor is an ideal we pursue rather than an actively we simply perform. Nonetheless, meritocratic high quality of intellectual contributions is the heart of academic accreditation processes.

**MERITOCRATIC ACADEMIC EARNING AND GAINING**

The term *meritocracy* was invented in 1958 by a sociologist Michael Young in his compelling little book of so-sci-fi called *The Rise of Meritocracy* (Lemann, 1997: 32). In academia, the term meritocracy is a system in which professors, scholars, and researchers of an academic institutions are recognized and rewarded based on their in depth competitive know-how knowledge, talents, and scientific discovered intellectual contributions rather than through their affluent academic administrative status or socioeconomic class privileges and wealth. The Webster dictionary defines meritocracy as: “A form of social system in which power goes to those with superior intellects. In light of these definitions, we understand that academic meritocratic system is a social system in which rewards such as power, promotion, and privileges go to those people with higher educational superior know-how knowledge, skills, experiences, dedication, and faithfulness to the cause of the community of scholars. Nevertheless, meritocracy is against what an individual owns and gains without creativity, innovativeness, and hardworking efforts. It should be noted that according to a capitalistic political ideology, money-talk, money-walk, and money-power are the main principles in an organizational outcome expectation in order to increase wealth. Experts with their know-how knowledge and professional experiences in comparison with the wealthy people are not equal and/or given credit as life-time educational investors except for academic administrators that most of the time, accreditation agencies promote their financial status based on their guild. Academic institutions do not recognize any credit in terms of having assets for life-time educational investments for experts except through having a marketable value for receiving their salaries and/or wages. In addition, in our society, experts are known and laborers and they are subject to the Labor Law. After many centuries, there is no sign to recognize experts’ knowledge wealth. Therefore, we are expecting in the very near future, the expert law to be enacted in our society. Then the expert law will recognize the intellectual wealth and prevent college and university authorities to threat faculty members with the knowledge wealth investments. In other words, life-time educational investments of faculty members comparing with academic administrators are not considered as one of the major factors in the cardinal investment of owning and running a college, university, or in a research center for organizational profit sharing. As we know, a business has seven major elements for a production system: capital, land, technology, expertise, labor, information, and energy. The only elements that don’t have investment life-time values are experts and laborers. The other five factors have their own monetary values as investments. Therefore, in a meritocratic system of values, faculty members are deprived from organizational profit sharing as investors because they are labeled as laborers. Of course, there is one exception that the administrative system could enjoy part of the organizational gains with enormous privileges and salaries. Nevertheless, meritocracy is a rewarding system in which advancement is earned and not guaranteed to be gained. The best reason for such a behavior is based upon contingency
necessities of an organization; by one day an expert may be hired and by another day he/she will be fired except to be a tenured faculty member without recognition of their life-time educational investments (Parhizgar and Parhizgar, 2012: 438). Nevertheless, there are three types of income: (1) earnings for faculty members as competitive wages (par-time faculty members and salaries for full-time tenure track and tenured faculty members), (2) gains as added values of capital gains for the institutional investors, and (3) combination of earning and gaining for academic administrators.

Meritocracy is based on daily performance of a competitive system. It is a managerial practice that operates on a daily basis. It is more closely related to technocracy with a different type of rewarding system. While technocracy is based on expertise as the foundation of distribution of knowledge wealth, meritocracy is not only based on how much an expert knows, but also how much they contribute their knowledge towards enhancement of an organizational operational system. Nevertheless, meritocratic academic managerial behavior is a type of a culture that will be beset, both intentionally and unintentionally. It is a daily challenging endeavor; as long as an expert is useful, he/she will be retained, otherwise he/she will be discarded despite of his/her working-life effort in an organization.

RANKING ACADEMIC JOURNALS

One of the popular techniques in evaluating faculty performances by academic administrators is ranking academic journals within the contextual boundaries of tier I, tier II, and tier III in relationships with their academic contributions. This is one of the main reasons that ranking academic journal articles has been used to evaluate faculty members’ performances. Salancik (1986: 194) stated that the influence of a journal article has on the field is dependent on three things: (a) the journal’s dependency on other journals or the total number of citations make to it by other journals, (b) the influence rating of the journals citing it, and (c) the intrinsic value of cited journal, independent of its network of dependencies.

Since 1980s, the increased reliance on academic journal rankings to assess scholastic capabilities of faculty members has been evident. Kacmar and Whitfield (2000: 293) indicated:

The pursuit of a generally acceptable ranking of the major journals in the field of management began with Coe and Weirnstock (1984). These authors asked management department chairs at American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) accredited universities to rate the achievement of an author, on a scale from 1 (low) to 9 (high), who had published an article in 1 of 16 management journals they had selected as important to the field. In addition, the rates were asked to provide an estimate of the acceptance rates for these journals. In 185, Sharplin and Mabry (1985: 139), borrowing a journal rating method used in other disciplines, introduced the use of citation counts as a means of measuring the quality of journals in the field of management. The rationale for using citation counts was that these counts reflected the contribution of research published in a particular journal to future research, indicating the impact of the journal on the advancement of the field.
Faculty members’ intellectual contributions could be evaluated either based on their professional or occupational or combination of both through direct and indirect performance appraisal systems. The direct **professional** intellectual contribution system would be based on qualitative levels of global scientific reputations through creativity, innovativeness, technovativeness, and inventions of each faculty member regardless any institutional affiliation in their expertise field. All assessments would be based on statistical power and testing of null hypotheses in experiential, experimental, and expediential research endeavors. The indirect **occupational** intellectual contribution systems would be based on quantitative assessments of academic journal rankings or institutional reputational based on impact factors and accepting rate ratios of academic journals. For example, in 2003 the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) initiated five specific strategic **bureaucratic** (not necessarily competitive meritocratic) management accreditation standards for its accredited colleges and schools in the Standard 2 as following:

The mission incorporates a focus on the production of quality intellectual contributions that advance knowledge of business and management theory, practice, and/or learning pedagogy. The school’s portfolio of intellectual contributions is consistent with the mission and programs offered.

The mission statement includes a description of the school’s emphases regarding intellectual contributions of faculty members.

The school has infrastructure and processes that facilitate and encourage the production of intellectual contributions.

If the portfolio of intellectual contributions relies on the outputs of faculty members who have primary faculty appointments with other institutions, the school must provide documentation of how its relationship with individual faculty members and other institutions contributes to the success of the school, supports its mission, and in particular, its portfolio of intellectual contributions.

The portfolio of intellectual contributions reflects the mission and includes contributions from a substantial cross-section of the faculty in each discipline.

According to the 2003 AACSB’s standards for judgment concerning faculty intellectual contributions, it is based on “institutional mission driven statements.” Since we have varieties of quantitative and qualitative institutional effectiveness, therefore, institutional accreditation evaluation of faculty members’ intellectual contributions would be based on occupationalism (employers’ wishes) rather than professionalism (individualized employees’ research interest). It is based on academic administrative power-distance between accreditation agencies and institutional administrative authorities. It should be noted that the main reason for such a trend is related to the people who are running AACSB. Members of this accreditation agency are former retired and present business schools’ deans. It is observed that the visiting evaluative
team members of AACSB’s committee are limited only to the business schools’ deans and associate deans. Is there any room for faculty members as experts in different academic business fields on behalf of the AACSB agency to accreditation business curricula, degree plans, and the levels of students’ learning effectiveness? The answer is not clear. If the answer is yes, then why the AACSB visiting team members are composed of three deans? Accordingly, faculty members’ intellectual contributions should comply with their bureaucratic institutional academic administrative wishes. This may have contradictory notion to the academic freedom by colleges and universities. In other words, if academically those business school faculty members should have academic freedom, then they should not bind in their research to be restricted to their schools’ missions. They should be bounded with interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary performance of a faculty member's research interests. Such a notion would create innovation in research discovery. In addition, we are living in the global Information Age that binds international global scholars together. Therefore, if business faculty members have to limit themselves to their institutional vision and mission in research, they will be deprive from creativity and innovation in discovering global environmental variable. Global encephalization of faculty members’ academic freedom could develop progress in intellectual innovativeness. Nevertheless, it is the time for AACSB to change its accreditation principles after ten years. They have to update their association’s principles according to the global Information Age and Management Age.

PUBLISH AND NOT PERISH

One of the crucial issues of today’s academic community is related to the notion of “publish and not perish.” Academicians are under overwhelming pressure to be dynamic in production of new knowledge and reexamination of the validity and reliability of the current knowledge. This has caused some faculty members to be exposed to the competitive racing of knowledge production. On one hand, faculty members should compete with their peers in order to maintain their academic reputations and professorial ranking status and on the other hand, by its nature, research is the product of relentless collaborative efforts among faculty members concerning reexamination of the research projects. Then, questions arise: should researchers share their data by the time of publishing a journal article? Should faculty members be the original authors of their research projects or they may buy some journal articles from academic vendors in the knowledge market and/or from ghost writers and publish them in highly reputed professional academic journals? Are there any exceptional circumstances that prevent faculty members not to disclose their data with other academicians? The answer is dubious. From one dimension, generally, all faculty members’ journal articles and conference research papers are subject to the public domain of property copyrights and they are committed to promote the humanity’s reliable know-how knowledge. From another dimension, faculty members’ intellectual contributions should be published by commercial publishing companies through academic associations that their sole visions and missions are subject to profitability. These circumstances protect publishing companies and readers' interests as well. Therefore, through universities’ employment privileges faculty members should contribute their life-time academic investments without any monetary incentives. Consequently, most faculty members try to
publish with minimum intellectual contributions unless to have additional appropriations of monetary funds.

