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A Study of RMG in Bangladesh

Research on the Cultural Integration

Highlights

Impact of Knowledge Management

Theoretical Views of Church Services

Discovering Thoughts, Inventing Future

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Contents of the Issue

i. Copyright Notice
ii. Editorial Board Members
iii. Chief Author and Dean
iv. Contents of the Issue

1. Achievement in Training: Recorded Video Compared to Face-to-Face Environments. *1-3*
2. Dynamic Strategic and Organizational Capabilities. *5-14*
3. The Impact of Knowledge Management (KM) Strategies on Employee Job Satisfaction: A Study of RMG in Bangladesh. *15-24*
4. The Services Marketing Mix: Theoretical Views of Church Services Marketing. *25-35*
5. Research on the Cultural Integration of International Students in Universities: A Perspective of Cross-Cultural Management. *37-41*

v. Fellows
vi. Auxiliary Memberships
vii. Preferred Author Guidelines
viii. Index

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Achievement in Training: Recorded Video Compared to Face-to-Face Environments

By Kate Quigley
University of South Australia

Abstract- During the 2020-2021 years, it has been necessary for organizations to rethink how they conduct their daily operations in light of COVID-19 restrictions. One of the many activities within organizations is to provide new and recurrent training to their employees. In a similar vein, universities also had to make adaptations to instructional methods. This change provided an opportunity to compare student achievement in two different instructional modalities; one with lectures delivered in a full face-to-face format, and the other with recorded video lectures delivered in online platform. Both formats were conducted in morning and afternoon sessions. Three sets of test results were measured to compare the outcomes between two years. This study had mixed results, two of the three test results sets between the years showed no significant difference between face-to-face and recorded video lectures, while one of the three test results provided evidence that the results were different between instructional methods. The results of this study could provide applicable information to organizations and help to provide a roadmap for providing training in different formats. It is noteworthy that providing instruction in recorded video formats could be less expensive to organizations and also provide more flexibility for employees to fit recurrent t into their daily schedules.

GJMBR-A Classification: *JEL Code: M19*



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Achievement in Training: Recorded Video Compared to Face-to-Face Environments

Kate Quigley

Abstract- During the 2020-2021 years, it has been necessary for organizations to rethink how they conduct their daily operations in light of COVID-19 restrictions. One of the many activities within organizations is to provide new and recurrent training to their employees. In a similar vein, universities also had to make adaptations to instructional methods. This change provided an opportunity to compare student achievement in two different instructional modalities; one with lectures delivered in a full face-to-face format, and the other with recorded video lectures delivered in online platform. Both formats were conducted in morning and afternoon sessions. Three sets of test results were measured to compare the outcomes between two years. This study had mixed results, two of the three test results sets between the years showed no significant difference between face-to-face and recorded video lectures, while one of the three test results provided evidence that the results were different between instructional methods. The results of this study could provide applicable information to organizations and help to provide a roadmap for providing training in different formats. It is noteworthy that providing instruction in recorded video formats could be less expensive to organizations and also provide more flexibility for employees to fit recurrent t into their daily schedules.

I. Introduction

While online and face-to-face delivery have been widely examined, recent research has noted that studies need to measure learner achievement within various fields in order to determine if an online environment is a suitable substitute for a face-to-face environment (Arias, Swinton, & Anderson, 2018). In this study, achievement in a course taught by 'lecture only' was examined by comparing test results between taped video instruction delivered in an online platform and in person face-to-face environments. The aim of this research was to determine if there is a significant difference in learning outcomes by comparing the results of three test scores between students who received video lectures with students who received face-to-face lectures. It is important to note that the face-to-face environment did not have the lectures recorded. Thus, if a student missed a session, it was not possible to recreate the lecture, and the student would need to rely upon the notes of other students or discussing the subject with the instructor. This would be similar to an employee missing a training session in a face-to-face environment. In that type of a situation, the employee would need to reschedule the training for another day.

Author: University of South Australia, Mawson Lakes, 5095 Australia.
e-mail: kate.quigley@unisa.edu.au

In the online lecture environment, the lectures were recorded and posted so that learners could watch the lectures as many times as they desired. Prior research has noted that recorded lectures have both positive and negative attributes, and while higher education providers may recommend their use, it is important to measure the effectiveness of this strategy (O'Callaghan, Neumann, Jones, & Creed, 2017). Pace, intelligibility, media quality, media diversity, and congruence have been identified as important dimensions (Lange & Costley, 2020), and organizations need to define how to best reach and engage their employees through best practices.

The importance of this study is the analysis of the relationship between student achievement on standardized tests in two different environments. In this regard, it was possible to analyse if taped lectures in an online environment were a good substitute for non-recorded lectures in a face-to-face environment. Three tests taken from standardized test banks were given in the two different environments. This study shows generalizability to organizations that provide training to their employees. The main question that organizations may ask is, "Are taped training sessions given in an online platform a reasonable alternative to live face-to-face training"?

II. Literature Review

Studies have noted that learners seem to value the lecture recordings, and say that they do frequently view prior lectures in order to understand content and concepts (Leadbeater, Shutterworth, Couperthwaite, & Nightingale, 2013; O'Callaghan, Neumann, Jones, & Creed, 2017; Traphagan, Kusera, & Kishi, 2010; Pons, Walker, Hollis, & Thomas, 2013). If students are utilizing the recordings for their own learning benefit, and to have a richer understanding of concepts and content, then it seems that performance should also increase with this use.

It is important to measure achievement between learners taking courses with online lectures versus face-to face lectures (Kinash, Knight, & McLean, 2015). Studies have found mixed results between these two environments. Some studies have found that test scores are similar between online delivery and face-to-face delivery (Bigelow, 2009; Brockfeld, Müller, & de Laffoli, 2018). Other studies have found that a majority of students believe that listening to lecture recordings has

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a positive impact on their course grades. Some learners use the recordings to supplement live lectures and other students use them as a substitute for live lectures. However, others voiced that they believed they learned more from face-to-face lectures (Brockfeld, Müller, & de Laffoli, 2018). Some noted that attending face-to-face lectures are more motivating and there is additional value added by having contact with the instructor (O'Callaghan, Neumann, Jones, & Creed, 2015).

Students might not perceive that the online lectures are a good substitute for face-to-face lectures, yet, one of the benefits of having lectures recorded and available in an online environment is that students can review material at their own pace while watching lectures again. This can help them to understand difficult material or preparing for test situations (Brockfeld, Müller, & de Laffoli, 2018; Panther, Writght, &Mosse, 2012). Lee and An (2018) noted that online lectures are becoming more commonplace in a variety of settings, including those outside of academia. While learners have a positive attitude toward online lectures, it was stated that future research needs to compare the use of online lectures in various fields.

III. Research Questions and Hypotheses

RQ: How do achievement scores compare between a course with recorded lectures delivered in an online environment and a live non-recorded lecture?

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference in the grades of three standardized tests between the two environments.

IV. Research Methodology

This study was carried out on a university course in Australia. Many universities have historically been taught in a face-to-face environment, and the lectures are not recorded. This is similar to many organizations that have historically provided training in face-to-face environments. Due to the COVID-19 restrictions, it was necessary to give the lectures in an online environment These lectures were recorded, which allowed for students to re-watch the lecture materials. The only difference in years 1 and 2 was the delivery of the lectures. The lectures in Year 1 were in a face-to-face environment, but not recorded, and in Year 2the lectures were delivered and saved online. In comparing the course outlines of the two deliveries, there were no other changes.

Student achievement was measured by three standardized tests within the course. One set of tests was taken in a face-to-face environment (Year 1) and the other set of tests was taken in the environment where there were recorded lectures in an online platform (Year 2). In both years, the tests were delivered in an online environment. The two groups were independent, and the test scores were compared between the two groups. An F-test showed that the two samples had unequal variances. The three test scores between the two groups were compared by using a t-test: Two-sample assuming unequal variances.

V. Data Collection

Data collection consisted of the deidentified grades in both of the course delivery sessions. There were 84 students in Year 1, and there were 131 students in Year 2. The scores on each of the three tests were compared between Year 1 and Year 2.

VI. Data Analysis

For test 1, there was not a significant difference in the scores between those who took the test in Year 1 with face-to-face lectures, and those who took the test in Year 2 with recorded online lectures ($p = 0.36$). The results suggest that there is no significant difference in test scores between students who had face-to-face lectures, and those who had online lectures.

For test 2, there was not a significant difference in the scores between those who took the test in Year 1 with face-to-face lectures, and those who took the test in Year 2 with online lectures ($p = 0.75$). The results suggest that there is no significant difference in test scores between students who had face-to-face lectures, and those who had online lectures.

For test 3, there was a significant difference in the scores between those who took the test in Year 1 with face-to-face lectures, and those who took the test in Year 2 with online lectures ($p = 0.01$). The results suggest that there is a significant difference in test scores between students who had face-to-face lectures, and those who had online lectures. The grades for those who had face-to-face lectures appeared to have a significantly higher score than those who had online lectures.

The outcome of analysing the test results between the two groups of students show mixed results. Two of the three tests did not show a significant difference in test scores between the two environments. However, in the third test, there is a significant difference between the two groups, and the findings indicate that the face-to-face lecture group achieved higher scores than the online group. This seems to indicate that the benefits and challenges related to video online learning environments need to be examined to determine if online lectures may be a good substitute for face-to-face lectures when measuring the dimension of student achievement.

VII. Discussion

The weakness of this study is that it was purely objective in nature. Future studies might examine subjective information perhaps by using questionnaires,

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interviews, or focus groups so that student perceptions can be better understood. In a follow-up study, it might be interesting to add in a qualitative piece, which could either compare student feedback between the two courses, or to ask students this term about their perception of the online lectures. There might be differences with how students utilize materials, or their experience with online versus face-to-face lectures. Future studies might also consider examining outcomes in training environments. Much work-related training is conducted in a face-to-face environment, and it would be worthwhile to examine if the same level of understanding can be learned through an online delivery.

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Dynamic Strategic and Organizational Capabilities

By Julian Miranda Torrez

Abstract- In the reviewed literature, dispersion was identified in the concepts used in the definition of dynamic capacities (CD), incomplete theories were also observed on which the proposed concepts were based, which has hindered the development of theoretical knowledge and the conduct of research empirical. The effort of the authors to solve this problem has been partial since it was analyzed from the perspective of strategy theory, the theory of organizations and administration (TOA) was not considered, this situation affected the clarity and precision of the CD.

The objective was raised, to build the concept of dynamic strategic and organizational capacities (CDEO) based on the theories of strategy (TE), organizations (TO) and administration (TA), in order to modernize the traditional concept dynamic capabilities (CD) and provide a solution to the concept dispersion problem.

Originality. Integration of theories around the CDEO construct, which will allow the theoretical and empirical development.

Keywords: dynamic strategic, dynamic capabilities, organizations, environment, competitive advantage, organizational performance.

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Dynamic Strategic and Organizational Capabilities

Las capacidades Dinámicas Estratégicas y Organizacionales

Julian Miranda Torrez

Abstract- In the reviewed literature, dispersion was identified in the concepts used in the definition of dynamic capacities (CD), incomplete theories were also observed on which the proposed concepts were based, which has hindered the development of theoretical knowledge and the conduct of research empirical. The effort of the authors to solve this problem has been partial since it was analyzed from the perspective of strategy theory, the theory of organizations and administration (TOA) was not considered, this situation affected the clarity and precision of the CD.

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Originality. Integration of theories around the CDEO construct, which will allow the theoretical and empirical development.