Nevertheless, scientific research viability of discoveries should be evaluated by well-known peers and experts in the relative academic disciplines, before they are published in academic journals and conference proceedings. Such a refereed or peer reviewed processing of publications allows other scientists, scholars, and researchers to further their research and use them as bases for scientific synergistic advancement. The validity of the content of a journal article and/or a conference research paper is based upon application of those ideas in practice. Nevertheless, recently, there are some academic associations, journals, and conference proceedings that are profit-making. These associations, journals, and conference proceedings are looking for making money through charging faculty members with submission fees, paging fees, hard copies fees, softcopies fees, editorial fees, referee fees or peer evaluation fees, first author fees, second author fees, and third author fees, a membership fees, and first, second, third, and so on articles in a journal or in a conference proceedings. These types of journals could not be professional journals. They are commercial academic journals that are looking for those contributors to have payments for publishing their journal articles in order to fulfill the minimum requirements for employment, retention, promotion, and tenure status. This has caused to group academic journals and conference proceedings into four categories: (1) commercialized academic journals, (2) professionalized voluntary academic journals, (3) affiliated institutional academic journals, and (4) affiliated foundational journals. Consequently, commercialized journals will not have too many submissions with very limited high quality of articles. Professionalized voluntary academic journals will have a good size of submissions and publish a few limited viable and reliable articles. Institutional affiliated academic journals may have good size submissions, but quality of refereed and/or submission journal articles are not high because most editorial board members are appointed by their institutional academic administrators. Affiliated foundational journals will have very good size of submissions without any charges. Consequently, all related costs for publications are provided by financial sources of foundations and selected articles will scrutinized based on expertise.

Nevertheless, since most university academic administrators are looking for quantities, usually they ignore the high qualitative natures of journal articles. Academic administrators through their merit pay systems choose the simplest technique in quantitative numbers of faculty members’ intellectual contributions. Or if they desire to pay more attention to the quality of their faculty members’ intellectual contributions they apply “impact factors,” “submission rates,” and listing the most institutional faculty members’ journal names that they have published their articles in their institutions.

There is a critic concerning the quality of an academic journal concerning its editorial board members’ contributions. In today’s academic environment, to be an editorial board member is viewed as a cosmetic fashion to name some academicians without performing a dynamic role in editorial responsibilities. It is very rare in most academic journals to find editorial board members’ views before each accepted article to be published. Professionally, those academic
journal board members should write their up dated views and discoveries concerning the holistic literature review in the subject matter of an article in the fashions of academic critical thinking and thinking critically. In other words, if in a volume of an academic journal there are ten articles, in addition to the Chief Editor’s View, there should be ten editorial board members’ views that should be written before or after each article. Then, such a journal deserves to be reliable, viable, and praiseworthy in academic community.

In order to evaluate overall academic intellectual contributions, academic administrators need to consider both variant values and different weights of quantities and qualities of academic journal articles. For this reason, there are two types of evaluations: (1) quantitative evaluations and (2) synergistic quantitative and qualitative values. Quantitative values could be based on mathematical Boolian Logic as following:

Supposedly, a faculty member has published 2, 2, 2 and 2 intellectual pieces of contributions. Quantitatively, the final assessment would be as following:

\[ 2 + 2 + 2 + 2 = 8 \]
\[ \text{Or} \]
\[ 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 = 16 \]

This is a simplistic evaluation method that academic administrators should avoid it in the time of evaluating faculty members’ intellectual contributions. For example, supposedly, a faculty member has published 2 books, 2 chapters in 2 books, 2 journal articles in two highly reputed qualitative ranking academic journals (top tier), 2 chapters in 2 reference books and 2 articles in regular academic journals. The 2 synergistic qualitative and quantitative evaluations instead of 8 will be 2. Accordingly, the values of the first 2 nominal qualitative books would not be equal to 2 chapters in a 2 books, each book may have 20 chapters. Nominally, the numbers of 2 books and 2 chapters would be 4. However, each book may have 20 chapters. Therefore, the real values of books will be 40 chapters. In this situation, the total real values of books and chapters would be 42 instead 4.

In addition, scientific journal articles and conference research papers represent, in depth caliber qualification of scientists, scholars, and researchers; in many cases they are the primary factors to be applied for professional merit pays, promotion, tenure, and post-tenure review (PTR) processes. In addition, intellectual contributions of faculty members facilitate the conduction of more systematic research projects and discoveries of new information; about relationships of publications to professional advancement. What makes academic contributing authors to be distinguished in community of scholars, and who possesses professional ethical and moral commitments to conduct truthful research projects and write their cognitive observational conclusions as journal articles, conference research papers, books, and reports? Clearly, some journal articles, research papers, books, and reports include the names of those individuals who really contributed their knowledge and efforts for advancing human civilization. Meanwhile, on a very rare occasion, there are some academic free riders that are looking for
taking advantage of the good faith and goodwill of the principal author(s), and they desire to include their own names in those manuscripts for receiving illegitimate personal gain. Such a fraudulent claim in publication can cause a matter of deep academic deception and dishonesty. For example, CNN.com (2005) reported:

South Korean’s most renowned stem-cell scientist (Professor Hwang Woo-suk, a veterinarian) speaks publicly about media reports that he wanted a landmark study retracted because key parts were fabricated Professor Hwang admitted to fabrication. Roh told media nine of the 11 stem cell-lines – batches – that were part of the tailored stem-cell study paper were fabricated and the authenticity of other two was questionable In the disputed study, Hwang’s team reported they had used a cloning method called somatic cell nuclear transfer to create lines of genetically identical stem cells from nine different patients, most with a rare neurological disease Other stem-cell experts have said they are worried by the controversy. Human cloning is itself controversial, with opponents saying it is unethical to experiment on human embryos.

Nevertheless, Glass (1993: 43) stated:

It has been said that science has no ethical basis that it is no more than a cold, impersonal way of arriving at the objective truth about natural phenomena... Human values have themselves evolved. Man arose after some two billions of years of organic evolution, during which species after species originated, flourished, and fell, or occasionally became the progenitors of species that were new and better adapted, on the basis of evolutionary scheme of values. Fitness, like it or not, in the long run meant simply the contribution of each trait and its underlying genes to survive.

Academic meritocracy is a critical issue that is not, only related to professional ethical and moral obligations, but also it is related to cultural etiquette. In different cultures, implementation of such etiquette is different. For example, in Asian and Middle Eastern cultures, traditional etiquette is based on seniority, while in European and American cultures, it is based upon the level of contributions for producing the final product; efficiency. Therefore, there are three different concepts concerning the order of authorship as following:

**Senior Authorship:** This type of arrangement is based on academic cultural administrative rank system. The one who has the most academic interest, experience, and reputation should be named first as a mentor, the one who has the most contributive efforts second as a real researcher, the one who has furnished the original idea third, the one who has provided the technical skill in writing an article, paper, or report fourth, and the one who has assisted any of the aforementioned researchers the last.

**Merited Authorship:** This type of arrangement is based on the merit of academic leadership efforts of researchers, from the beginning to the final product. Merit authorship is bounded to actual efforts of authors who have sustained substantial, continuous, and a high level of contribution. It should be indicated that research in scientific inquiries requires relentless efforts
in conducting experimental tests in laboratories. Therefore, according to this system, the one who has done most of laboratory work should be first, the one who has written the article, paper, and report second, the one who has furnished the original idea third, the one who has played the roles of mentors and provided technical, administrative, and financial support last.

**Scholastic Authorship:** One of the controversial issues in research activities is related to the works of graduate students in laboratories. They assist researchers by setting up technical experimental equipments, collecting related data, and analyzing test results. Should their efforts be recognized and appreciated by including their names in the authorship of articles, papers, and reports? Should the directing professor treat graduate students as laboratory assistants? Should the senior author of an article, paper, or report promote senior graduate students, especially Ph.D. candidates, and appreciate their help by including their names in the authorship list? The concrete ethical answer to the above questions is that senior professors should not expect to obtain free academic rides from their graduate students. In addition, senior faculty members should safeguard the academic integrity and graduate students' rights by not permitting the abuse of their efforts. In some countries, it is unethical and immoral for faculty members to expect graduate students to include their names in their research papers as the second or third author, unless after the date of their graduation. The rationale for such an academic ethical and moral tradition is that students work as laboratory staff by receiving salary to work in a laboratory. Also professors receive their salaries and incentives to teach, advice, mentoring and prepare students as the new generation of scholars in their field. Therefore, Ph.D. students should have entitlements of their scholastic hardworking efforts.

Violation of the professional codes of ethics on the part of scientists results in academic dishonesty. Such deliberated violations can cause a faculty member to be exposed to academic indecency for discharge. We suggest that each institution of higher learning and research center should establish definite professional codes of ethics and codes of moral conduct, in order to safeguard the profound and favorable effects of science, society, and the scientists. Every year, many professional experts come together to exchange their research findings in academic conferences around the world. Within the contextual boundaries of academic ethics, we need to analyze the effects of these gatherings. There are certain points of view that presenters should follow. These are as following:

Presenters should provide new formatted and organized scientific information related to the theme of the conference.

Presenters should provide comprehensive and accurate data with supporting prior literature in the field, and they must have concise analytical arguments concerning hypothetical assumptions, to be accepted or rejected.

Presenters should provide the audience with very well defined objectives of their research, alongside, scientific tools, research methodologies, and comprehensive statistical data, in order to prove fact finding of their discoveries.
Presenters should avoid providing the audience irrelevant information that may be misleading. Presenters should avoid application of untried procedures and/or individualized speculative results beyond their data.

Presenters should illustrate a balanced comprehensive menu for their presentations, within the appropriate time-line of the conference.

Presenters should avoid redundancy, oversight, and/or exaggeration in conducting their experimental hypothetical testing.

Presenters should show professional tolerance when being criticized by peers and/or experts. They should not only appreciate criticism, but also welcome scientific suggestions and recommendations for the enhancement of their articles.

Presenters should be ready to listen to new comments concerning their intellectual contributions, and they should be ready to obtain new insights from experts in the field that will be helpful for revising their research papers.

CONCLUSION

The portfolio of academicians' intellectual contributions reflects the in-depth knowledge-based manifestation their scholastic life-time efforts. They are reflected arrays of their wisdom through outcome manifestation of published works such as published textbooks, reference books, monographs, refereed journal articles, chapters in scholarly books, conference peer reviewed papers, publications in trade journals, show cases, book reviews, commissioned research grants' reports, instructional software, master pieces of fine arts, music, and theatrical activities, data mining, data warehouses, and literature. Due to the important roles of academicians in cultural enhancement of a nation, colleges and universities have direct impacts not only on national cultures but also they promote global intellectual abilities of human beings generation by generation. Nevertheless, excessive notions of “shining and not shading” or “publishing and not perishing” may track down negative impacts over professors’ professing and students’ learning processes. Emphasizing on segmentation of scientific deliberated intellectual contributions without interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary holistic contradictions may cause side-effects on bionic characteristics of living things (e.g., in the 20th century the BCG fodders for cattle caused Mad Cow Disease). Too many emphases on institutional academic visions and visions on quantitative faculty research productivity by academic administrators may create deficiencies for faculty members in teaching and academic services. Instead, it might be more appropriate to create proportionate balance among teaching, researching, and services by colleges and universities as the portfolio of faculty performance appraisal.
REFERENCES


THE IMPACTS OF QUALITY MANAGEMENT SYSTEM - ISO 9001:2008 ON ORGANIZATIONS IN DONG NAI, VIETNAM

Tran Dinh An
Tarlac State University, Vietnam

ABSTRACT

Each organization operates to create their products or services. In order to maintain stably the quality of products or services as well as continual improvement of their organization’s activities, Quality Management System (QMS) - ISO 9001:2008 is one of the tools to support in implementation of this matter. Dong Nai is one of the core economic regions of Vietnam; it includes many organizations to operate in the fields of manufacturing and business as well as public administration. The research tends to the impacts of the Quality Management System - ISO 9001:2008 on these organizations. The research is designed on qualitative methods, nonprobability sampling technique, coordinating purposive sampling with convenient sampling. The method of gathering data is by direct interview (one-on-one) forty-two people whom are experts and involved to the field of QMS - ISO 9001. Through the implement QMS - ISO 9001 of organizations, the major conclusions as follows: The striking benefits such as good control for document and record, enhance customer satisfaction, reducing cost of waste; and the striking difficulties such as awareness in QMS - ISO 9001 of staffs and leadership are not clear, lack of leaderships’ support, lack of cooperation of the departments, and the cost of implementing QMS - ISO 9001 is significant for small companies. Besides, the major expenses to spend such as the cost for consulting and training to establish QMS - ISO 9001, the cost in increase manpower, and fee for the ISO 9001 certification. The customers in business organizations are more respected than in the State administrative agencies. There are some activities with reactivity and commercialization in internal audits, corrective actions and certification assessment. Moreover, the coordination and cooperation between departments and the support of leadership are limited. In addition, some recommendations to improve the organizations as follow: Implementation QMS - ISO 9001 in order to have opportunities to integrate into the international market of products and services. Furthermore, the organizations should integrate management systems such as Quality Management System - ISO 9001, Environmental Management System - ISO 14001, Occupational Health and Safety Management System - ISO 18000, etc. to support one another for improvement, minimize documentation and saves time in case of implementation multiple management systems in an organization. Moreover, the Management Representatives (MR) should be in the leadership position of the organization, they will facilitate to control QMS - ISO 9001 activities. And in the
field of public administration, need to coordinate and implement QMS - ISO 9001 (TCVN ISO 9001) with synchronization from the State Central to the grassroots levels to avoid the problems in handling work in the chain system of different State administrative agencies levels.

**Keywords:** Quality Management System, ISO 9001, Organizations, Agencies, Service, Public Administration

**INTRODUCTION – THE PROBLEM AND ITS BACKGROUND**

**Introduction**

Quality of product or service is an important matter of the existence and development of the company in its manufacturing products as well as providing services.

Faced with the globalization of the business market today, maintaining and continually improving the stability of product and service quality have a strategic role in the competitive business environment among companies or organizations in the world. The series of ISO 9000 - Quality Management System is a tool to support an organization to handle this matter.

Since 1987, the International Organization for Standardization has issued a series of quality management standards - ISO 9000 in order to demonstrate the ability to provide products or services those meet customer and applicable statutory and regulatory requirements in a desired stability and improve customer satisfaction of an organization (UNIDO, 2012; Viet Nexpor, 2005).

Currently, the series of latest version of the quality management system standards of ISO 9000 includes:

ISO 9001:2008 - Quality Management Systems - Requirements;


In which, the standard ISO 9001:2008 specifies requirements for a quality management system. This ISO 9001:2008 standard is used to construct and evaluate the quality management system of the organizations. It is the “management system to direct and control an organization with regard to quality” (Viet Nexpor, 2005). It supports to the organization or enterprise to stably meet the customer requirements and further more is to exceed customer expectation in quality of product and service. The others of this series of standards ISO 9000 such as ISO 9000:2005, ISO 9004:2009 and ISO 19011:2011 are the foundation, guideline for implementation and auditing the ISO 9001:2008.
Statement of the Problem

As the survey report by end of the year 2012 from the International Organization for Standardization (is abbreviated as ISO), the ISO 9001 certificate has been awarded for organizations and enterprises over the world since 1993 and it counted 46,571 certificates at that time (Appendix Table 1). Mostly, the number of ISO 9001 certificates has rapidly grown yearly and reached a peak at the year 2010 as 1,118,510 certificates (Fig. 1), except the year 2003 (decreasing 11%) and the year 2011 (decreasing 3%) which are compared to their previous years (Appendix Table 1). As application the ISO 9001 standard, the organizations will have a good system to control their products and services quality stably (Viet Nexpor, 2005). Moreover, they also continually improve their processes based on the quality objectives in general. However, it has not avoided the limited aspects in application the Quality Management System - ISO 9001:2008.

Till 1995, the ISO 9001 certificate has been awarded for one company in Vietnam only, as just one certificate from 1995 to 1996. It grew quickly up to the peak as 7,333 certificates of standard ISO 9001 in the year 2009. Nevertheless, it has seriously dropped down more than 70% (to 2,036 certificates) in year 2010 and 35% (to 4,779 certificates) in year 2011 (Appendix Table 2). It is considered that has serious impacts in application of Quality Management System - ISO 9001 on the business organizations and manufacturing companies in Vietnam.

![Figure 1: Number of ISO 9001 Certificate in Worldwide Total](http://www.iso.org/iso/home/standards/certification/iso-survey.htm)

As of December 31, 2011, the number of business organizations was 375,732 in actual operation in Vietnam (according to the result of the reviewing report on the number of business organization till January 1, 2012 of Bureau of Statistics, Bureau of Taxation, Department of...
Planning and Investment of provinces – available from website http://www.gso.gov.vn/default.aspx?tabid=382&mid=2&ItemID=12481). As a result, the organizations or companies applied quality management system ISO 9001:2008 in Vietnam with a very low ratio. It reached only 1.27% (4,779 certificates of 375,732 organizations). In general, the status of the application of quality management system ISO 9001 has changed abnormally in recent years from 2006 to 2012 (Fig. 2) of the business organizations in Vietnam. Dong Nai province is one of the largest prerogative economy areas of Vietnam with including 31 large industrial zones (as report of Dong Nai Industrial Zones Authority - DIZA, 2012). It also has affected in application the quality management system ISO 9001 situation.

In addition, the levels of public administration of the State of Vietnam (including ministry, province, district and commune levels) have also implemented services for customers in the form of non-profit. According to the Decision No. 144/2006/QĐ-TTg and 118/2009/QĐ-TTg of the Prime Minister, the State administrative organizations must apply the quality management system as national standard TCVN ISO 9001:2008. These certificates are under management of Vietnam Ministry of Science and Technology, Directorate for Standards, Metrology and Quality (STAMEQ) as available from website “http://vndocs.docdat.com/docs/index-7706.html”. Currently, there are 11,626 public administrative agencies in whole Vietnam country. It includes 16 agencies of ministry level, 63 agencies of provincial level, 671 agencies
of district level and 10,876 agencies of communes. Among them, Dong Nai province, Vietnam has over 200 agencies of public administration (GSO, 2006).

According to the General Conference of the establishment and application the quality management system in State administrative agencies in 2012 of Ministry of Science and Technology, as of April 10, 2013, there were 3,654 public administrative agencies have deployed and achieved the TCVN ISO 9001:2008 certification (available from website “http://skhcn.bacgiang.gov.vn/tin-tuc-su-kien/1039_he-thong-quan-ly-chat-luong-iso-.html”). In the field of service in State public administration, these administrative agencies have applied the quality management system of national standard TCVN ISO 9001 with a significant ratio, it accounted for more than 30% (3,654 certificates of 11,626 agencies) in total.

For this reason, we have also discussed the application of Quality Management System - ISO 9001 (international standard) of manufacturing enterprises or business service organizations and the application Quality Management System -TCVN ISO 9001 (national standard) of State administrative agencies in Vietnam in general and in Dong Nai province, Vietnam in particular.

According to the latest survey report of the International Organization for Standardization, it has counted until the end of the year 2012. The number of ISO 9001:2008 certificates in the world has considerably increased yearly. However, it slightly dropped in the year 2011 and seriously dropped down in the year 2003 as “Figure 1”. The total number of ISO 9001:2008 certificates in the year 2011 (1,079,647 certificates) was decreased by 3% which is compared to the year 2010 (1,118,510 certificates) as “Appendix Table 1”.

In addition, the number of organizations or companies in the world withdrawing from the ISO 9001 certification has also increased in recent years considerably. As the survey report (end of the year 2011) of the International Organization for Standardization, the number of organizations has withdrawn from the ISO 9001 certificate, accounted for more than 10% in 2009 and more than 7 % in 2011 (Table 1).
The Impacts Of Quality Management System - ISO 9001:2008 on Organizations In Dong Nai, Vietnam

Table 1. Number of ISO 9001 Certificates Withdrew in Worldwide from 2007 to 2011 (certificate)

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of certificates awarded</td>
<td>896,905</td>
<td>951,486</td>
<td>980,322</td>
<td>1,063,751</td>
<td>1,118,510</td>
<td>1,079,647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of certificate withdrew</td>
<td>26,908</td>
<td>32,833</td>
<td>33,328</td>
<td>110,791</td>
<td>74,239</td>
<td>82,691</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio of certificate withdrew</td>
<td>3.00%</td>
<td>3.45%</td>
<td>3.40%</td>
<td>10.42%</td>
<td>6.64%</td>
<td>7.66%</td>
</tr>
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In Vietnam in particular, the number of ISO 9001 certificates has also increased in recent years. However, it changes erratically in period of 2006 to 2011 (Fig. 2). It reached the highest peak in 2009, was 7,333 certificates. But in 2010, it considerably dropped to 2,036 certificates (72.24%). On the other hand, the companies withdrew from the ISO 9001 certificates with increasing number of certificate around 100 certificates above in recent years from 2009 to 2011, more than double compared to the previous years (Table 2).