Абстрактный- En la literatura revisada se identificó dispersión en los conceptos utilizados en la definición de las capacidades dinámicas (CD), también se observó teorías incompletas en la que se basaron los conceptos propuestos, lo cual ha dificultado el desarrollo del conocimiento teórico y la realización de investigaciones empíricas. El esfuerzo intelectual de los autores por solucionar este problema ha sido parcial ya que se analizó desde la perspectiva de la teoría de la estrategia, no se consideró la teoría de las organizaciones y de la administración (TOA), esta situación afectó en la claridad y precisión del constructo CD.

Se planteó el objetivo principal, construir el concepto de capacidades dinámicas estratégicas y organizacionales (CDEO) fundamentado en las teorías de la estrategia (TE), de las organizaciones (TO) y de la administración (TA), a fin de modernizar el concepto tradicional de las capacidades dinámicas (CD) y aportar una solución al problema de dispersión de conceptos.

Originalidad. Integración de teorías y diferentes perspectivas en torno al constructo CDEO, lo cual permitirá el desarrollo teórico y empírico sobre el tema.

Keywords: dynamic strategic, dynamic capabilities, organizations, environment, competitive advantage, organizational performance.

I. Introduction

La perspectiva de las CD actualmente es un tema central en la administración estratégica, tiene su influencia en la investigación teórica de las estrategias, ventaja competitiva, desempeño, creación de valor en las organizaciones, entre otros temas. A pesar de su importancia adquirida, el constructo está en proceso de construcción teórica y empírica, se presenta una dispersión en los conceptos como se muestra en el cuadro 1, en las definiciones de este constructo por ejemplo se utilizaron los siguientes términos: habilidad (Teece, Pisano y Shuen (1997), competencias (Helfat, 1997), capacidad (Collins, 1994), procesos (Vivas, 2005), lo cual ha creado varias inconsistencias en el uso del concepto (Pavlou y Sawy, 2011), por lo que ha sido criticado (Kuuluvainen, 2012); esta situación dificultó en la identificación de sus dimensiones y variables que permitan realizar investigaciones empíricas (Ambrosini y Bowman, 2009).

Una de las causas de esta problemática es debido a que no se plantea con precisión las teorías que en las que se fundamenta el concepto de CD. Teece, Pisano, y Shuen (1997) son los autores precursores del concepto, en su planteamiento parcialmente toman en cuenta la TE y no consideraron la teoría de la capacidad de la organización, tampoco las teorías de la organización y de la administración como fundamentos teóricos de las CD. Teece (2017, 2014) se propone construir una teoría de las capacidades de la empresa desde las perspectivas de la teoría de la estrategia y de la economía, para redefinir el concepto planteado en 1997; en esta propuesta ya se observa la intensión de incorporar conceptos de la teoría de las organizaciones y de la administración en el constructo. El objetivo de esta investigación ha sido el de contribuir en la construcción teórica, por lo que se ha propuesto conceptualizar el constructo CDEO fundamentado en las TE y TOA y crear una perspectiva integradora y multidimensional.

Con el objetivo de lograr el objetivo propuesto, las preguntas que guiaron las investigaciones fueron: ¿qué teorías se pueden utilizar para construir una nueva conceptualización de este constructo con una perspectiva estratégica y organizacional? ¿Qué factores contingentes inciden en la planeación e

Author: e-mail: julianmt4@gmail.com

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implementación del constructo? ¿Qué nuevos temas de investigación se proponen para profundizar en el estudio teórico y realizar investigaciones empíricas?

El documento se desarrollará en los siguientes apartados. En la primera parte, presentaremos una síntesis de las teorías en la que se fundamenta la conceptualización del constructo CDEO. En la segunda parte plantearemos la conceptualización del constructo sustentada en las teorías de la estrategia, de las organizaciones y de la administración. En la tercera parte analizaremos los factores contingentes que afectan al constructo. Finalizaremos el documento presentando las conclusiones y los temas de investigación que se puedan estudiar en el futuro.

II. Methodology

La metodología utilizada para la revisión de la literatura siguió una versión simplificada del proceso descrito por Tranfield, Denyer y Smart (2003). En primer lugar, se llevó a cabo una búsqueda simultanea de artículos publicados en la base de datos bibliográficos de Strategic Managememnt Society, Academy of Management, Cambridge University Press, Elsevier, Esmeralda, ABSCO, Oxford University Press y del Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología, que contribuyeran con los temas dynamic capabilities, organizaciones, administración y estrategias. Luego se ordenaron los artículos en función del número de citas y mayor impacto, se seleccionaron aquellos de reciente publicación y resaltaran los aspectos teóricos y conceptualizaciones del constructo objeto de estudio. En la siguiente etapa, se leyeron y sintetizaron cada uno de los artículos, se utilizó mapas conceptuales que permitieran relacionar conceptos y documentos. En síntesis, se aplicó una metodología de análisis y critica documental.

III. Teorias Fundamentales

El marco teórico de las CD tiende a reconciliar e integrar varias perspectivas y teorías, sin embargo, la mayoría de los teóricos analizaron este constructo desde la óptica de teoría de la estrategia, recientemente Teece (2017) analizó desde la perspectiva de la teoría economía, Winter (1917) en sus análisis de este constructo de manera incompleta incorpora conceptos de la TOA, Trau (2017) resalta los factores organizacionales y administrativos en las CD, pero no profundiza en sus planteamientos. Ritala, Heiman y Hurmelinna-Laukkamen (2016) resaltan que las organizaciones son un portafolio de capacidades, dinámicas y organizacionales. En los autores citados, se observa que existen diferentes teorías que sustentan las CD, sin embargo, no establecen relaciones claras entre estas teorías. Nuestro objetivo es llenar este vacío, por lo que a continuación presentaremos una descripción breve de algunas teorías directamente relacionadas con CDEO, en los anexos 1 y 2 se da un panorama general de las teorías.

a) Teorías de las organizaciones y de la administración (TOA)

Las TOA han sido poco referenciadas en el estudio de las CD, dieron mayor prioridad a la ya que, teoría de la estrategia, esta situación ha creado vacío en la información y problemas en la interpretación del concepto. Con el objetivo de solucionar esta situación en el anexo 1 se presenta un panorama amplio de las teorías, a continuación enfocaremos nuestra atención en las teorías de la contingencia y de las capacidades organizacionales al estar directamente relacionadas con CDEO.

La teoría de la contingencia

La teoría de la contingencia (Hatch, 1997; Lawrence y Lorsch, 1967), plantea la relación, la adaptación o el ajuste contingente del entorno con la organización (Volberda, Weerdt, Verwaall, Stienstra y Verdu, 2012), es decir, que la organización debe responder al dinamismo del entorno, implementando cambios estratégicos para sobrevivir y prosperar en un entorno contingente, como también, cambios que impulsen futuros desarrollos del entorno (Kim y Mauborgne, 1997). El concepto de ajuste también implica congruencia de los recursos, de las capacidades y las competencias de la organización con las condiciones cambiantes del entorno, es un alineamiento con las demandas externas (Kor y Mesco, 2012); el éxito de la organización depende del ajuste estratégico con su entorno, Rashidirad, Soltani y Syed (2013) resaltan el ajuste con la estrategia de la organización y los factores externos e internos.

El ajuste estratégico es un concepto central en la teoría de la contingencia, en la ecología poblacional, en la teoría de las organizaciones y en la administración estratégica (Volberda, Weerdt, Verwaall, Stienstra y Verdu, 2012). El concepto ajuste también implica congruencia del diseño organizacional (tecnología, estructura y cultura) y de las estrategias con las demandas del entorno, es decir, una congruencia de las variables del entorno con las variables internas de la organización, resaltándose las estrategias y las acciones como los factores claves para el asuste estratégico entre la organización y su entorno.

Por lo tanto, tomando en cuenta ambas teorías planteamos que las capacidades dinámicas más las estrategias apoyan a la organización a lograr un ajuste dinámico con el dinamismo del entorno, teniendo como resultados altos desempeños y ventaja competitiva sustentable (Rashidirad, Soltary y Salimian, 2014).

Teorías de las capacidades organizacionales (TCO)

Chandler fue el precursor en plantar la TCO en la administración, resaltó su estrecha relación con la estrategia, la estructura y el desempeño organizacional, esta teoría ha tenido una fuerte influencia en la teoría de

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la estrategia y TOA (Chandler, 1992). La capacidad organizacional (CO) es esencialmente un fenómeno social, potencialmente reside en los miembros de la organización (Ghoshal, Hahn y Moran, 1999); son aprendidas dentro de un contexto organizacional específico por lo que son difíciles de transferir de una organización a otra. Las capacidades aprendidas son unidades de análisis que permiten explicar el inicio y el crecimiento de las organizaciones modernas, los aprendizajes organizacionales permiten construir capacidades organizacionales.

Las capacidades organizacionales son: las habilidades, los conocimientos, las experiencias individuales y colectivas esenciales para explotar e intercambiar los recursos eficiente y efectivamente, permite la solución de problemas, toma de decisiones en los diferentes niveles de la estructura organizacional, la competencia administrativa, la exploración y explotación de las oportunidades en el mercado y responder a los cambios en el entorno (Chandler, 1992; Ghoshal, Hahn y Moran, 1999; Ritala, Heiman, Hurmelinnna-Laukkamen, 2016).

Las organizaciones incluyen un conjunto amplio de capacidades, habilidades, aprendizajes y experiencias centradas en el factor humano, como también, rutinas y procesos en el uso y transformación de los recursos; estos conceptos están estrechamente relacionados. Las capacidades organizacionales son más que la suma de sus partes (Chandler, 1992), su aplicabilidad está limitada por los directivos, administradores y recursos humanos ubicados en la estructura organizacional. Estos planteamientos tienen sus fundamentos en la teoría basada en los recursos y en la teoría de la contingencia (Andrews, Beynon y McDemott, 2016).

Las capacidades organizacionales están relacionadas con los conceptos estructura organizacional y con la estrategia. Las capacidades se pueden ubicar en los niveles superiores, intermedio y operativo; en la cúspide de la organización tienen características estratégicas al abarcar toda la organización y mantener una interrelación con el entorno; en el nivel intermedio se refieren a las capacidades funcionales (mercadotecnia, finanzas, recursos humanos y producción), y en los niveles bajos de la estructura tienen características de capacidades operativas. Las capacidades dinámicas se relacionan con las capacidades ubicados en la cúspide de la organización y son estratégicas al responder a los movimientos de los competidores y de lograr un ajuste estratégico con los cambios constantes en la economía, en el entorno social y político. La estrategia está relacionada con las capacidades, define el como la organización responderá a los cambios del entorno, satisfacer las expectativas de los clientes, responder a la competencia, su esencia es crear y usar la ventaja competitiva (Chandler, 1992).

Teorías de la estratégica (TE)

Chandler (1992) entre otros autores plantearon los fundamentos teóricos de la TE, analizó las relaciones entre estrategia y la estructura organizacional, la teoría de las capacidades permite relacionar la TE y TOA. Las perspectivas basadas en los recursos y el conocimiento son los antecedentes teóricos inmediatos de las CD.

La perspectiva basada en los recursos

(Barney, 1997; Denford, 2013; Teece, 2014) se origina en los trabajos de Perose (1959). Gupta (2014) plantea que las organizaciones están integradas por recursos y capacidades. Los recursos son definidos como el conjunto de conocimientos, activos físicos, capital humano, y otros factores tangibles e intangibles que las organizaciones poseen y controlan para producir productos y servicios con los objetivos de lograr ventaja competitiva en el largo plazo, crear valor para los participantes en la organización y obtener altos desempeños utilizando diversos recursos, resaltándose las características de ser evaluables, raros, difíciles de imitar y no sustituibles, disponibles en la organización y en el entorno (Peteraf, 1993; Gupta, 2014). Esta teoría es estática, por lo que se propone como una extensión la perspectiva de las capacidades dinámicas, resaltando que las características de los recursos cambian por el dinamismo del entorno (Ambrosini y Bowman, 2009). En el anexo 2 se presentan otras teorías de la estrategia.