Table 2. Number of ISO 9001 Certificates Withdrew in Vietnam from 2007 to 2011 (certificate)

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of certificates awarded</td>
<td>3,167</td>
<td>4,282</td>
<td>3,971</td>
<td>7,333</td>
<td>2,036</td>
<td>4,799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of certificate withdrew</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio of certificate withdrew</td>
<td>2.12%</td>
<td>1.21%</td>
<td>0.98%</td>
<td>4.95%</td>
<td>4.86%</td>
<td>3.31%</td>
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The development of industrial parks in Vietnam has mostly concentrated on the big cities. Especially, these areas are located in the Hanoi capital, Ho Chi Minh City, Bien Hoa city (in Dong Nai province) and Binh Duong province.
According to the report of Dong Nai Industrial Zones Authority (DIZA), as of the end of the year 2012, Dong Nai province established 31 main industrial zones with total land area of 9,838 hectares. It includes 26 industrial zones which have been operating and 5 industrial zones are building infrastructure. In there, the land using for rental for business operations is 6,444 hectares. Dong Nai province is a place to gather many large industrial parks of Vietnam. Most of the foreign investors to invest their companies in Dong Nai province; it was accounted for more than 70% (876 foreign companies of 1,206 companies in Dong Nai) in total as DIZA’s report. These industrial parks are the economic potential of Vietnam country, providing products and services for Vietnam and foreign countries. Therefore, the emphasis on quality of products and services is at the forefront of the manufacturing operation and business services provision of the companies. The application the ISO 9001:2008 standard – Quality Management System is one of the factors to involve to their business objectives.

Moreover, the public administrative structure of Dong Nai province includes more than 200 agencies. In particular, there are eleven administrative agencies of district level. It includes one city, six towns, nice districts, twenty-nine wards and more than one hundred communes. These agencies implement administrative services on the related fields in the province such as investment, construction, legal, tax, finance, banking, customs, science and technology, health, education, etc. for more than 2.5 million people in Dong Nai (Hien, 2003). Along with the business operations of the physical product or service provision, the reinforcement quality management more widely applied in the fields of services such as public administration, health, education, etc. In which, the public administration services are operative fields of State organizations system to implement. The public administration agencies of Vietnam government implement to the form of non-profit activities. These agencies apply the quality management system with national standard TCVN ISO 9001 under the management of Vietnam Ministry of Science and Technology, Directorate for Standards, Metrology and Quality (STAMEQ) as from website “http://vndocs.docdat-.com/docs/index-7706.html”. As well as the field of production and business service activities, the application the standard TCVN ISO 9001:2008 - Quality Management System is one of the factors to concern to the public administration objectives.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

As we known, the quality management system ISO 9001 has many benefits for the certified organizations in the world in implementation. Nevertheless, it also has affects to the organizations depending on their operational aspects.

This research tends to look insight fully the aspects to impact on the organizations or companies in business operation as well as on the organizations of public administration in Dong Nai, Vietnam in application the quality management system ISO 9001:2008. Especially, it seeks in terms of the following:
1. The core benefits in application quality management system ISO 9001 of the certified organizations;
2. The major difficulties in application quality management system ISO 9001 of the certified organizations;
3. The major expenses for application and implementation quality management system ISO 9001 in organizations;
4. The major distinctions in application quality management system ISO 9001 between the business organizations and the public administration organizations;
5. The major impactions of application quality management system ISO 9001 on organizations;
6. The fact findings discussion in this research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Many theories and tools support to apply and implement the ISO 9001:2008 standard for the organizations. In this research, we review two major relevant parties to effect to the quality management system ISO 9001 and then propose the conceptual framework. First, we review the related and close theories such as: Process approach method of the ISO 9001:2008 standard, Total Quality Management (TQM), Teamwork, Seven technical statistics tools and Seven new tools in Statistical Process Control (SPC). Second, we review the related studies of dissertations and journals.

METHODOLOGY

Based on the selection of forty-two samples for interviewing to collect information by depth interview (one-on-one) whom are involved to the field of ISO 9001 such as Quality Assurance (QA) or related leaders, managers, Management Representatives (MR) from the organizations, the experts, auditors from the Certification Bodies or Consultancies, we obtain primary data from the interviews directly. In order to save time as well as the efficiency of the interviews, we focus at once "purposive sample" and "convenience sample" as well as one-on-one interviews. Besides, we also apply “multi-stage sampling” technique to get samples more representative.

Moreover, the concentration on the core goals of the study is very important for the interviews. Thus, we have established and prepared the suggested questions for "Interview record" form in advance for the interviews. They are combined the open-ended questions and fixed-alternated questions.

With these “Interview record" forms, the respondents focus on topics to be discussed (fixed-alternated questions). It helps to make data coding, statistics, analyses, etc. for interviewers as well as the response from the respondents conveniently (Zikmund, et. al., 2010). Furthermore, it approaches closely the research fields and objectives in order to bring more reliable and accurate responses from the interviewees.
Besides, it also stimulates the interviewees to answer the questions (open-ended questions) with their mind freely. It exploits more information from the respondents in the new aspects that have not imagined to (Zikmund, et. al., 2010).

After gathering all information from the depth interviews, we group each specific facets. Since then, we use the tools of Microsoft Office Excel for tabling, statistical calculations, graphing and analyzing the factors that affect the organizations or agencies in application the quality management system ISO 9001 in Dong Nai, Vietnam for discussion.

RESEARCH RESULTS

During the interviews, there were two of forty-two (2/42) people from the internal organizations in the province declined to be interviewed but they suggested to fulfill their ideas in the suggested list of interview record. The rest of them, they offered to be interviewed directly (depth interviews). Through the interview process, we have collected more other aspects than suggested list of interview records.

We illustrate the partial research questions as well as the impact of quality management system ISO 9001:2008 to the relevant aspects of the organizations.

The Core Benefits in Application ISO 9001:2008 to Bring for the Organizations

Generally, the quality management system ISO 9001:2008 brings many core benefits to agencies and organizations. With the sharing of the internal organizations of Dong Nai, Vietnam as well as its external organizations, they have shared major benefits of implementing ISO 9001:2008. Some benefits have been agreed more than 80% of the votes by the respondents. There are three outstanding major benefits to bring for organizations in application the quality management system ISO 9001 as the followings: Good control for documents and records, enhance customer satisfaction and reduce waste quality. The benefit in “Good control for documents and records" aspect, they have agreed with a very high rate from 88.89% (respondents of external organizations) to 96.97% (respondents of internal organizations); in “Enhance customer satisfaction" and “Reduce waste quality” aspects, they have agreed with 81.82% votes (respondents of internal organizations) to 88.89% votes (respondents of external organizations). On the other hand, the answers of respondents from both internal organizations and external organizations also have a bit different concept in each aspect as show in Figure 3.

Some aspects have big gap from the respondents of internal organizations and external organizations such as “Clear quality policy and objective” and “Continual improvement”. In “Clear quality policy and objective” aspect, the internal organizations have recognized that they had established all quality policy and quality objective with 57.58% of votes. However, from the point of view of the external organizations, this aspect was not much focused to the quality policy and quality objective in companies or agencies presently. They have voted with 33.33% only. In addition, in “Continual improvement” aspect, the point of view of external organizations
agreed with the improvement continuously based on the implementation quality management system ISO 9001 with 77.78% of votes. Nevertheless, it was voted with lower ratio as 54.55% in current situation of internal organizations.

Figure 3. Core Benefits of ISO 9001 - The Gaps between Internal and External Organizations
Source: Author’s field research, November 2013

The Major Difficulties in Application ISO 9001:2008 for the Organizations

The sharing ideas from the interviewees of internal organizations and external organizations have pointed out some common elements in difficulty to implement quality management system ISO 9001. Mostly, the respondents have identified several common difficulties in application ISO 9001 in the organizations. The most striking difficulty is "awareness in ISO 9001 of staff and leadership is unclear" with 87.88 % of the votes of internal organizations and 88.89 % of the votes of external organizations. The following difficult aspects are the "lack of cooperation of the departments" with high voting of the respondents, from 66.67% (external organizations) to 75.76% (internal organizations); the "lack of leadership support" with voting from 60.61% (internal organizations) to 88.89% (external organizations); and the “high cost for small companies” aspect was also considered, voting from 48.48% (internal organizations) to 55.56% (external organizations). The other difficult aspects are less consideration with the voting ratio is lower than 50% mostly. They were the “competency of staffs and leadership”, “infrastructure has not met” and “has not utilized the analyzed tools thoroughly”. The difficulties aspects in implementation of quality management system ISO 9001 are illustrated in Figure 4.
There are some difference in perspective from the respondents between both internal organizations and external organizations in difficult factors such as “lack of leaderships support, competency of staffs and has not utilized the analysis tools thoroughly”. In “lack of leadership support” aspect, from the point of view of the external organizations, it is higher voting rate (88.89%). Objectively, the leadership has to plan and deploy this quality management system ISO 9001 activity for the organization. However, the leaderships are often busy in their business operation. Thus, the implementation of ISO 9001 in the organization has not supported fully as internal organizations comment. In “competency of staffs”, from the point of view of the internal organizations was higher voting than external organizations, it voted as 39.39%. Nevertheless, the external organizations have recognized that the “competency of staffs” was not the major difficulty in application the quality management system, it voted as 11.11%. Actually, the awareness of quality management system ISO 9001 is not complicated, the staffs can learn it in order to implement for organizations development. Furthermore, in the “has not utilized the analysis tools thoroughly” aspect, the point of view of the external organizations was much higher voting, it occupied to 77.78%. Many tools are to support for analyzing data to improve the quality management system in the organizations (these tools as Seven statistical tools, Seven new tools, etc. But in implementation, they have not utilized these tools thoroughly as the internal organization. Therefore, the efficiency of implementation the quality management system ISO 9001 has not reached the highest level.
The Main Expenses to Apply the QMS - ISO 9001:2008 for the Organization

Through the point of view of the independence of the two groups of internal organizations and external organizations of Dong Nai, Vietnam, we found out the common major elements of the expenses to implement quality management system ISO 9001 with high voting ratio (about 50% above) similarly. They consist of the “cost for consulting and training to build QMS - ISO 9001” with voted from 72.73% (internal organizations) to 88.89% (external organizations); the “manpower increase” with voted from 63.64% (internal organizations) to 66.67% (external organizations); and the “fee for ISO 9001 certification” with voted from 48.48% (internal organizations) to 55.56% (external organizations). Some other elements of expenses were less than 50% of voting such as “document and records system, fee for investment and calibration the measuring and test equipment”. We have some gaps of perception between internal organizations and external organizations. The external organizations voted for investment and calibration the measuring and test equipment aspects with high ratio as 44.44%. However, in the manufacturing field, the organizations have to invest and calibration the measurement and test equipment to measure their product in order to maintain and ensure stably quality control in their production operation. These main expenses show in Figure 5.