Perspectiva tradicional de las capacidades dinámicas

El concepto de CD inicialmente fue propuesto por Teece, Pisano y Shuen (1997), posteriormente ha sido estudiado por diferentes autores. Barreto (2010) se enfocó en definir y clasificar la amplitud del concepto, Ambrosini y Bowman (2009) analizaron el desarrollo histórico del concepto e identificaron algunos de sus supuestos fundamentales, DiStefano, Peteraf y Verona (2010) realizaron un análisis de co-citación para explorar la estructura del dominio de la investigación de este tema a fin de lograr un mejor entendimiento de sus orígenes del concepto, estado actual y desarrollo futuro por medio de la investigación, Peteraf, Stefano y Verona (2013) utilizaron la técnica de medición bibliográfica para analizar a los autores más citados sobre el concepto (Vogel y Guttel, 2013). La aportación de estos autores al desarrollo del concepto fue parcial, ya que no proponen una definición integral, utilizaron diferentes términos y enfoques teóricos para definir este constructo, como se muestra en la tabla 1.

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Tabla 1: Definiciones de capacidades dinámicas (CD)

Autores	Definiciones de capacidades dinámicas
Teece, Pisano y Shuen (1997)	La habilidad de la firma para integrar, construir y reconfigurar competencias internas y externas en función de cambios rápidos en el entorno.
Helfat (1997)	El subconjunto de competencias /capacidades, las cuales permiten a la firma crear nuevos productos y procesos, y responder a las circunstancias de mercado cambiantes.
Collins (1994)	La capacidad para desarrollar e innovar más rápidamente.
Vivas (2005)	Las capacidades dinámicas son complejos procesos organizacionales de alto nivel, las cuales proporcionan las condiciones adecuadas para la modificación y renovación de los activos de la organización
Eisenhard y Martin (2000)	Los procesos de la firma que utilizan recursos -específicamente los procesos para integrar, reconfiguran, obtener y liberar recursos- para ajustarse a aun crear cambios en el mercado. Las CD son las rutinas organizacionales y estratégicas por las cuales las firmas logran nuevas configuraciones de recursos mientras el mercado emerge, colisiona, se divide, evoluciona o muere.
Zahra y George (2002)	Capacidades orientadas al cambio, que ayudan a las organizaciones reutilizar y reconfigurar sus bases de recursos para cumplir con las demandas de los clientes y enfrentar las estrategias de la competencia.
Winter (2003)	Capacidades que operan para extender, modificar o crear las capacidades ordinarias o sustantivas.
Teece (2017)	Las CD son competencias de alto nivel que determinan la habilidad de una firma para integrar, construir y reconfigurar competencias/recursos internos y externos para enfrentar entornos de negocios de alto dinamismo. Ellas determinan la velocidad y el alcance con que los recursos de la firma pueden ser alineados y realineados para ajustarse a las oportunidades del entorno de negocios así como generar rentas sostenibles extraordinarias. Las CD pueden ser útiles para tres tipos de actividades: 1) identificación y evaluación de una oportunidad (sensing); 2) movilización de recursos para aprovechar una oportunidad y capturar valor al hacerlo (seizing); y 3) renovarse continuamente (transforming).

Fuente: elaboración propia

En la tabla 1 se observa que los autores utilizaron diferentes términos para conceptualizar CD, por ejemplo: habilidad (Teece, Pisano y Shuen (1997), competencias (Helfat, 1997), capacidad (Collins, 1994), procesos (Vivas, 2005), lo cual ha creado varias inconsistencias en el uso del concepto CD (Pavlou y Sawy, 2011), por lo que ha sido criticado (Kuuluvainen, 2012); las propuestas de conceptos dispersaron su significado elevando el nivel de abstracción y complejidad del constructo (Dierickx y Cool, 1989), esta situación dificultó en la identificación de sus dimensiones y variables en la realización de investigaciones empíricas (Ambrosini y Bowman, 2009).

Refiriéndonos de manera más específica a la definición de CD propuesto por Teece, Pisano y Shuen (1997), se observan que los autores solo se refieren a las competencias internas y externas, no toman en cuenta otros aspectos de la organización como la cultura, la estructura, toma de deciones, modelo de negocio. En esta definición hay ausencia de los conceptos administrativos.

b) *Construcción del concepto de las capacidades dinámicas estratégicas y organizacionales*

Los planteamientos tradicionales de las CD han sido abordados a partir de la teoría de la estratégica y no se tomó en cuenta las TOA, esta situación tiende a cambiar como ejemplos se presentan los siguientes avances: Easterby-Smith y Prieto (2008) relaciona las CD con la administración del conocimiento, Teece (2017) realiza una revisión crítica de la teoría de la firma (organización) y de la teoría neoclásica de la economía como antecedentes de la teoría de la capacidad, plantea que las empresas son organizaciones con capacidades y estrategias, Manning, Hutzschenreuter y Strathmann (2012) analizaron la relación de la administración con las CD, resaltaron que la interrelación de las habilidades individuales y las rutinas organizacionales requieren la interface de la administración, es decir, de las actividades de comunicación, operación, procesos, financieros y de mercadotecnia. En el planteamiento clásico de las CD estas actividades administrativas son secundarias y en muchos casos no son tomados en cuenta.

Las teorías de las organizaciones y de la administración (TOA) permiten explicar desde una perspectiva amplia y multidimensional el funcionamiento y desarrollo de las organizaciones, así como, sus relaciones con el entorno. Las organizaciones incluyen un conjunto amplio de capacidades, rutinas, procesos, toma de decisiones (Simón, 1979) entre otros temas,

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los cuales son agrupados en el constructo capacidades organizacionales (CO).

La teoría de la estrategia (TE) incluye una temática muy amplia, algunos temas son presentados en el anexo 2 relacionadas con la perspectiva de las CD. Estos planteamientos teóricos son agrupados en el constructo estrategia.

La interrelación de las teorías TOA con la TE permiten plantear una nueva perspectiva integral de las CDEO, es decir que este constructo es hibrido al estar relacionado con un amplio conjunto de teorías. Esta propuesta es un aporte significativo en la construcción de la teoría de las capacidades dinámicas, permite fortalecer los planteamientos de Teece (2017), y solucionar el problema de la dispersión de los términos utilizados en la conceptualización de este constructo.

Tomando en cuenta los insumos teóricos que anteceden planteamos la conceptualización de CDEO: son las habilidades individuales y colectivas de utilizar, crear, transformar recursos y decidir implementar las estrategias y las capacidades organizacionales para responder rápidamente al dinamismo del entorno y a las necesidades de la organización, a fin de mantener la ventaja competitiva, e incrementar constantemente el desempeño organizacional. Esta conceptualización se sustenta en los autores como se muestra en meta-cuadro 2, los insumos teóricos se presentan en los anexos 1 (TOA) y 2 (TE) y en los cuadros 1, 2, 3, y 4.

Tabla 2: Fundamentación teórica de CDEO

Conceptos utilizados en CDEO	Autores en las que se sustenta
Organización	March y Simón (1980); Augier y Teece (2006); Winter (2017); Trau (2017)
Habilidades	Cuadro 1, Barnard (1938)
Individuales y colectivas	Helfat y Peteraf (2015); Helfat y Peteraf (2015); Grupta (2014); Gary y Wood (2011).
Utilizar, crear y transformar (mas otras estrategias)	Tabla 3
Recursos (y otros aspectos como las competencias, capacidades, conocimientos, modelos de negocios, activos)	Barney (1997); Denford (2013); Teece (2014); Grant (1996); Braganza, Brooks, Nepelski, Ali y Moro (2017); Zheng, Zhang, Wu y Du (2011
Decidir implementar	Luhmann (2012); Simón (1979); Barnard (1938)
Las estrategias	Cuadro 3; Mintzberg (1989); Chandler (1992);
Capacidades organizacionales	Chandler (1992); Tseng y Lee (2014); Tzortzki y Mihiotis (2014); Ritala, Heiman, Hurmelinnna-Laukkamen (2016); Ghoshal, Hahn y Moran (1999); Andrews, Beynon y McDemott (2016); Ulrich y Lake (1991); Teece (2017, 2014)
Responder rápidamente	Ambrosini y Bowman (2009);
Dinamismo del entorno	Wang (2016); Shara y Vredenburg (1998); Gupta (2014);
Necesidades de la organización	Rashidirad, Soltani y Salimian (2014); Foss, Lyngsie y Zahra, (2013); Fainshmidt y Frazier (2016); Gupta (2014); Mintzberg (1989)
Ventaja competitiva	(Schilke, 2014); Porter (1987); Rashidirad, Soltani y Syed (2013).
Desempeño organizacional	Laaksone y Peltoniemi (2016); Miranda, 2014)

Fuente: Elaboración propia

En el concepto de CDEO propuesto resalta los siguientes aspectos:

- Permite unificar los conceptos que dispersaron la naturaleza de las CD.
- Contribuye en unificar las TOA con TE, campos del conocimiento que se han desarrollado en forma paralela, por lo tanto, esta perspectiva permite ampliar las relaciones de las comunidades académicas e interactuar en la discusión sobre el constructo.
- Facilita el desarrollo de nuevos conocimientos teóricos y realizar investigaciones con mayor impacto con una perspectiva multidimensional y multifactorial.

En los planteamientos tradicionales de las CD parcialmente tomaron en cuenta las estrategias como respuesta al dinamismo del entorno. En el concepto estrategias se incluyen las acciones, actividades y los procesos planeados e implementados por los directivos que ocupan puestos en la alta gerencia, o las funciones que realizan los ejecutivos para responder al dinamismo del entorno y cumplir con las necesidades de la organización, con los objetivos de mantener una ventaja competitiva e incrementar constantemente el desempeño organización en cumplimiento de objetivos estratégicos. En la tabla 3 se presenta ejemplos de estrategias que apoyan la realización de las CDEO.

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Tabla 3: Estrategias

Estrategias	Autores
Integrar	Teece, Pisano y Shuen (1997); Denford (2013);
Reconstruir	Teece, Pisano y Shuen (1997);
Reconfigurar	Zahra y George (2002); Denford (2013)
Crear	Helfat (1997); Denford (2013)
Desarrollar	Collins (1994); Denford (2013);
Innovar	Grimaldi, Quinto y Rippa (2013); Breznik, Hisrich, (2014)
Modificar, renovar, extender	Standler, Helfat y Verona (2013)
Absorber conocimiento del entorno	Cohen y Levintahl (1990)
Buscar (sensing) y aprovechar (seizing) las oportunidades externas	Kuuluvainen (2012); Enkel, Roseno y Mezger (2012); Pavlou y Sawy (2011); Grimaldi, Quinto y Rippa (2013)
Transformar la organización	Dixon, Meyer y Day (2010)
Replicar	Denford (2013)
Desarrollar (productos, procesos)	Schilke (2014)

Fuente: Elaboración propia

Niveles de dinamismo de las CDEO

En la definición propuesta se resalta el término dinámico, refiriéndose a la forma ágil en tiempo y forma de planear e implementar las estrategias, acciones y procesos más rápido que la competencia, es decir, es la agilidad de la organización en responder en forma proactiva o reactivamente al dinamismo del entorno (Shara y Vredenburg, 1998). Las CDEO proactivos modifican las características del entorno, de la industria y del mercado; y los reactivos son las respuestas que se realizan en las organizaciones de manera oportuna a los impactos del entorno a fin de lograr el ajuste estratégico.

El dinamismo se presentas en tres niveles: en el primer nivel, los cambios dinámicos se realizan en el entorno, en los mercados, en los sectores industriales, en la competencia, en los proveedores de insumos, servicios y productos; así como, cambios en los gobiernos y sistemas políticos regionales y a nivel global. El segundo nivel, corresponde a los cambios dinámicos que ocurren dentro de las organizaciones: son las modificaciones y reingeniería de los procesos, reconfiguración de los modelos de negocios, innovaciones dinámicas en la tecnología, productos y servicios. En el tercer nivel, el cambio dinámico se presenta en las relaciones de los entornos con las organizaciones.

Los tres niveles de dinamismo están estrechamente relacionados, interactúan siguiendo procesos no causales o de causalidad múltiple, con la organización en su relación con los entornos dinámicos y complejos.

Por lo tanto, el concepto de CDEO que se propone es multidimensional ya que incluye los tres niveles de dinamismo. Cada nivel es un sistema que incluye las interrelaciones multicausales no lineales entre sus variables formando modelos complejos.

Las CDEO pueden ser deliberadamente planeadas o surgir a través de procesos emergentes (Ambrosini y Bowman, 2009). Son deliberados cuando los entornos son estables, las estrategias, acciones y procesos son planeados e implementados siguiendo procesos formales y burocráticos; surgen CDEO emergentes cuando los entornos son altamente dinámicos y complejos, es decir, que las estrategias, acciones y procesos no son planeados de manera formal, son respuestas rápidas de la organización a las contingencias del entorno. Por lo tanto, las CDEO dependen de las características de los entornos y de la organización. El entorno se caracteriza por su dinamismo, complejidad e incertidumbre que crea nuevas oportunidades de negocios y presiones competitivas de los participantes externos (clientes, proveedores, nuevas organizaciones que entran a la industria). Las organizaciones se caracterizan por su arreglo organizacional (Mitzberg, 1989) y por su agilidad en la elección de las mejores estrategias acciones y procesos para dar respuesta al dinamismo y a las condiciones emergentes en los entornos.

Factores contingentes que inciden las CDEO

La planeación e implementación de las CDEO son afectados por el dinamismo del entorno, las características de las organizaciones, y por las capacidades cognitivas de los directivos y de los recursos humanos que participan en la organización. En el cuadro 4 se presentan los autores que la respaldan los factores contingentes.

Factor 1: El dinamismo del entorno

En la conceptualización de las capacidades dinámicas, el dinamismo del entorno es uno de los factores claves que impactan en el desarrollo de las organizaciones. En este tema, se incluye el dinamismo y la evolución de los mercados, cambios en la economía, surgimiento de nuevos segmentos de consumidores, la libre competencia, innovación de sistemas de producción y distribución de productos a nivel internacional. El cambio actual en la tecnología disminuye los ciclos de vida de los productos, lo cual se agiliza con la competencia global, y la rápida difusión de los conocimientos (Gupta, 2014). Los entornos

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dinámicos del mercado erosionan el valor del conocimiento organizacional y las capacidades centrales, lo cual incide en la utilización de los recursos, en la configuración de los modelos de negocios, en las capacidades y competencia de los participantes en la organización. Frente a esta situación los directivos de las organizaciones reconfiguran sus recursos, actualizan sus bases de conocimientos, implementan nuevas estrategias, acciones y procesos organizacionales para adaptarse al dinamismo del entorno, es decir, planean e implementan CDEO.

Factor 2: Las características de la organización

Las características de la organización es un tema muy amplio, incluye: la estructura y clima organizacional, el tamaño, la antigüedad, la edad, los procesos, y el modelo de negocios. Estructura de la autoridad y flujos de comunicación e información formal e informal dentro de la organización y con los participantes externos, estos aspectos inciden en la formación de las CD (Rashidirad, Soltani y Salimian, 2014). El diseño organizacional, centralización o descentralización, facilita significativamente el uso de los conocimientos en la innovación de los procesos de desarrollo de los portafolios de capacidades organizacionales, de productos y en las actividades de investigación y desarrollo, así como, en las decisiones de explotar las oportunidades estratégicas, así como, de planear e implementar capacidades dinámicas (Foss, Lyngsie y Zahra, 2013).

Factor 3: Las capacidades cognitivas de los recursos humanos

En la organización los recursos humanos son el factor principal en la implementación de las CDEO, los factores cognitivos y los modelos mentales de estos recursos tienen un impacto positivo o negativo en el funcionamiento de las organizaciones y en la implementación de las capacidades. Helfat y Peteraf (2015) analizaron como la heterogeneidad de las capacidades cognitivas podrá producir heterogeneidad de las capacidades dinámicas entre los altos directivos, lo cual también incide en lograr diferentes desempeños organizacionales. Miranda (2014) plantea que los factores cognitivos (por ejemplo, memoria del pasado, percepciones acerca del presente, y expectativas del futuro), emotivos (por ejemplo, intereses y preferencias personales) y las relaciones entre las personas afectan al desarrollo de las capacidades dinámicas, a las decisiones estratégicas efectivas, a la ventaja competitiva sustentable y a la efectividad organizacional. Gary y Wood (2011) plantean que los modelos mentales administrativos son determinantes críticos de la elección y decisiones de implementar estrategias (Simón, 1979), ya que son estructuras de conocimientos simplificados o representaciones cognitivas acerca del entorno y de las áreas de trabajo de los negocios. Los directivos de las organizaciones tienen modelos mentales que incluye la organización y el dinamismo del entorno que incide en el desempeño. Las diferencias en modelos mentales ayudan a explicar por qué los administradores adoptan diferentes estrategias y logran diferentes niveles de éxito. En el tabla 4 se sintetizas estos factores.

Tabla 4: Factores contingentes en los constructos del modelo

Factores contingentes	Autores
Dinamismo del entorno: mercado, economía, sistemas políticos de los países, diversas contingencias actuales y emergencia de nuevas	Gupta (2014.
Características de la organización: modelo de negocios, tamaño, antigüedad, edad, procesos, clima y diseño organizacional.	Rashidirad, Soltari y Salimian (2014); Fainshmidt y Frazier (2016); Gupta (2014); Foss, Lyngsie y Zahra (2013).
Capacidades cognitivas, modelos mentales de los participantes en la organización, factores emocionales, comportamientos relacionales	Helfat y Peteraf (2015); Grupta (2014); Gary y Wood (2011).

Fuente: Elaboración propia

IV. Conclusion

Se dio el primer paso en la construcción teórica de las CDEO, es una alternativa para solucionar la dispersión de los términos utilizados para definir el concepto tradicional de las capacidades dinámicas inicialmente propuesta por Teece, Pisano y Shuen (1997), creador de esta perspectiva. En esta misma perspectiva Teece (2017) realiza un aporte muy importante en la construcción del concepto

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capacidades tomando como marco teórico la economía y la estrategia, pero no considera las teorías de la organización y de la administración. Nuestro aporte tiene por objetivo llenar este vacío en la teoría. Ambos aportes permitirán construir una perspectiva integral y multidimensional que permita una comprensión completa de las organizaciones y facilitarán la realización de investigaciones teóricas, empíricas y de aplicación práctica.

CDEO es una perspectiva híbrida, ya que integra grandes campos del conocimiento que han evolucionado de manera paralela, las teorías de las organizaciones, de la administración, de la estrategia. Permitirá relacionar academias de intelectuales e investigadores en torno a temas de interés común.

Reconocemos que nuestro aporte puede ser mejorado con las críticas, comentarios y aportes de la comunidad académica. Hemos aceptado el desafío de construir teoría teniendo en mente que en México y América Latina se tiene los recursos y las capacidades para dar un aporte significativo al desarrollo del conocimiento.

En necesario profundizar el estudio en los siguientes temas: identificar las dimensiones del constructo a fin de realizar estudios empíricos; aplicar el concepto en diferentes tipos de organizaciones teniendo en cuenta su tamaño, orientando el estudio en las medianas y pequeñas empresas.

Nuestro aporte es teórico, es necesario realizar estudios empíricos teniendo en cuenta la realidad de las organizaciones mexicanas y latinoamericana, aplicando metodologías cualitativas y cuantitativas.

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The Impact of Knowledge Management (KM) Strategies on Employee Job Satisfaction: A Study of RMG in Bangladesh

By Md. Hasan Mia & Md. Abdul Kayum Chowdhuary
University of Dhaka

Abstract- Knowledge management (KM) strategy is a crucial part of personnel management and retention of talents. This paper aims at identifying the impact and relation of knowledge management on employee satisfaction. The study is based on hypothesis and the data was collected by a questionnaire survey from 35 employees of reputed garments organization of Bangladesh. Satisfactions rely on factors like compensation structure, user friendly, relation with co-worker, autonomy, workload etc. The core findings of the study is codified strategy is more user friendly, but the practice of tacit strategy with proper incentives increase the overall satisfaction of employee though there are more workload. The employees are more comfortable with tacit strategy than codified strategy. The study is only focused on garments employee where KM strategy is widely practice all spheres of Human Resource Management (HRM). However, The paper reveal how KM strategy can increase employee satisfaction. The HR people and decision maker can understand and design appropriate KM strategy from this study. Therefore, organization also can manage and retain the talents by designing and applying findings of the study.

Keywords: *KM strategy, satisfaction, codified & tacit strategy, bangladesh.*

GJMBR-A Classification: *JEL Code: J28*



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The Impact of Knowledge Management (KM) Strategies on Employee Job Satisfaction: A Study of RMG in Bangladesh

Md. Hasan Mia[α] & Md. Abdul Kayum Chowdhuary[σ]

Abstract- Knowledge management (KM) strategy is a crucial part of personnel management and retention of talents. This paper aims at identifying the impact and relation of knowledge management on employee satisfaction. The study is based on hypothesis and the data was collected by a questionnaire survey from 35 employees of reputed garments organization of Bangladesh. Satisfactions rely on factors like compensation structure, user friendly, relation with co-worker, autonomy, workload etc. The core findings of the study is codified strategy is more user friendly, but the practice of tacit strategy with proper incentives increase the overall satisfaction of employee though there are more workload. The employees are more comfortable with tacit strategy than codified strategy. The study is only focused on garments employee where KM strategy is widely practice all spheres of Human Resource Management (HRM). However, The paper reveal how KM strategy can increase employee satisfaction. The HR people and decision maker can understand and design appropriate KM strategy from this study. Therefore, organization also can manage and retain the talents by designing and applying findings of the study.

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I. Introduction

The world is constantly changing due to globalization. The companies that choose the knowledge-based economy are advancing competition from other organizations through the use of information, communication and technology. We can see in history that, big organization practice first management philosophies. Like, enterprise resource planning (ERP), business process re-engineering (BPR) and total quality management (TQM). Because big organizations can deals with large amount of people both internal and external. Now, almost all organizations are prioritizing knowledge management in their work to survive the competition in the private sector (Cong & Pandya, 2003). Although the term knowledge management is new, it is actually a unified form of institutional work called knowledge management (Dadashkarimi & MohammadiAsl, 2013). Now the question is what is knowledge and knowledge management? Knowledge means theoretical and practical understanding in a specific subject (Murry, 1884). Knowledge management is the process of knowledge creation, preservation, organization, dissemination and use. Knowledge management is based on the assumption that firms have a high volume of data. This information is made up of a combination of reports, financial information, etc.(Cong, Li-Hua, & Stonehouse, 2007). Knowledge management strategies can lead to design, spread and employ of knowledge for achieving objectives of the organization (Adhikari, 2010). For use knowledge management successfully organization needs to evaluate the strategy they use. In evaluation, they need to figure out the existing infrastructure both technological and technical, organizational strategies and its level of importance and organizational, commercial and cultural infrastructures (Dadashkarimi & MohammadiAsl, 2013). In Bangladesh, Ready Made Garments (RMG) is a big sector in economy. Over 3.6 million people are related with it. In international business resent years, Bangladesh faces a huge challenge from China, India, Philippines and Cambodia etc. (Asiatic Foundation, 2017). To survive in competitive world Bangladesh needs skilled manpower. So, knowledge management strategies must be an important element in here. Without that RMG sector must not compete with other nations. To compete with other nations, known about customers need is important part. Again, to find out the better output, HR needs to find out the way to perform better from employees. That's why HR needs to relate on knowledge management strategies with job satisfaction. Knowledge management strategies can figure out the needs of employees and customers. In this report, we try to make effects of knowledge management strategies on employee job satisfaction for selected RMG. The dimension of the study in term of geographical area covered several garments in Dhaka and Narayanganj which can generalize on all over the sector. As the research is focused on the effects of knowledge management strategies on employee job satisfaction for selected RMG in Bangladesh.

II. Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study is to address how the knowledge management strategies react, find out

Author α: Student, Department of Management, University of Dhaka.
e-mail: hasandu150@gmail.com
Author σ: Lecturer, Serajabad Rana Shafiullah College, Munshiganj.

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how codification strategy influences employee job satisfaction and find out how tacit knowledge strategy influences employee job satisfaction.

III. Literature Review

a) Knowledge

According to Khanal & Poudel (2017) "Knowledge is defined as (i) expertise, and skills acquired by a person through experience or education; (ii) the theoretical or practical understanding of a subject, (iii) what is known in a particular field and (iv) awareness or familiarity gained by experience of a fact or situation". Knowledge is dynamic and static in nature; and it also provides a formal structure for assessment, employment and new particulars. (Nunaka and Hirotaka, 2006)

b) Knowledge Management

Knowledge management a way of generating, obtaining, perceiving, providing and utilizing knowledge for knowledge acquisition and performance accomplishment (Scarborough et al 1999). The ingenuity and proficiency of employees enhance the value of companies in knowledge management (Mecklenberg et al 1999). Knowledge management assumes that there has huge amount of data which provides formalized information using different methods and procedures in the organization. (Iranshahi, 2007). Knowledge management enables individuals to increase their proficiency and ability through sharing knowledge and learning experiences. (Cong and Pandya, 2003).

c) Strategy

When we ponder ourselves and are engaged in a situation we need to compete with some facts called strategy (Torkashvand, 2002). There is generally two strategy approaches; general strategy and company strategy. (Whittington, 2001). According to Athapaththu (2016) "A strategy is a plan of actions that one use to formulate goals and objectives and the means of achieving these goals and objectives." A strategy can be a plan, a pattern, a perspective, a position and also it can be a ploy or a maneuver which can help an organization to avoid its competitors (Mintsberg, 1994).

d) Knowledge Management Strategy

There are two types of knowledge management strategies; tacit and explicit (Inkpen & Dinur, 1998).Hansen et al (1999) pointed out two approaches of Knowledge management; codification and personalization strategy. Processes of Knowledge management lead to design, spread and employ of knowledge for achieving objectives of the organization (Adhikari, 2010). McAdam and Reid (2000) compared the public sector and private sector with regard to KM using the socially constructed model for the KM strategies.

e) Codified Strategy

Codified or Explicit knowledge is the articulation of symbols through which communication is done with other people. (Schulz & Jobe, 2001; Hill & Ende, 1994; Spender, 199; Nelson & Winter, 1982). Codified strategy which proceeds more efficiently aroung the organization, is easier to transmit than tacitness Strategy. (Kogut & Zander, 1993). Codified strategy presents rapid and authentic entry to organizational proficiency across the organization (Schulz & Jobe, 2001).

f) Tacit or Personalized Strategy

Tacit Strategy is introduced to reduce the cost of codification strategy, to avoid the disruption of internet and burdens of information. (Schulz & Jobe, 2001) Tacitness knowledge is difficult to communicate and articulate through sign and symbols with other people. (Schulz & Jobe, 2001; Hill & Ende, 1994; Nelson & Winter, 1982; Spender, 1993) Tacit knowledge excites ingenuity, ''creative mayhem,'' and artistic structure of acknowledgement and collaboration. (Murnighan & Conlon, 1991).

g) Employee Job Satisfaction

Employee Job Satisfaction is the level of distinctive notion both positive and negative; and Employees will be satisfied because of high salary, good interpersonal relationship among employees and between employee and employer etc where preordained goals and objectives can be gained through utmost use of resources which exist within the organization. (Khanal & Poudel, 2017) Knowledge management strategies helps to form domestic environment through knowledge for public service employees (Bridgman and Davis, 2004). There is no one definition that summarizes job satisfaction (Singh, 2012). Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state, resulting from the appraisal of one's job experiences. In simply, job satisfaction refers to "the degree to which people like their jobs" (Spector, 1997). Scholars use the concept to show a combination of employee feelings towards the different facets of employee job satisfaction such as the nature of the work itself, promotion opportunities, level of pay and satisfaction with co-workers (Schermerhorn et al., 2005). Employee job satisfaction come from two set of findings, first of all it realted with productivity and organizations commitment, lower absenteeism turnover and increase organizational productivity (Ellickson and Logsdon, 2001). According to Wright and Davis (2003), the benefits like autonomy, compensation, promotion opportunity, good training programs that employees receive from their organisations influence the skill, effort, creativity and productivity that they are willing to give in return. Again, the second important finding is that low job satisfaction coming from huge workload, unfriendly environment has negative outcomes, such as withdrawal behaviour,

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increasing costs, decreasing profits and, eventually, customer dissatisfaction (Zeffane et al., 2008). Knowledge management strategies and process have an impact on employee job satisfaction like feedback, relationship with co-workers. (Niu, 2010).

IV. Methodology

In this study, both primary and secondary data was used. The primary data was collected from questionnaire survey. The secondary data was collected from annual report of BGMEA related journal, article, newspaper, websites and so on. The study is based on quantitative analysis. There are so many garments industry in Bangladesh, hence the population is unknown. For collecting primary data, ten most renowned garments organizations (such as Ha-Meem group, Beximco Fashion Ltd, Square Fashions Ltd. Opex Sinha Group, Fakir Group, DBL Group, Epyllion Group, Standard Group, Asian Apparels Ltd. and Givensee Group of Industries Ltd.) have been surveyed to represent the industry. The primary data was collected with the help of questionnaire survey. To serve this purpose, a sample of 35 employees of representative garments industry was taken. Convenience sampling method used in this regard. For collecting primary data, a questionnaire containing ten (10) questions regarding Codified Strategy and Tacit or personalized Strategy of Knowledge Management on Employee job satisfaction. Questionnaire was designed on Likert scale.

Conceptual Framework

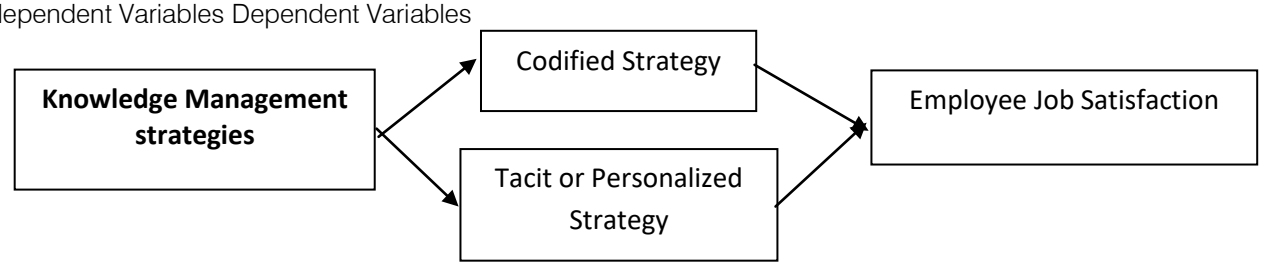


Figure 1: Variables

Variables: There are two types of variables like, Independent variables; Codification strategy and Tacit and dependent variables under employee job satisfaction; User friendly, autonomy, workload, promotion opportunity, good compensation structure, effective feedback, relationship between employees and co-workers, computerized skill, effective training programs.

V. Analysis & Findings

a) Respondent Profile

Demographics	Sub-sector	Percentage
Department	Human Resource	23
	Sale & Marketing	20
	Finance & Accounting	17
	Spinning Division	15
	Engineer	15
	Security & Protocol	11
Age	20-30 Years	74
	31-40 Years	18
	Above 40 Years	8
Gender	Male	56
	Female	44
Tenure	Less than 1 year	37
	1-5 Years	40
	5-15 Years	13

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b) Factor Analysis

User Friendly: Codified strategy is more user friendly.

Table 1: Mean, SD calculation for response regarding user friendly

Occurrence (x)	Frequency (f)	f*x	x-Mean	$(x\text{-Mean})^2$	$f*(x\text{-Mean})^2$
1	9	9	-1.71	2.94	26.45
2	8	16	-0.71	0.51	4.08
3	7	21	0.29	0.08	0.57
4	6	24	1.29	1.65	9.92
5	5	25	2.29	5.22	26.12
Total	35	95	1.43	10.41	67.14
Mean score	2.71				
SD	1.41				

Among all the respondents, 26% respondents were strongly disagree, 23% respondents were disagree, 20% respondents were neutral, 17% respondents were agree and 14% were strongly agree. The mean value of this statement is 2.71, which indicates that respondent were more than disagree with the statement.

1. Null hypothesis: Codified strategy is more user friendly. (Assume that the mean value of null hypothesis is 3)
2. Alternative hypothesis: Codified strategy is not more user friendly.

We reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. The z score of -1.22 is in the rejection area. The critical value (cutoff point) is 1.645. In left-tail hypothesis testing, any z score less than the critical value will be rejected. Since -1.22 is less than 1.645, we reject the null hypothesis. We accept the alternative hypothesis.

Autonomy: Employees entertain more autonomy in Personalized or Tacit strategy

Table 2: Mean, SD calculation for response regarding autonomy

Occurrence (x)	Frequency (f)	f*x	x-Mean	$(x\text{-Mean})^2$	$f*(x\text{-Mean})^2$
1	3	3	-2.69	7.21	21.64
2	5	10	-1.69	2.84	14.21
3	4	12	-0.69	0.47	1.88
4	11	44	0.31	0.10	1.09
5	12	60	1.31	1.73	20.73
Total	35	129	-3.43	12.35	59.54
Mean score	3.69				
SD	1.32				

Among all the respondents, 9% respondents were strongly disagree, 14% respondents were disagree, 11% respondents were neutral, 32% respondents were agree and 34% were strongly agree. The mean value of this statement is 3.69 which indicates that respondents are more than neutral and close to agree with this statement.

1. Null hypothesis: Employees entertain more autonomy in Personalized or Tacit strategy (Assume that the mean value of null hypothesis is 3)
2. Alternative hypothesis: Employees don't entertain more autonomy in Personalization or tacitness strategy

The z score of 3.09 is within the non-rejection area. The critical value (cutoff point) is 1.645. In left-tail hypothesis testing, any z score greater than the critical value cannot be rejected. Since 3.09 is greater than 1.645, we cannot reject the null hypothesis.

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Workload: Employees face more workload in Personalized or Tacit strategy

Table 3: Mean, SD calculation for response regarding workload

Occurrence (x)	Frequency (f)	f*x	x-Mean	$(x\text{-Mean})^2$	$f*(x\text{-Mean})^2$
1	6	6	-2.43	5.90	35.39
2	4	8	-1.43	2.04	8.16
3	5	15	-0.43	0.18	0.92
4	9	36	0.57	0.33	2.94
5	11	55	1.57	2.47	27.16
Total	35	120	-2.14	10.92	74.57
Mean score	3.43				
SD	1.48				

Among all the respondents, 17% respondents were strongly disagree, 11% respondents were disagree, 14% respondents were neutral, 26% respondents were agree and 32% were strongly agree. The mean value of this statement is 3.43 which indicates that respondents are more than neutral and close to agree with this statement.

1. Null hypothesis: Employees face more workload in Personalized or Tacit strategy (Assume that the mean value of null hypothesis is 3)
2. Alternative hypothesis: Employees don't face more workload in Personalized or Tacit strategy.