![Figure 5. Main Expenses to Apply ISO 9001:2008 – The Gaps between Internal and External Organizations](image-url)

*Source: Author’s field research, November 2013*
Distinguish between Business Organizations and State Administrative Services in Application ISO 9001:2008

Based on the point of view of respondents from the group of internal organizations and the group of external organizations in core benefits, major difficulties and main expenses above, the gap between both groups were not considerable in application the quality management system ISO 9001. We have also gotten the point of view in the business organizations and the State administrative services in application the quality management system ISO 9001. Mostly, the respondents from the internal organizations and external organizations have shared the similarities and differences in implementation ISO 9001 standard as Figure 6.

The points of similarity were the quality of products or services are maintained stably once the organizations apply and implement the quality management system ISO 9001, it was mentioned as UNIDO (2012) and Viet Nexpor (2005). They were over 60% of their voting (Fig. 6).

Besides, the differences between internal and external organizations were shared by respondents are “operation objectives”, “customer” and “owner” of the organizations. They were high voting from 66.67% to 88.89% and quite close (Fig. 6). The operation objectives of the business organizations are operating to make profit, for the State administrative organizations is non-profit form. They have shared in this factor from 66.67% (external organizations) to 78.79% (internal organizations). The customer of the business organization is directly affected the existence of an organization, but of State administrative organization is not big affected. This aspect was voted from 72.73% (internal organizations) to 77.78% (external organizations). In addition, the owner of the business organizations are the State, privacy or join-venture, etc., but of State administrative organizations are the State agency only. They voted this aspect from 81.82% (internal organizations) to 88.89% (external organizations).

Because of the State administrative agencies in the operational objectives is non-profit form, their customers are not big affected the existence of their organizations, so the customers of the State administrative agencies are not important considerably as in business organizations.
Through the statistical analysis sections above, we have pointed out the core benefits, the major difficulties when implementing QMS - ISO 9001, the main expenses to build a QMS - ISO 9001 as well as distinguishing the application QMS - ISO 9001 in the State administrative agencies and business organizations. Besides, based on discussions above, we also recognized that the respondents’ perception in interviews of internal organizations and external organizations who shared their point of views on the field of the quality management system ISO 9001 were not much difference.

**Concern categories**

Many key related aspects in implementation ISO 9001 have been discussed. These findings were illustrated in “Other Findings” section.

**ANALYSIS & DISCUSSION**

Through personal interviews of forty-two people whom are related to the field of Quality Management System - ISO 9001:2008 activities such as the experts, the relevant people in business organizations and public administration agencies in Dong Nai, Vietnam as well as in Certification Bodies, consultative agencies and other business organizations, we have found a number of findings as follows:
Finding from the research questions

The answers for the research questions in order to match their research objectives as follows: The core benefits of implementing Quality Management System - ISO 9001:2008 are good control for documents and records, enhance customer satisfaction, reducing cost of waste, good internal communication, good working environment, assigning specific responsibilities, competition with other organizations, traceability, product quality stability, clear quality policy and objective, continual improvement, staffs are trained, high profit, company reputation, good process control and good compliance of laws. In which the striking core benefits are good control for documents and records, enhance customer satisfaction, and reducing cost of waste. Besides, some gaps of perspective between respondents of internal organizations and external organizations in aspects such as clear quality policy and objective and continual improvement.

The major difficulties when implementing the Quality Management System - ISO 9001 are awareness in ISO 9001 standard of staffs and leadership are not clear, lack of cooperation of the departments, lack of leadership support, high cost to implement ISO 9001 standard for small companies, competency of staffs, infrastructure has not met, competency of leadership, and has not utilized the analysis tools thoroughly. In which, the striking major difficulties are awareness in ISO 9001 standard of staffs and leadership are not clear, lack of cooperation of the departments, and lack of leadership support. The gap of perspective between respondents of internal organizations and external organizations in aspects such as lack of leadership support, competency of staffs, and has not utilized the analysis tools.

The main expenses to apply ISO 9001 standard for the organizations are the cost for consulting and training to build quality management system ISO 9001, the expenses for increase manpower, the fee for ISO 9001 certification and monitoring, the cost for documents and records, the cost for invest the measuring and test equipment, and the cost for calibration these measuring and test equipment. Especially, the striking main expenses are the cost for consulting and training to build quality management system ISO 9001, the expense for increase manpower, and the fee for ISO 9001 certification and monitoring. The gaps of perspective between respondents of internal organizations and external organizations in aspects such as the cost for invest the measuring and test equipment and the fee for calibration these measuring and test equipment.

In similarity, the business organizations and public administration agencies brought quality of products and services stably when implementing ISO 9001 (TCVN ISO 9001) standard. However, both kinds of organizations have difference in owners, objectives and the survival from the customers. Thus, the customer in business organizations are more respected than in public administration agencies.

The major conclusions and recommendations are raised out in the next sections
Other Findings
The finding from discussion the related subjects in application the quality management system ISO 9001 as the following:
The main motivations for organizations to apply ISO 9001 standard are organization voluntariness and customer requirements. But for the public administration agencies, they have been required by the State.

Internal audit activities of the organization to implement Quality Management System - ISO 9001 are effective. However, there are a number of organizations implementing this system with reactivity status. Besides, the internal auditors have sufficient competency.

The commitment of top managements of organizations to implement quality management system ISO 9001 is fine but their monitoring are not strict. Besides, they are not committed well in small companies.

The quality objectives of the organizations in implementing ISO 9001 standard is good relationship with their business goals such as supporting business activity, reduce customer complaints, process improvement, developing more services, tend to customer, and clear development orientation.

Almost organizations implement quality management system ISO 9001 with all position of employees to participate together. A part of organizations implement this system with position from leader position upwards to undertake.

Several tools were used to control quality of products and services of the organizations in implementation quality management system ISO 9001 such as Control plan, Advanced Product Quality Planning (APQP), Production Part Approval Process (PPAP), Statistical Process Control (SPC), Measurement System Analysis (MSA), Failure Mode and Effects Analysis (FMEA), and others. In which, Control plan and Advanced Product Quality Planning (APQP) are mostly used.

Several statistical tools were used to analyse and improve the quality management system ISO 9001 such as 5W-2H principle, Cause-Effect diagram, Pareto chart, check sheet, Histogram, control chart, stratified chart, and Scatter diagram. Especially, the organizations concentrate on 5W-2H principle, Cause-Effect diagram, Pareto chart, and check sheet.

Mostly, the corrective actions and preventive actions are effective to improve the quality management system ISO 9001. It was supported from the tools of analysis in finding the root causes. However, it was still existing weak points such as some organizations implement as reactivity, analysts’ competency are not good, and hide the truth of information.

All the form of organizations such as manufacturing, business services and public administration services, all the field of industries and services such as manufacturing and
processing, food processing, manufacturing and processing chemical, banking, trading and transportation, information technology, telecommunications, electricity and water supply, waste treatment, etc. can apply the quality management system ISO 9001. The good starting stage of implementing this standard ISO 9001:2008 is at the beginning of organizations’ operation.

The most of management systems are usually implemented at the present such as Quality Management System (ISO 9001) and Environmental Management System (ISO 14001). Other management systems have applied less as Social Accountability (SA 8000) and Occupational Health and Safety Management System (ISO 18000).

Nearly all the Certification Bodies perform the certification services in Quality Management System - ISO 9001 for the organizations objectively with the auditors have sufficient competency. However, there is a part of them perform this certification services in commercialization.

The virtual implementation Quality Management System - ISO 9001 of organizations is not high ratio (about 50%). The other organizations are reactive implementation or haft virtuality, haft reactivity.

Mostly, the Management Representatives (MR) of Quality Management System - ISO 9001 were not in the leadership position of the organizations. It limits executive power of implementation for the ISO 9001 standard.

LIMITATIONS


Limitations in terms of the number of interviews with the specialists or auditors in Quality Management System – ISO 9001 of the Certification Bodies for organizations in Dong Nai, Vietnam.

Limitations in terms of the number of interviews with the specialists or consultants in Quality Management System – ISO 9001 of the certification consultative agencies for organizations in Dong Nai, Vietnam.

Limitations in terms of the number of interviews with the related managers whom have experienced and knowledge in ISO 9001:2008 (TCVN ISO 9001:2008) standard in the neighbouring places.

Limitations in terms of the major aspects in semi-structured interviews. Our primary data collection is a qualitative data from the semi-structure interview with a integrating the open-
ended questions and the closed-ended questions. Time allocated by the researcher and the respondents allow to only discuss major aspects are asked.

Limitations in terms of sampling: We have not been able to do a random sampling and have to accept those who volunteer to give an interview as Zikmund, et. al. (2010) mentioned – “convenience sampling”. Thus, our sampling is combination of purposive sampling and convenient sampling: Those with the knowledge and experience as well as those who are willing and allowed to participate.

Limitations in terms of secondary data: We may not have access to or find reports and data that we have been looking for.

Limitation in term of collection the number of certified organizations in ISO 9001 (TCVN ISO 9001) for individual provinces of Vietnam. The Vietnam Ministry of Science and Technology, Directorate for Standards, Metrology and Quality (STAMEQ) could not provide well the database of ISO 9001 certification as well as Tam (2010) mentioned.

We have limitations of time and budget which will not allow us to collect and analyse further data.

**CONCLUSION & SUGGESTIONS**

Through the research “The Impacts of Quality Management System - ISO 9001:2008 on Organizations in Dong Nai, Vietnam”, we conclude as follows:

All types of organizations (manufacturing, trading services and public administration service), all fields of organizations’ activities (manufacturing, processing, business services, etc.) in Dong Nai, Vietnam can be applied Quality Management System - ISO 9001 as TCVN (2008) mentioned. The virtual implementation of organizations in Quality Management System - ISO 9001 are gotten good efficiency in their operation.