The z score of 1.72 is within the non-rejection area. The critical value (cutoff point) is 1.645. In left-tail hypothesis testing, any z score greater than the critical value cannot be rejected. Since 1.72 is greater than 1.645, we cannot reject the null hypothesis.

Promotion Opportunity: There is good promotion opportunity for employees who use codified strategy

Table 4: Mean, SD calculation for response regarding promotion opportunity

Occurance (x)	Frequency (f)	f*x	x-Mean	$(x\text{-Mean})^2$	$f*(x\text{-Mean})^2$
1	4	4	-2.31	5.36	21.42
2	7	14	-1.31	1.73	12.09
3	5	15	-0.31	0.10	0.49
4	12	48	0.69	0.47	5.64
5	7	35	1.69	2.84	19.89
Total	35	116	-1.57	10.49	59.54
Mean score	3.31				
SD	1.32				

Among all the respondents, 12% respondents were strongly disagree, 20% respondents were disagree, 14% respondents were neutral, 34% respondents were agree and 20% were strongly agree. The mean value of this statement is 3.31 which indicates that respondents are more than neutral and close to agree with this statement.

1. Null hypothesis: There is good promotion opportunity for employees who use codified strategy. (Assume that the mean value of null hypothesis is 3)
2. Alternative hypothesis: There is no good promotion opportunity for employees who use codified strategy.

The z score of 1.39 is within the non-rejection area. The critical value (cutoff point) is 1.645. In right-tail hypothesis testing, any z score less than the critical value cannot be rejected. Since 1.39 is less than 1.645, we cannot reject the null hypothesis.

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Compensation structure: Compensation structure is well designed when applying Personalized or Tacit strategy

Table 5: Mean, SD calculation for response regarding compensation structure

Occurance (x)	Frequency (f)	f*x	x-Mean	$(x\text{-Mean})^2$	$f*(x\text{-Mean})^2$
1	5	5	-1.83	3.34	16.72
2	12	24	-0.83	0.69	8.24
3	8	24	0.17	0.03	0.24
4	4	16	1.17	1.37	5.49
5	6	30	2.17	4.72	28.29
Total	35	99	0.86	10.15	58.97
Mean score	2.83				
SD	1.32				

Among all the respondents, 14% respondents were strongly disagree, 34% respondents were disagree, 23% respondents were neutral, 12% respondents were agree and 17% were strongly agree. The mean value of this statement is 2.83 which indicates that respondents are disagree but close to neutral.

1. Null hypothesis: Compensation structure is well designed when applying Personalized or Tacit strategy. (Assume that the mean value of null hypothesis is 3)
2. Alternative hypothesis: Compensation structure is not well designed when applying Personalized or Tacit strategy

The z score of -0.76 is in the rejection area. The critical value (cutoff point) is 1.645. In left-tail hypothesis testing, any z score less than the critical value will be rejected. Since -0.76 is less than 1.645, we reject the null hypothesis. We accept the alternative hypothesis.

Feedback: Employees get effective feedback in Codified strategy

Table 6: Mean, SD calculation for response regarding feedback (Next page)

Occurance (x)	Frequency (f)	f*x	x-Mean	$(x\text{-Mean})^2$	$f*(x\text{-Mean})^2$
1	17	17	-1.29	1.65	28.10
2	5	10	-0.29	0.08	0.41
3	4	12	0.71	0.51	2.04
4	4	16	1.71	2.94	11.76
5	5	25	2.71	7.37	36.84
Total	35	80	3.57	12.55	79.14
Mean score	2.29				
SD	1.53				

Among all the respondents, 49% respondents were strongly disagree, 14% respondents were disagree, 12% respondents were neutral, 11% respondents were agree and 14% were strongly agree. The mean value of this statement is 2.29 which indicates that respondents are highly disagree with the statement.

1. Null hypothesis: Employees get effective feedback in Codified strategy. (Assume that the mean value of null hypothesis is 3)
2. Alternative hypothesis: Employees don't get effective feedback in Codified strategy

The z score of -2.75 is in the rejection area. The critical value (cutoff point) is 1.645. In left-tail hypothesis testing, any z score less than the critical value will be rejected. Since -2.75 is less than 1.645, we reject the null hypothesis. We accept the alternative hypothesis.

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Relationship with co-workers: Personalized or Tacit strategy ensures good relationship between employees and co-workers.

Table 7: Mean, SD calculation for response regarding relationship with co-workers

Occurance (x)	Frequency (f)	f*x	x-Mean	$(x\text{-Mean})^2$	$f*(x\text{-Mean})^2$
1	2	2	-2.51	6.32	12.64
2	8	16	-1.51	2.29	18.34
3	3	9	-0.51	0.26	0.79
4	14	56	0.49	0.24	3.30
5	8	40	1.49	2.21	17.66
Total	35	123	-2.57	11.32	52.74
Mean score	3.51				
SD	1.25				

Among all the respondents, 6% respondents were strongly disagree, 23% respondents were disagree, 9% respondents were neutral, 40% respondents were agree and 22% were strongly agree. The mean value of this statement is 3.51 which indicate that respondents are more than neutral and close to agree with this statement.

1. Null hypothesis: Personalized or Tacit strategy ensures good relationship between employees and co-workers. (Assume that the mean value of null hypothesis is 3)
2. Alternative hypothesis: Personalized or Tacit strategy doesn't ensure good relationship between employees and co-workers

The z score of 2.41 is within the non-rejection area. The critical value (cutoff point) is 1.645. In left-tail hypothesis testing, any z score greater than the critical value cannot be rejected. Since 2.41 is greater than 1.645, we cannot reject the null hypothesis.

Supervision and Reviewing: Employees are supervised and reviewed effectively in Personalized or Tacit knowledge strategy

Table 8: Mean, SD calculation for response regarding supervision and reviewing

Occurance (x)	Frequency (f)	f*x	x-Mean	$(x\text{-Mean})^2$	$f*(x\text{-Mean})^2$
1	6	6	-2.20	4.84	29.04
2	7	14	-1.20	1.44	10.08
3	3	9	-0.20	0.04	0.12
4	12	48	0.80	0.64	7.68
5	7	35	1.80	3.24	22.68
Total	35	112	-1.00	10.20	69.60
Mean score	3.20				
SD	1.43				

Among all the respondents, 17% respondents were strongly disagree, 20% respondents were disagree, 9% respondents were neutral, 34% respondents were agree and 20% were strongly agree. The mean value of this statement is 3.20 which indicates that respondents are more than neutral and close to agree with this statement.

1. Null hypothesis: Employees are supervised and reviewed effectively in Personalization or Tacitness strategy (Assume that the mean value of null hypothesis is 3)
2. Alternative hypothesis: Employees are not supervised and reviewed effectively in Personalized or Tacit knowledge strategy.

The z score of 0.83 is within the non-rejection area. The critical value (cutoff point) is 1.645. In right-tail hypothesis testing, any z score less than the critical value cannot be rejected. Since 0.83 is less than 1.645, we cannot reject the null hypothesis

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Skill: Computerized skill is needed for Codified strategy

Table 9: Mean, SD calculation for response regarding skill

Occurance (x)	Frequency (f)	f*x	x-Mean	$(x\text{-Mean})^2$	$f*(x\text{-Mean})^2$
1	0	0	-2.86	8.16	0.00
2	4	8	-1.86	3.45	13.80
3	7	21	-0.86	0.73	5.14
4	14	56	0.14	0.02	0.29
5	10	50	1.14	1.31	13.06
Total	35	135	-4.29	13.67	32.29
Mean score	3.86				
SD	0.97				

Among all the respondents, 0% respondents were strongly disagree, 11% respondents were disagree, 20% respondents were neutral, 40% respondents were agree and 29% were strongly agree. The mean value of this statement is 3.86 which indicates that respondents are more than neutral and agree with this statement.

1. Null hypothesis Computerized skill is needed for Codified strategy. (Assume that the mean value of null hypothesis is 3)
2. Alternative hypothesis: Computerized skill is not needed for Codified strategy

We cannot reject the null hypothesis. The z score of 5.25 is within the non-rejection area. The critical value (cutoff point) is 1.645. In left-tail hypothesis testing, any z score greater than the critical value cannot be rejected. Since 5.25 is greater than 1.645, we cannot reject the null hypothesis.

Effective training program: Codified strategy ensures effective training programs

Table 10: Mean, SD calculation for response regarding effective training programs

Occurance (x)	Frequency (f)	f*x	x-Mean	$(x\text{-Mean})^2$	$f*(x\text{-Mean})^2$
1	7	7	-1.66	2.75	19.22
2	12	24	-0.66	0.43	5.18
3	6	18	0.34	0.12	0.71
4	6	24	1.34	1.80	10.82
5	4	20	2.34	5.49	21.96
Total	35	93	1.71	10.59	57.89
Mean score	2.66				
SD	1.30				

Among all the respondents, 20% respondents were strongly disagree, 34% respondents were disagree, 17% respondents were neutral, 17% respondents were agree and 12% were strongly agree. The mean value of this statement is 2.66 which indicates that respondents are disagree but close to neutral.

1. Null hypothesis: Codified strategy ensures effective training programs (Assume that the mean value of null hypothesis is 3)
2. Alternative hypothesis: Codified strategy doesn't ensure effective training programs

The z score of -1.55 is in the rejection area. The critical value (cutoff point) is 1.645. In left-tail hypothesis testing, any z score less than the critical value will be rejected. Since -1.55 is less than 1.645, we reject the null hypothesis. We accept the alternative hypothesis.

VI. Conclusion

The objective of the study was how knowledge management strategies affects the employee job satisfaction. It is concluded that employee job satisfaction is highly related with two knowledge management strategies; codified and personalized or tacit knowledge management strategies. Sometimes codified and tacit or personalized knowledge strategies increase job satisfaction or sometimes decrease. Codified knowledge management strategy doesn't provide effective training program and effective feedback, demands high computerized skills but not user friendly. On the other hand, employees like to be supervised and reviewed through tacit or personalized strategy, feel comfortable with this strategy for maintaining good relationship with co-workers, entertain

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more autonomy but have to face more workload. Therefore, both strategies have positive or negative impact on employee job satisfaction but employees are more comfortable with tacit or personalized strategy than codified strategy. The study will give an edge to understand the KM of garments employee and design strategy to satisfy and retain them.

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The Services Marketing Mix: Theoretical Views of Church Services Marketing

By Rufus O. Adebayo
Durban University of Technology

Abstract- It could be noted that marketing can be stretched beyond profit business organisation. In the area of services, it is important to note that both profit and non-profit organisations share competitive traits in the sense that they are competing with one another advantageously to distinguish themselves. Thus, this paper reviews the existing literature on services marketing and highlights opportunities for competitive-oriented church activities for improved church marketing. These activities are simplified in this review by first identifying, the theoretical implications and then presenting an overview of the services marketing mix ingredients. Although the variety of ways in which services marketing mix are construed is enormous, some relevant studies on services marketing mix and studies with church efforts to implement the principles of services marketing mix are the focus of this theoretical paper. Thus, the 7Ps of services marketing, which is an extension of the original marketing mix from four to seven elements, is discussed.

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The Services Marketing Mix: Theoretical Views of Church Services Marketing

Rufus O. Adebayo

Abstract- It could be noted that marketing can be stretched beyond profit business organisation. In the area of services, it is important to note that both profit and non-profit organisations share competitive traits in the sense that they are competing with one another advantageously to distinguish themselves. Thus, this paper reviews the existing literature on services marketing and highlights opportunities for competitive-oriented church activities for improved church marketing. These activities are simplified in this review by first identifying, the theoretical implications and then presenting an overview of the services marketing mix ingredients. Although the variety of ways in which services marketing mix are construed is enormous, some relevant studies on services marketing mix and studies with church efforts to implement the principles of services marketing mix are the focus of this theoretical paper. Thus, the 7Ps of services marketing, which is an extension of the original marketing mix from four to seven elements, is discussed.

I. Introduction

This study provides insight into how services marketing can be applied to non-profit organisations and in the area of service quality within a given market. Gawroński and Majkowska, (2018) state that the greatest doubts may arise from the effects of church marketing. Apart from doctrinal ethical concerns regarding the marketing of faith and religion, doubts arise as to how marketing can affect the future of the Church. Adebayo (2015) mentions that it is worthy of note that some Christian church activities and marketing activities are interconnected. According to Appiah, Dwomoh, and Kyire (2013), using marketing elements to promote religious services has become a top bracket business. Thus, the influence of marketing on the non-profit organisation (the church in this case) is provided to identify reasons for non-profit administrators to be involved in various marketing systems and for the use of certain operating principles. Van der Merwe, Grobler, Strasheim, and Orton (2013) acknowledge that the marketing of service is more challenging than the marketing of a product because selling a product that consumers can see, feel, and touch is easier than selling an intangible service, such as banking services. According to Brandenberg (2014), service marketing is generally focused on a specific target market, such as business travellers or leisure travellers.

Author: Durban University of Technology, Faculty of Arts and Design, Department of Media, Language, and Communication, 4001, Durban, South Africa. e-mail: rufusa@dut.ac.za

In addition, according to Johnston (2014), when you sell a service, you sell an intangible. One does not have to limit his/her pitch to pre-existing features because one can adjust the features of the service to meet the needs of each client or customer. Thus, this study emphasises aspects of service that solve one's prospect's problems or satisfy one's needs and how one can offer a trial period for using services. This approach is reviewed in this study and it seems obviously suited to making religious services more accessible. Beckwith (2013) argues that the approach of service makes marketing easier, cheaper, and more profitable. In addition, the key to any selling is to focus on the business needs/pains of the prospective consumer. This formed implication for this review and to establish how the service uniquely benefits people and show the ways service organisations (non-profit organisations) provide value for their business.

II. Theoretical Views of Distinctive Characteristics of Services – the Church

Services marketing is different from traditional product marketing. There are outputs from the services marketing literature that depict four service characteristics: intangibility, inseparability, heterogeneity, and perishability. These characteristics show how services marketing are distinct from the marketing of product. According to An (2014), one of the distinctive characteristics of services is intangibility, which refers to the inability to assess the value gained from engaging in an activity using any tangible evidence. Intangibility has become a complex concept in the marketing of services. Boundless (2014) asserts that when a customer is buying a service, he/she perceives a risk related to the purchase. It is difficult for a customer to know in advance what they will be getting. To reassure the buyer and build their confidence, marketing strategists need to give tangible proof for the quality of service. Adebayo (2020) adds to this by comparing the act of shopping for tangible products within a given 'marketplace' and shopping for 'salvation' (including the selling and promotion of merchandise and services at churches). It is also noted in Christendom that walking by the spirit is the outward manifestation, in action and speech, of living by the spirit/holiness (Galatians 5:16). The Bible in Ephesians 6:12-13 says

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"For our struggle is not against flesh and blood, but against the rulers, against the authorities, against the powers of this dark world and against the spiritual forces of evil in the heavenly realms. vs13 – Therefore put on the full armour of God, so that when the day of evil comes, you may be able to stand your ground, and after you have done everything, to stand." The Bible reveals that Paul removes much of the intangibility of spirit-fruit by cataloguing precisely what he means in Galatians 5:22-23, namely, love, peace, kindness, goodness, faithfulness, gentleness, and self-control. This collective list of fruit identifies the character of Christ; therefore, it is the character of Christ that grows in Christians as visibly evidenced by these fruits.

Senthil, Dharmalingam, and Panchantham (2011) state that inseparability reflects the interconnection among the service provider, the customer involved in receiving the service, and other customers sharing the same experience. According to Black, Childers, and Vincent (2014), when the production and consumption process occur concurrently, many additional factors can change the service outcome and, therefore, the perceived service quality. These include the customer's role as co-producer, their connection with the employee, and the customers' connection with other customers. Vance (2014) reveals that it is because of the principle of inseparability that the success of a service-based business will largely depend on the quality of its salespeople, customer service representatives, or other front-line employees who deal with the customers. The preacher/evangelist/pastor stands as a service provider in the case of a church, but it is worthy of note that the attributes of God (such as holiness and love) must reflect in the characteristics of a preacher (God is the owner of the service – the producer and the source of the power - Psalm 62:11). Thus inseparability in terms of church services certainly involves the power of God. The power of God is that ability and strength whereby He can bring to pass whatever He pleases, whatever His infinite wisdom may direct, and whatever the infinite purity of His will may resolve. Without power, His mercy would be but feeble pity, His promises an empty sound (Pink 2014).

Heterogeneity or variability of service arises from the difficulty in standardizing services (Moeller 2010). The idea is that when different people are involved in delivering the service, services cannot be homogenous in the same way that goods can be (Adebayo, 2015). Roy and Sivakumar (2014) opine that the greater the labour and knowledge content, the greater is the variability, and thus the focal organisation deploys considerable operant resources to ensure that heterogeneity is well managed. In contrast, heterogeneity in the provision of both services and tangible output in Christendom is God's power alone. It is important to point out that God's servant underscores the power necessary to effectively communicate God's message. In order words, management of heterogeneity in Christendom is quite different from that proposed by Silvakumar; in Christendom, management of heterogeneity does not depend on the amount of education or any other advantages one may have but depends on the cooperation of the Spirit of God.

Moeller (2010) argues that perishability means that services cannot be stored or stockpiled. Abon and Adebayo (2020) state that services are meant to be consumed by consumers and yet such services could still be re-packaged in a better way and delivered more acceptably. However, the perishability of the outcome at the end of the consumption process is important when looking at goods. Moeller (2010) adds that perishability is not only associated with the outcome of service, but also with the service provider's capacity. Taking our lead from Moeller, perishability in Christendom can be viewed in two ways: from the perspective of the service provider (a preacher/pastor) and from the perspective of the consumer (congregant/unsaved). The former is believed not to force the truth upon the hearers nor attempt to impose right action upon the congregants. The perishability or the sustainability of the word of God may not only be the message that answers congregant's needs but also the possession of power that gets the message through to the congregants.

III. An Overview of the Service Marketing Mix Ingredients

As noted earlier in this study, one of the approaches is to look at a non-profit organisation in service marketing. Unlike typical profit-seeking businesses, non-profit organisations exist for reasons other than making a profit and usually (unknowingly) engage in marketing (Lamb, Hair, and McDaniel, 2013). Churches can, therefore, be described as non-profit organisations that offer a service to a congregation (Van der Merwe et al. 2013; Shawchuck, Kotler, Wrenn, and Rath, 1992). There are a number of perceptions of the concept of the service marketing mix within the business and marketing literature. Therefore, it is relevant to consider how the traditional mix alters for a service through these 7Ps. This is because the additional 3Ps have gained widespread acceptance in services marketing literature. After all, most service organisations market more than one service (Kar, 2010; Abon and Adebayo, 2020). This may involve deciding what new services to introduce to which target market, what existing services to maintain, and what services to eliminate. An overview of the service marketing mix ingredients are discussed below:

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Source: Adapted from Kar, 2010:11

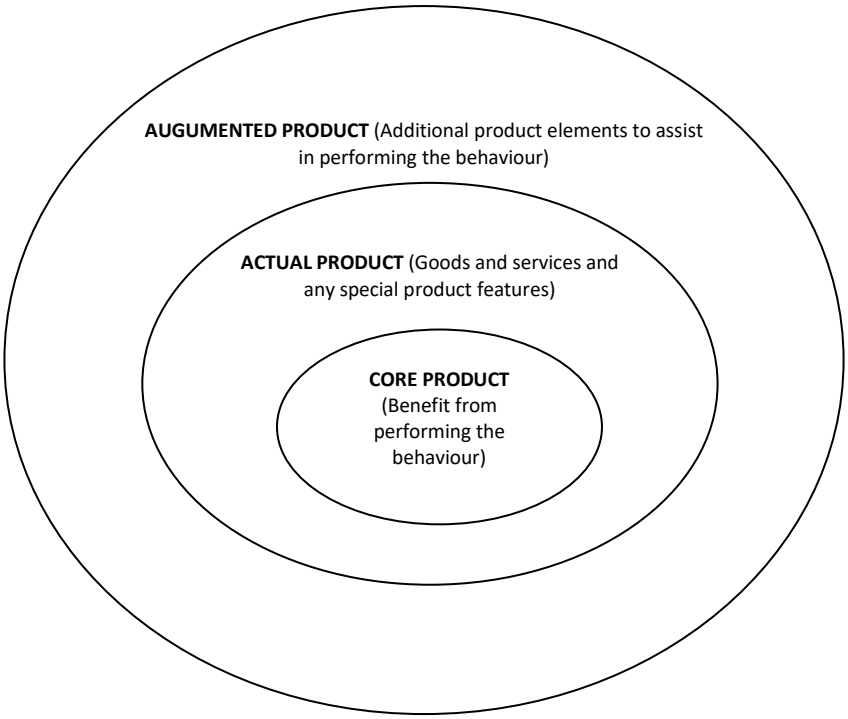
Figure 1: Services marketing mix model – 7Ps

The services marketing mix is called the 7Ps as seen in Figure 1.1 above. This services marketing mix extends the traditional marketing mix model (4Ps) to seven elements. It gives a picture of a product or price mix of an organisation, in combination with a promotion plan so it can approach and serve customers based on well-considered distribution and customer contact channels (Van Vliet 2011:2). In addition to the four traditional elements, three important elements have been added: People, Process, and Physical Evidence, that make up the services marketing mix – 7Ps. The combination of four elements and the three elements to make up seven elements of the services marketing mix are discussed below concerning the church use of marketing.

a) Product

According to Palmer (2011), products are how organisations seek to satisfy customer's needs. It is anything that the organisation offers to potential customers, whether it is tangible or intangible. Services are very different from products (Kar, 2010). Based on commercial marketing, Kotler and Armstrong (2012) define service as any activity or benefit that one party can offer to another that is essentially intangible and does not result in the ownership of anything. In profit marketing, a product is generally believed to be a tangible product purchased by the customer. Donovan and Henley (2010) express that in some cases, a mix of tangible products and services is purchased. This implies that the products and services are purchased because of the benefits they provide to the buyer. A framework that ties these two concepts (customer benefits and product or service attributes) together is the levels of product and services (Kotler and Armstrong 2012). Each level adds more customer value and they are core products, which raises the question: what is the buyer really buying? The second level is the actual product which sees the features, design, brand name, and packaging. The third level is to build an augmented product around the core benefit and actual product by offering additional consumer services and benefits.

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Source: Adapted from Kotler and Lee (2011)

Figure 2: Kotler and Lee's three levels of the social marketing product

In this study, particular attention is given to services in line with social marketing products as illustrated in Figure 2. In this case, questions that can be raised here according to Lee and Kotler (2011) could be: What's in it for the customer to adopt the behaviour? What benefits will the congregations receive? What needs will the desired behaviour satisfy? What problems will behaviour change solve? The first level shows the benefit from performing a particular behaviour, the second level indicates goods and services and any special product features, while the third level reveals opportunities for additional product elements to assist in performing the behaviour. These three levels are discussed in relation to the church as follow:

Core Product

As noted by Lee and Kotler (2011) the core product is not only the behaviours or accompanying goods and services to be developed, provided, and or promoted. It is also the benefits the audience (congregation, in the case of church) wants and expects to experience when they perform the behaviour. Core products can stress benefits from the desired behaviour or perceived costs of the competing behaviours that the desired behaviour can help the target audience avoid. However, according to the marketing concept, an organisation should try to provide products that satisfy customers' needs through a coordinated set of activities that also allow the organisation to achieve its goals (Hult, Pride, and Ferrell 2012). Over the course of history,the religious product is often an important component of one's worldview. Accordingly, religious beliefs can not only direct social action but can influence social change (Engelland 2014). For example, Njoh (2012) argues that religious influence can be successful in promoting change in two directions: a radical change in which a society is pushed to a new direction; and conservative change, in which a society is encouraged to return to the social arrangements of the past. In this sense, returning to the social arrangement of the past could mean that the church's 'core product' is eternal salvation (Adebayo and Govender, 2015). One point of convergence between core product and eternal salvation is that there is a promise that follows the benefit of performing the behaviour. Abon (2020) sums up that products are delivered through services. For instance, sermons focus on eternity and worship services are designed to sell core products (David 2014; Adebayo and Govender, 2015).