Striking benefits of implementation Quality Management System - ISO 9001 of organizations are good control for documents and records, enhance customer satisfaction, reducing cost of waste. The gaps of perspective between respondents of internal organizations and external organizations are in aspects clear quality policy and objective and continual improvement.

Striking difficulties of implementation Quality Management System - ISO 9001 of organizations are awareness in ISO 9001 standard of staffs and leadership were not clear, lack of leadership support, lack of cooperation of the departments, and the expenses in implementing Quality Management System - ISO 9001 of small companies are considerable. The gaps of perspective between respondents of internal organizations and external organizations are in aspects lack of leadership support, competency of staffs and utilization the analysis tools.
The considerable expenses in implementation Quality Management System - ISO 9001 of organizations are the cost for consulting and training to establish QMS - ISO 9001, the cost in increase manpower, and the fee for certification ISO 9001:2008 standard. The gaps of perspective between respondents of internal organizations and external organizations are in aspects investment and calibration the measuring and testing equipment.

Business organizations and State administrative agencies brought stable quality of products and services when implementing Quality Management System - ISO 9001 (TCVN ISO 9001) in similarity. Due to their differences in owners, objectives and the survival effect from the customers, the customer in business organizations are more respected than in State administrative agencies.

Implementation Quality Management System - ISO 9001 supports many opportunities for the organizations improvement continually. A part of organizations implement QMS – ISO 9001 reactively (such as internal audits, corrective actions and preventive actions), and commercially in their activities (such as assessment to certify ISO 9001 standard of Certification Bodies for organizations). The organizations have not virtually applied Quality Management System - QMS ISO 9001 considerably.

The weak points of implementation Quality Management System - ISO 9001 of organizations are in coordination and cooperation between related departments, in supports of leadership. These factors adversely affected on the implementation of Quality Management System - ISO 9001.

SUGGESTIONS

In order to support organizations’ development in a market economy as well as global integration of their products and services, a number of recommendations for the implementing of Quality Management System - ISO 9001 as the following:

The organizations should really implement the Quality Management System - ISO 9001, it will be brought high efficiency to the organization's business operation.

Applying Quality Management System - ISO 9001 in order to maintain quality stably, improve organization continually so that to have opportunities to integrate on the international market of products and services of the organization.

The organizations should orient to integrate management systems such as Quality Management System - ISO 9001, Environment Management System - ISO 14001, Occupational Health and Safety Management System - OHSAS 18001, etc. together to support one another for improvement, minimize documentation and save time in case of implementation many management systems in an organization. These organizations will be gotten more effective in their activities once implement management systems concurrently.
Management Representatives (MR) should be in the leadership position of the organization. They will implement the commitment of the leadership and facilitate to control Quality Management System - ISO 9001 activities.

In the field of public administration, need to coordinate and implement Quality Management System - ISO 9001 with synchronization from the State Central to the grassroots levels to avoid the problems in handling work in chain system of many different State administrative agencies.

Based on the findings from the research in impacts of Quality Management System – ISO 9001:2008 on organization in Dong Nai, Vietnam, we consider applying these experiences for organizations in other places in Vietnam.

In future research, we consider to study the impactions of other management systems in Vietnam such as Environment Management System - ISO 14001, Occupational Health and Safety Management System - OHSAS 18001, etc.

REFERENCES

Books
The Impacts Of Quality Management System - Iso 9001:2008on Organizations In Dong Nai, Vietnam


Periodicals

## APPENDICES

**Appendix Table 1.** The Number of ISO 9001 Certificates in Worldwide up to Year 2012 (certificate)

<table>
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<td>2012</td>
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### Appendix Table 2.

**The Number of ISO 9001 Certificates in Vietnam up to Year 2012**

(certificate)

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<td>4779</td>
<td>6104</td>
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WHEN DO MANAGER FEES START TO MATTER?

Jeffry Haber
Iona College, USA

ABSTRACT

Fees have long been fodder for investor discussion, complaint and debate. But what constitutes a fee that is too high? Ascribing a precise level to when fees start to matter is a more difficult matter. No doubt investors would be better off if the funds they invested in reduced their fees and provided the same service and returns. But seldom is that the case, usually an investor has to weigh what they are buying against what they are paying. This paper uses a population of US equity large cap core managers (all with at least $1 billion in AUM) and then adds the Standard and Poor’s 500 index (S&P 500) as another manager to the population. The manager returns are reported gross of fees. The quartile rankings are taken to provide a baseline of where the S&P 500 falls when no fees are imputed. Fees are then imputed onto the manager returns (but not the S&P 500) to see when the S&P 500 makes a significant change in quartile ranking. This does not happen until a fee of 160 basis points is imputed.

INTRODUCTION

Investors have long felt that one of the driving forces in gaining better returns (net of fees) is to look for funds and managers that have lower fee structures. No one can argue that an investor would be better off if they could obtain the same investment product at a lower fee. But managers do not offer the same product, with the same terms, at two fee levels. If an investor thought a fee was too high they would either have to negotiate the fee with the manager or find a similar product from a manager that charges a lower fee.

Managers with higher fees would argue “similar” products are not the same – the higher fee is justified by any of a myriad of factors – higher returns, better risk management, longer track record, etc. With theories such as mean reversion, cyclical trends, momentum investing, indexing and passive investing and the like, investors tend to question whether the higher fee is paying for “alpha,” which is the incremental return the manager delivers (and something that could and should command a higher fee) or whether the higher fee is simply paying for a fund that is investing in the right place at the right time.
This paper looks at fees from another angle. Rather than debating whether fees are justified or wasteful, deserved or not, this paper looks at how high a fee has to be in order to be relevant to an investment decision.

**THEORY**

Accountants are familiar with the concept of materiality – the threshold at which one would change a decision. We all have a personal level of materiality, which is easily described. If you saw a penny on the street, would you pick it up? If not, how about a nickel? Dime? Quarter? Dollar bill? The lowest denomination you would pick up determines, on one dimension, a level of materiality.

In a number of previous papers I have used a data set of institutional-quality US equity managers that spans the years from 2001 to 2011. The manager returns are gross of fees. In the most recent paper I looked at whether an investable benchmark was an attractive investment alternative. Since the manager returns are gross of fees, and the investable benchmark (an index) is considered a no-cost option, I can impute fees to the manager at varying levels to see when the index moves from unattractive investment to attractive investment. In this way a baseline can be established for how high a fee must be before it makes an actionable difference.

**DESIGN**

The data set I have been using is the PSN Monitor, which comprises institutional-quality (at least $1 billion in AUM) US equity funds, in ten strategies:

- Large Cap Core
- Large Cap Value
- Large Cap Growth
- Mid-cap Core
- Mid-cap Value
- Mid-cap Growth
- Small-cap Core
- Small-cap Value
- Small-cap Growth
- REITs

For this paper I will use the Large Cap Core strategy. In 2001 there were 152 funds in the sample, growing to 258 in 2011. To be in the sample the fund must have been in existence in 2011, so funds that closed prior to 2011 were dropped.

The funds used a variety of benchmarks (see Figure 1 below).
Because of the prevalence, the S&P 500 will be used as the benchmark for all funds in this paper.

The first step will be to treat the annual returns of the S&P 500 as if it were another manager in the sample. That would bring the total number of funds to be analyzed to 153 in 2001 and 259 in 2011. The initial quartile ranking will be taken with managers at a zero fee, and then fees imputed to see when the quartile ranking of the S&P 500 changes significantly. It will be at this level that fees will be considered to matter.

**SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL**

Based on the design, a key consideration is at what point I consider that the fees have made an investing difference. Before I answer that, let’s start with the quartile ranking of the S&P 500 when the manager returns are gross of fees (see Figure 2 below).

**Figure 1:** Distribution of Benchmarks Used

<table>
<thead>
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<tr>
<td>FTSE RAFI US 1000</td>
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<tr>
<td>MSCI</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Russell Top 200</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Russell 1000</td>
<td>43</td>
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<tr>
<td>Russell 3000</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Standard &amp; Poor’s 100</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard &amp; Poor’s 500</td>
<td>200</td>
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<tr>
<td>Unspecified</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Total 258

The S&P 500 is in the third quartile 7 out of 11 years, second quartile 3 out of 11 years, and fourth quartile in one year. The question of significance revolves around whether the rankings above are an attractive investment option for a potential investor. I would say no. I believe the trend of the quartile ranking for the S&P 500 is moving in a positive manner, but I could not say the eleven year record is good enough (compared to the population of active managers) to be a compelling investment option. Clearly others may disagree – within the last six years the
index spent three years as third quartile, and most recently there years as second quartile, so it is not unreasonable to be of the opinion that this might be a first quartile fund in the near future.

Definitive criteria must be specified to be able to assess when fees have risen to a level that makes a difference in investing. I should mention that if you believe the quartile rankings above are indicative of a fund that you would invest in, then you should not pay fees. You should invest in a passive index. But given there are managers in the sample that are consistently in the first or second quartile, I would think better investment options exist.

For the purpose of specificity, I will use the following to determine when fees have made a difference:

Fees will be determined to matter when the quartile ranking of the S&P 500 appears at least once in the 1st quartile, five times or less in the 3rd quartile, and never in the 4th quartile.

This definition of when fees matter is certainly capricious and arbitrary, and you are free to disagree with it.

**IMPUTING OF FEES**

I start with an imputed fee of 60 basis points (bps) on the active funds. I will add each incremental level of fee to the chart so that the change from one fee level to the next is apparent (see Figure 3 below).

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</table>

The S&P 500 has not obtained the 1st quartile, nor is it in the 3rd quartile 5 times or less (it appears 6 times in the third quartile). But it has moved out of the 4th quartile. I would also argue that the quartile ranking of the S&P 500 is not significantly different when a 60 bps fee is imputed to the active managers.

The next step is to increase the imputed fee in 20 bps increments. At 80 bps the quartile rankings have not changed (see Figure 4 below).
This is not wholly unexpected – the placement within the quartile can be toward the bottom, top or middle. It may take a number of fee adjustments to move to the next quartile.

There is slight movement at an imputed fee of 100 bps (see Figure 5 below).

The quartile ranking shifted in one year (2004, from 3rd to 2nd). After imputing 100 bps the S&P 500 now meets all criteria for significance, except for obtaining the 1st quartile.

I will jump ahead – it will take an imputed fee of 160 bps for the S&P 500 to make the 1st quartile (see Figure 6 below).
When Do Manager Fees Start To Matter?

Figure 6: Imputed Fee Summary (continued)

<table>
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<th>140 bps</th>
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<td>3 3 3 3</td>
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N: 259 257 254 251 240 229 213 200 190 173 153

There will no doubt be differences of opinion about whether the S&P 500 is an attractive investment at an imputed fee of 160 bps, likewise there might be those that consider the index attractive long before the imputed fee gets to 160 bps.

FURTHER CONSIDERATION

When the S&P 500 is in the 2nd or 3rd quartiles, there are funds in the quartiles above it. A reasonable question is whether the funds that are above it are the same funds year to year or whether it is a transient population.

To see if there were funds that outperformed the S&P 500 on a stable basis, I took the average quartile ranking after imputing the 160 bps fee. The S&P 500 was 57th. The complete list follows (see Figure 7 below).

Figure 7: Average Quartile Ranking at an Imputed Fee of 160 bps

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Figure 7: Average Quartile Ranking at an Imputed Fee of 160 bps (continued)

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Figure 7: Average Quartile Ranking at an Imputed Fee of 160 bps (continued)

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| 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2.67 | 169 |
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### Figure 7: Average Quartile Ranking at an Imputed Fee of 160 bps (continued)

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Figure 7: Average Quartile Ranking at an Imputed Fee of 160 bps (continued)

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| 3  | 2  | 2  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 4  | 2.91 | 218 |
| 3  | 3  | 3  | 2  | 3  | 4  | 3  | 2  | 2  | 4  | 3  | 2.91 | 219 |
| 3  | 3  | 2  | 3  | 3  | 2  | 3  | 4  | 1  | 4  | 4  | 2.91 | 220 |
| 4  | 3  | 2  | 4  | 2  | 3  | 4  | 4  | 1  | 4  | 1  | 2.91 | 221 |
| 4  | 4  | 1  | 3  | 2  | 2  | 4  | 4  | 4  | 2  | 2  | 2.91 | 222 |
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| 1  | 4  | 2  | 4  | 4  | 3.00 | 226 |
| 1  | 4  | 3  | 2  | 4  | 2  | 4  | 4  | 3  | 4  | 2  | 3.00 | 227 |
| 1  | 3  | 3  | 4  | 4  | 4  | 3  | 4  | 2  | 3  | 3  | 3.00 | 228 |
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| 1  | 4  | 4  | 2  | 3  | 2  | 4  | 4  | 4  | 4  | 4  | 3.27 | 249 |
CONCLUSION

While I don’t think that this paper will end any discussion about whether fees matter, or at what level fees matter, I hope I have added another dimension to the discussion. Many investors continue to evaluate managers based on returns net of fees, while others use fees as an initial screen. The question really becomes one of whether the fee is reasonable given the strategy and can a higher fee be justified by better performance.

For a US equity large cap core manager, a fee of 160 bps would not be considered reasonable. Most managers would be in the 40 – 90 bps range, depending on how they implement the strategy (an index replication strategy should be below 25 bps, whereas something fancier, such as an enhanced strategy or one that uses leverage, would be higher). On that basis I would conclude that fees do not matter.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The author would like to thank his trusted colleague and friend, Caitlin Schryver from the Triad Foundation, for her insightful comments.
AN EMPIRICAL EXAMINATION OF SENSATION SEEKING BEHAVIOR AND RISKY SEXUAL BEHAVIOR AMONG AFRICAN-AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS

Niaya Patterson, Rachel Rogers, Laniya Young, Daryl Farrow, and Ronald Poulson
Saint Augustine’s University

ABSTRACT

The present study was designed to assess whether there was a statistically significant relationship between sensation seeking attitudes and the practice of risky sex behaviors. To our knowledge very few studies have focused on examining the possible relationship between the two variables within the context of African-American college students. Therefore, we elected to examine this empirical question with 153 African-American students from a small Historically Black College/University in the southeastern United States. The overall results are quite consistent with previous studies in that 78.8% (n=104) participants reported having had sex during their lifetime. Importantly, 32.7% (n=50) stated that they had 2 to 5 different sexual partners within the past year. In order to assess the overall relationship between sensation seeking attitudes and risky sex behaviors, we developed to composite scores. Each of the composite scores had strong internal consistency .78 and .79 as based upon Cronbach’s Alpha. Results revealed a correlation r = .267, p < .004. While this was not a very strong relationship, it does point in the correct direction. Implications for school administrators, parental campus organizations and the overall student population are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Based on a systematic review of the literature, it appears that little research has examined the possible relationship between sensation seeking and risky sex behavior among African American college students. In light of this dearth of research, the present study is designed to examine the relationship between sensation seeking behaviors and attitudes and risky sex behaviors among African-American college students.

Young adults represent one of the fastest growing groups of new HIV infections in the United States (Labrie, Schiffman, & Earleywine, 2002). Recent data suggest that African Americans represent approximately 74% of heterosexual diagnoses of HIV (CDC, 2004). Rates of newly reported HIV infections in North Carolina were higher in black men in all age groups compared with white men overall (CDC, 2004). The CDC’s (2004) data showed that between 1998 and
2002 there was a statistically significant increase in HIV infections among black men between the ages of 18-24. This considerable increase ranged from 65 per 100,000 populations in 1998 to 92 per 100,000 in 2002. Based upon results of a blind study conducted at 19 American universities, the Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) has estimated that 1 in 500 college students are infected with HIV.

A critical question about HIV and other sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) among African-American college students is: What influence does alcohol consumption have on their willingness to engage in risky sex behaviors; and thereby, increasing students' chances of contracting HIV or other STDs? Consistent with research conducted by Cooper (2002), risky sexual behaviors are defined as those sexual behaviors that increase the likelihood of negative outcomes associated with such sexual conduct. This definition of STD's includes, but is not limited to, HIV and other sexually transmitted diseases such as gonorrhea and syphilis. For the purpose of the present study, risky sex behaviors refer to high frequency of sexual behavior, high frequency of unprotected sex while sober, high frequency of unprotected sex while intoxicated, high frequency of giving and/or receiving oral sex, high number of sex partners in the past year, and frequent exploring of non-traditional sexual behaviors.

A number of studies (e.g., Abbey, 2002; Engs, 1977; Carlucci, Genova, Rubackin, & Kayson 1993; Cooper, 2002; Desiderate & Crawford, 1995; Leigh & Stall, 1993; Poulson, Eppler, Satterwhite, Wuensch, & Bass, 1998; Taylor & Fulop, 1999; Wechsler, & Wuethrich, 2002) have examined the relationship between alcohol consumption and risky sex behaviors among college students. The general findings of these studies suggest that alcohol consumption plays a key role in influencing risky sex behaviors (Cooper, 2002; Leigh & Stall, 1993; Poulson, et al., 1998). For example, Taylor and Fulop's (1999) study shows how alcohol may be used among college students to facilitate their sexual experiences. Cooper's (2002) study supports the previous findings (e.g., Taylor & Fulop, 1999) by revealing that almost fifty percent of participants stated, they may increase their amount of alcohol consumption in order to make it easier to have sex and also increase the likelihood that their partner would agree to the act.

SENSATION SEEKING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIORS

There are multiply ways to operationally define sensation seeking (Charnigo et. al 2013). Charnigo (2013) stated that a sensation-seeking behavior is at an all-time peak during the late teen years and early adulthood. Research has also shown that a young adult’s capacity to fully understand risks is not fully developed, so this may lead to impulsive behavior in high risk situations (Charnigo et al. 2013). Jensen (2005) stated that sensation seeking can be operationally defined as a personality trait consisting of varied, novel, complex, and intense sensations and experiences. The trait includes willingness to take various risks for sake of such sensations and experiences (Jensen, 2005). Fletcher & Farrow (2002) states sensation seeking is a multidimensional construct and includes the seeking of adventure and thrills, disinhibiting, and high susceptibility to boredom (Ripa et al., 2001; Zuckerman, 1994). (Gaither & Sellbom 2003) operationally define sensation seeking as a thought to be a personality trait, characterized as “the tendency to prefer exciting, optimal, and novel levels of stimulation or
arousal". Sensation seekers “have predilections to seek and enjoy sexual experiences with a greater variety of partners” (Charnigo et. al.) p.483. The predisposition toward risk-taking results from a preference for arousing stimuli and so risk-taking is synonymous with sensation seeking. Sensation seeking generally peaks in adolescence and diminishes in adulthood (Murphy & Weisskirch, 2004). Researchers in the Gaither (2003) study found sensation seeking to be significantly correlated with large numbers of unfamiliar sexual partners and less consistent condom use (Gaither & Sellbom 2003). Sensation seeking generally peaks in adolescence and diminishes in adulthood (Murphy & Weisskirch 2004). Research also indicated that high sensation seekers engage in more risky sexual behaviors characterized by numbers of sexual partners and less frequent use of condoms (Poulson, 1998).

Gaither & Sellbom (2003) also reviewed several studies in which researchers found Sensation Seeking Scale scores to be significantly positively correlated with sexually permissive attitudes as well as number of heterosexual sexual partners and heterosexual experiences among college students. The research also broke sensation seeking down into sexual sensation seeking, which Monk, Tomaka, Palacios & Thompson (2010) defines to “the propensity to attain optimal levels of sexual excitement and to engage in novel sexual experiences” or sexual sensation seeking is the inclination to engage in adventurous and optimally stimulating sexual behavior (Mashegoane et al. 2002).

Here we again seek to ascertain whether there is a correlation between sexual sensation seeking and risky sexual behaviors; primarily in the area of HIV risk, including developing multiple sexual partners, unprotected sex, and having sexual permissive attitude. Although research on sexual sensation seeking has focused on HIV risk behaviors, the findings are relevant to the present study as HIV risk behaviors (e.g., multiple sexual partners and high frequency of sexual experiences) are similar to those risk behaviors associated with sexual victimization (Monk et al., 2010). With sexual sensation seeking the risk factors are very high. A study conducted by Certain, (2009) showed 14.2% of new HIV infections were people under the age of 25, and women between 18 to 24 years old have the highest rate of unintended pregnancy in 2005. Monk et al. (2010) defines sexual victimization to any event where one individual attempts to engage in sexual behavior with another individual against his or her wishes and by using some sort of coercion. Sexual victimization encompasses many behaviors, ranging from attempted sexual coercion to attempted and completed rape (Monk, 2010). Voisin, Tan, & Diclemente (2013) determined that sexual sensation seeking is correlated with STI-related risk factors in numerous cross-sectional studies. However, no current studies examined if sexual sensation seeking is longitudinally related to a broad spectrum of STI-related factors such as consistent condom use, number of sexual partners, frequency of partner sexual communication, self-efficacy to refuse sex, and fear of condom negotiation. Unfortunately, fewer studies have examined the relationship between SSS and risky sex among heterosexual youth and especially among those who were female (Gullette & Lyons, 2005; Spitalnick et al., 2007).
RISKY SEX BEHAVIORS

As stated earlier, risky sexual behaviors have been operationally defined as having casual sex, having sex with multiple partners, having sex while under the influence of alcohol or drugs, and inconsistent use of condoms. Up to 80% of college students have had sexual intercourse (Douglas, 1995). Casual sex is prevalent on college campuses rates as high as 78% (Paul et al., 2000). 1/2 of all new STD infections are among adolescents and young adults 15-24 years old (CDC, 2007).

Behaviors related to sexuality that present an immediate physical or psychological health risk and may compromise future health outcomes as well as educational and occupational achievements (Sarigiani et al., 1999). Risky sex behavior is defined as numerous sexual partners, sex with poorly known partners, sex with partners who are ‘high risk’, one night stands, sex without condoms or contraception, and sex under the influence of alcohol and drugs.

The results of the Gaither display sensation seeking to be significantly correlated with large numbers of unfamiliar sexual partners and less consistent condom use (Gaither & Sellbom 2003). It also stated that the sensation seeking scale positively correlates with sexually permissive attitudes as well as the number of heterosexual sexual partners and heterosexual experiences among college students. Research also indicated that high sensation seekers engage in more risky sexual behaviors characterized by a great number of sexual partners and less frequent use of condoms. Gullette & Lyons (2005) determined that only about 10% of their sample admitted to regular condom use during intercourse. A study found that safer sex assertiveness and aggressiveness varied positively with safe sex behaviors, such as taking precautions to avoid risky sexual encounters, conducting sexual background checks on potential sex partners and condom use (Mashegoane, Moalusi, Ngoepe, & Peltzer, 2002).

The present study was conducted to specifically examine whether or not a positive relationship exists between Sensation Seeking Attitudes and Behaviors and risky sex behaviors. To our knowledge, this will be one of the first study that specifically examines these variables within the African-American college student population.

METHODS

Participants

A convenience sample of 153 participants from the general student population at a Historically Black College/University in the southeastern United States participated in the present investigation. Respondents were college students who volunteered to participate; they received neither remuneration nor course credit for their participation. Ninety-seven percent of the respondents were African American, 57% of the participant pool were women. The age range of the respondents was 18 to 29; mean age was 19.2 years. The selection and methodological procedures were approved by the Psychology Department’s Human Subjects
Review Committee (HSRC) and were in accord with the ethical standards and requirements set by the university committee.

Materials

The survey (see Poulson et al., 1998) incorporated questions derived from graduate as well as undergraduate students enrolled in psychology research methods courses. The students assembled in small groups and collectively created a series of questions according to each group’s area of interest. The five general areas consisted of alcohol use, marijuana use, sexual behavior, religious attitudes, and black identity. The 88 item questionnaire were voted upon and tested under the direction of the first author. There were no significant differences among each of three separate pilot studies.

As a result of its brevity, we elected, in the present study, to administer the Sensation Seeking Questions contained in the overall Zuckerman-Kuhlman Personality Questionnaire. In the present study, the Cronbach’s Alpha reliability coefficient for Sensation Seeking components of the overall measure was .797. In addition, we found that the measures we compiled for risky sex behaviors had a reliability coefficient of .781. This would clearly suggest that both measures were in the acceptable range for reliability.

Procedure

Each participant received a copy of a consent form that clearly described the nature of the present study. Both the senior researcher and the participants signed a consent form before the survey was administered. Each participant took a seat in an area where no other participants could either observe their answers or communicate with them about the study. A researcher was present in the classroom throughout the testing session. The average time for completion of the survey was 37 minutes.

RESULTS

Demographics

There were two scales made to determine the relationship between risky sexual behavior and sensation seeking. The risky sexual behavior scale consisted of eight questions. All of these questions asked the participants things such as unprotected sex, having unprotected sex while intoxicated, the frequency of having sex, giving and receiving oral sex, number of partners in the past year, and nontraditional type of sex. From these questions the Cronbach’s Alpha was a .78. Cronbach’s Alpha for the Sensation Seeking Attitudes and Behavior Scale was .79. Both are these reliability scores are well within the acceptable range for reliability estimates.

The primary and fundamental question to be addressed in the present study was whether or not a statistically significant and meaningful correlation exists between our Sensation Seeking Scales and Risky Sex Behaviors. Here we observe \( r = .267, p < .004 \). Although the finding is statistically significant, we believe that the actual correlational coefficient is lower because of
the nature of the Sensation Seeking Scale. More will be said about this in the upcoming discussion. We can say that the correlational coefficient while low, still points in the correct direction and hence the hypothesis is confirmed that a relationship exists between Sensation Seeking Attitudes and Behavior and Risky Sex behaviors among African-American college students.

**Risky Sex Questions**

When asked whether they have unprotected sex (no condom) while sober, 58% (n=90) stated that they never have unprotected sex while sober. However, when collapsing across ‘occasional’ to ‘always’ practicing safe sex while sober, we observed that 21.5% (n=33) of respondents fell into this category. On the other hand, when asked whether they have unprotected sex will intoxicated, 81% (n=125) stated that they never practice unsafe sex while intoxicated. Again, when collapsing across ‘occasional’ to ‘always’ practicing safe sex while sober, we observed that 7.8% (n=12) of respondents fell into this category. When examining the number of partners respondents stated that they had in the past year, 24.8% stated that they had zero partners in the last year. However, this finding is in strong contrast with a larger percentage (32.7, n=50) of respondents who stated that they have had 2 to 5 partners in the last year. When queried about oral sex, we found that 71.2% (n=109) of respondents stated that they had received oral sex. The data also reveal that 43.8% (n=67) stated that they had performed oral sex on their partner. This is interesting because of the large percentage of ‘freshman’ students who participated in the study. As with earlier research, we note a particularly problematic issue about why participants did not use condoms during their sexual activity. Simply put, 22.2%, (n=34) stated that they did not use protection because they were ‘in love’ with their partner and they trusted their partner.

**DISCUSSION**

Similarly to Poulson et al. (1989), the current research has found that high sensation seekers engage in more risky sexual behaviors characterized by a great number of sexual partners and less frequent use of condoms. The results reflected the participants who were high in sensation seeking were also higher in risky sex behaviors. There was a clear relationship between the two variables.

We noted that the actual correlation between the two variables of interest was actually small. We believe that the sensation seeking instrument used in the present study was clearly less sensitive to the issues of sex. We opted for the measure because of its brevity and the overall length of the actual survey. As we prepare for the next round of research in this area, we will seek to employ a sensation seeking scale that focuses primarily on questions of a sexual nature.

Overall, the results support much of the earlier research where approximately seventy-five percent of respondents have, or are currently engaged in sexual behaviors. Once considered somewhat taboo in the black community, we observed a fairly large percentage of our
respondents stated that they had either given oral sex or received oral sex. Because oral sex is typically performed without any form of protection, our respondents are placing themselves at a higher risk for sexually transmitted diseases. Although our findings in the present study are for the most part quite consistent with a number of previous studies, the fact that we used a convenience sample prevents us generalizing our findings beyond the present sample. Future efforts should be made to acquire a sample via a randomized sampling technique.

A second methodological concern is that data from the present study is based upon self-reports. It is clear that such studies do present participants with an opportunity to present themselves in a favorable light and/or engage in social desirability. Whether this means that respondents overstated or understated their behavioral tendencies relative to drug consumption, religiosity and risky sex remains uncertain. However, there is a body of research that suggest that if reporting biases do occur in such studies, it is more likely to be a case of under reporting rather than over-reporting potential problematic behaviors (Midanik, 1988). The third methodological concern centers on the general desire to treat correlational results as if they were true experimental results. We are fully aware of the possible "third variable" problem when explaining research findings on the basis of correlational data. Our goal was not to present a causal model of risky sex behaviors, but rather to examine the strength of the relationships among alcohol, marijuana, religiosity and risky sex behaviors. We observed that very few empirical studies had addressed the interrelationship among these variables. In future studies, we will seek to employ a randomized selection procedure.

**Future Research**

Hopefully, the research presented in this study will inspire other researchers to explore the topic of sensation seeking behaviors and risky sexual behaviors as it relates to African Americans. There is not enough research on the topic, so African American college students are not represented in the research population. The next researcher should survey a large number of African American students at HBCU's so that the population can be accurately represented.

**REFERENCES**


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1 (b.) This study was part of a much larger study conducted by Dr. Ronald Poulson on sensation seeking attitudes and its possible relationship with alcohol consumption, marijuana consumption, risky sex behaviors and religiosity. In an attempt to offer his senior level students the experience of writing and submitting a manuscript for possible publication, he elected to reduce the large study into 4 smaller manuscripts. This is the first of the four manuscripts and hence it is labeled (b). Students’ orders of authorship are based on alphabetizing of last names.

1. Niaya Patterson is a senior psychology major at Saint Augustine’s University
2. Rachel Rogers is a senior psychology major at Saint Augustine’s University
3. Laniya Young is a senior psychology major at Saint Augustine’s University
4. Daryl Farrow is the Chair of Psychology at University of Phoenix – Virginia Beach
5. Ronald Poulson is a faculty member in the Department of Psychology at Saint Augustine’s University
6. Correspondences and questions about any parts of this research project should be addressed to Dr. Ronald Lynn Poulson at the Department of Psychology, Saint Augustine’s University, Raleigh, N.C. 27610
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All e-mail enquiries should be sent to: JKHRM@intellectbase.org