Actual Product

In another dimension, the desired benefits the consumer sees in the core product can be turned into product attributes that represent the actual product. The actual product is described as having up to five characteristics (Strydom, 2011; Lee and Kotler, 2011). First, the actual product has certain features. Second, it has certain styling (or design). Third, it also has a certain quality level; it is made well or badly. Fourth, it has a certain packaging. Fifth, it has a brand name. It is in this light that one queries whether salvation can be considered as a product or not. There is a clear indication that there is a similarity in the process where a consumer purchases products and a member of a

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congregation obtains religious salvation. One could point out that salvation was a sovereign act of God it is a spiritual gift manufactured by God. "You are a Christian not because of something you did, but because of something God decided" (Adebayo and Govender 2015). On the contrary, what can be considered as the actual product can be traced to a model of preaching (product feature) that can be suitable for this present generation of Christians holding on to spiritual guidance. In addition, since there is a value involved and profit/reward is attached to salvation, the actual product can be an act of building relationships (Adebayo, 2019). This suggests a new way of consumers seeking products to satisfy their needs and wants. Likewise, congregations seek a spiritual connection to what will liberate them from bondage, for wholeness, and the solution to unending problems. This is the actual salvation Christianity, at its best, offers them.

Augmented Product

Similarly, benefits that go beyond the tangible product could be offered to the target market with additional services. According to Strydom (2011), an augmented product is sales support features, such as delivery, installation, warranties, and services. Although these are considered optional according to some writers, they are sometimes exactly what are needed to provide encouragement, remove barriers or sustain behaviour (Lee and Kotler, 2011). The product could also add to its opportunities by creating more attention, appeal, and memorability for target audiences. Rothschild's (2009) arguments centre on the marketing concept of exchange and its function as a stimulus-response process. Therefore, if a person accepts the concept of exchange as critical to marketing, the behaviour and the product cannot be the same thing. Products are the tools that social marketers use to realise the desired behaviour change (Adebayo, 2015). In addition, the church concept of augmented products reflects social ministry. Amelia and Tonya (2010) describe four social ministry types: (1) relief services (e.g., giving a hungry person a fish); (2) personal development (e.g., teaching a person to fish); (3) community development (e.g., giving people fishing equipment); and (4) systemic change (e.g., helping everybody get fair access to the fish pond). They further note that such ministries can be described by their focus of action (e.g., individual versus corporate) and the nature of the benefit provided by the ministry (e.g., direct versus indirect). Social action, for creating social change (augmented product) as noted here, requires that churches should address manifested needs and situations that give rise to those needs (Adebayo, 2015).

b) Price

In marketing, the concept of pricing may be ambiguous, especially when laying emphasis on non-profit sectors. Adebayo (2019)argues that the virtual neglect of some significant characteristics of marketing such as the exchange process, and pricing from the religious perspective might affect the church as a non-profit organisation. Like for-profit marketing, a non-profit marketer can use various pricing tactics to make the desired behaviour appear to have fewer costs and more benefits while making the undesired behaviour have less benefit and greater cost. Non-profit marketing in another sense could be more complicated and there are more factors involved. Moreover, pricing has great relevance for commercial marketing products, which determines the way the business can generate an income to pay all the costs incurred in the development and distribution of the product or service (Strydom, 2011).Also, as marketing strongly influences the work and mission of public and non-profit organisations, not-for-profit organisations with limited purchasing power such as churches, universities, charitable organisations, and government agencies need to price carefully (Kotler and Keller, 2012). When the products are not visible, a price is to be incurred in exchange for receiving a bundle of benefits (from this invisible product) (Thackeray and Brown, 2010). Adebayo (2019) states that sacrifice is all it takes in the area of spiritual cost; it establishes a relationship with the sacred by purifying and preparing the sacrificer. In the case of the church, products such as Christian music, Bible study manuals, and Sunday school manuals can be exchanged for money, while individual time and material possessions can be donated to the church in exchange for good feelings and other non-monetary rewards. Thus, the exchange is not necessarily a purely commercial transaction and involves more than the exchange of money only for goods and services (Adebayo, 2019).

c) Place

According to the Chartered Institute of Marketing (2009),a place is where customers buy a product and the means of distributing the product to a particular place. Furthermore, the product must be available in the right place, at the right time and in the right quantity, while keeping storage, inventory, and distribution costs to an acceptable level. For an intangible product, place refers to decisions about the channels through which consumers are reached with a particular service or information. In addition, the place influences the service buyer's satisfaction and often offers a different side of value (utility) to the consumer (Kar, 2010). This could mean that closer to the consumer means a higher probability of sales. In services marketing, a place could be where your services are offered, and where you have a presence. There are few decisions to be considered regarding the term place in service marketing. Moreover, the bottom line is that service providers have to ensure that services are successfully delivered to customers.

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The same principles of making access and delivery easy also apply to non-profit marketing. The issue of convenience is also resonating, especially, when relating to the subject (the church) of this study. Lamb, Hair, and McDaniel (2013) express that a key factor influencing the selection of a service is convenience. This implies that there should be a decision on whether to distribute services to end-users directly or indirectly through other firms (Adebayo, 2020). According to Kotler and Keller (2012), the marketplace is physical, such as a store you shop in; market space is digital, as when you shop on the internet. Adebayo (2020) adds that a place of worship on the other hand could literarily mean a designed structure (with a specific symbol) or consecrated space where individuals or a group of people such as a congregation can come to perform acts of devotion, worship, or religious study. According to Desa (2013), most places of worship (temples, mosques, churches, holy sites, and so forth) have one thing in common, regardless of religious affinity: they are meant, by people, as sacred sites. Suri and Rao (2014) add that the number of people that visit religious places such as Rome, Varanasi, Mecca, Medina, Kashi, etc. is increasing every year. One may realise that congregants find spiritual value in a wide range of places, which is what makes a place a "place of worship". "Places of worship" is an inclusive term that includes churches, mosques, synagogues, temples, chapels (e.g., within convents or seminaries), shrines, meeting houses, or other places of assembly for religious purposes (Suri and Rao, 2014).Thus, Christian churches could be considered as a place of worship. However, natural or structural landscapes may also be considered as places of worship, and for believers or religions, can be considered holy (Adebayo, 2020). From all indications, it is obvious that the concept of accessibility is more important than the traditional defined place. One important factor that shows the relationship between Christian place of worship and marketplace is convenience as identified by Lamb, Hair, and McDaniel (2013). This concept of convenience recognises not only the location of service outlets but, more importantly, how the consumer is to be designed into the service production-consumption process, and who is to be involved in that process (Palmer, 2011).

d) Promotion

Marketing is not sales, nor is it advertising. It is a sequence of steps to create value. And value is everything that is desired and valued by an individual or a community. The creation of value according to the study by Simões and Nascimento-e-Silva (2020), is done through the establishment of communication channels - promotion. Marketing is done through communication, dialogical interaction, therefore, which starts from institutions for individuals, organizations, and other institutions with a well-defined purpose. Traditionally, the hierarchy of strategies employed by businesses starts with the marketing mix, which involves activities such as designing the product, including its package, pricing of the product, as well as terms of sale, distribution of the product, including placing it in outlets accessible to customers; and promoting and communicating about the product (Kotler and Keller, 2012; Strydom, 2011).

Promotion or marketing communication is the home base for advertising, along with public relations, sales promotions, personal selling, packaging/point of sales, and direct marketing. Understandably, each of these promotional techniques has its own set of capabilities, some of which complement each other, some of which duplicate each other's efforts. However, communications must be viewed more broadly than just media advertising, public relations, and professional salespeople. According to Shimp and Andrews (2013), communication is the process whereby commonness of thought is established, and meaning is shared between individuals or between organisations and individuals. According to Adebayo and Govender (2015), the adoption of marketing communication, and social media strategies are becoming more prevalent in the routing services of some contemporary churches. Blake (2021) reveals that the Church's approval of media relations and the utilization of practical measures of social communication have become one of the reasons for growth in the acceptance of marketing promotion between pastors and members. In addition, the advancement of Christian leaders" approval of social media has led to the theory of marketing the church (Gawroński & Majkowska, 2018). Social media marketing and platforms have allowed organisations to instantaneously direct information and receive their investors' response immediately, without encountering significant traditional communication expenses (Lee, Hosanagar, and Nair, 2018).

e) People

According to Wilson, Zeithaml, Bitner, and Gremler (2012), the three new marketing mix elements (people, physical evidence, and process) are included in the marketing mix as separate elements because they are within the control of the firm and because any or all of them may influence the customer's initial decisions to purchase a service as well as the customer's level of satisfaction and repurchase decisions. Furthermore, Wirtz, Chew, and Lovelock (2012) indicate that when developing ways to market manufactured goods, marketers usually focus on product, price, place (or distribution), and promotion (or communication). However, the marketing of services poses distinct marketing challenges because of the nature of services. Hence, the 4Ps of marketing are unable to deal with the issues arising from marketing services and have to be

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adapted and extended. In addition, the traditional marketing mix does not cover managing the customer interface.

Despite advances in technology, many services will always need interaction between customers and service employees (Adebayo, 2015). Hsu (2018) affirms that the interactive relationship between service providers and customers during service encounters has attracted attention over the past few years in the marketing and management literature. Due to the intangibility and inseparability of production and consumption for services which involves the simultaneous production and consumption of services, service firms depend heavily on the ability of contact employees to deliver the service (Adebayo, 2015). However, as the awareness increases, the product becomes simpler and they become off-the-shelf commodity products as noted in online marketing. Also, buyers at times prefer face-to-face interaction and they place a high premium on brand names and reliability.

From a non-profit point of view, Bromer (2013) asserts that 'people' refers to the summation of everyone that touches the organisation. According to Adebayo (2015), people could mean those who are directly or indirectly involved in the distribution of the service. People or staff are undoubtedly the lifeblood of a company and could mean subcontractors with direct interaction with customers (Fisher, 2017). For non-profit, people include constituent donors, recipients, volunteers, members, and employees. In addition, anyone who comes into contact with customers will make an impression, and that can have a profound effect, positive or negative, on customer satisfaction. The case of the church is no exception, but it will be of great value to start from the emphasis on preaching in the bible and especially in the New Testament. Jesus himself, at the opening of his ministry in the Nazareth synagogue, read from Isaiah: "The Spirit of the Lord is upon me because he has anointed me to preach the good news" (Luke 4: 18). Jesus then applied this to himself employing public exposition within the synagogue service. This simply indicates that association can be found between marketing and the church based on what influences the seller/preacher of the gospel/salvation. In addition, this influence (Holy Spirit in this regard) depicts whether the product is accepted or unaccepted, how motivated the consumers/congregations are to adapt behaviour, and the degree of religion within a consumer's/ congregation's life.

The practice of preaching cannot be separated from the person of the preacher. Considering the emphasis from the New Testament, the lifestyle and self-discipline of the one who brings God's message are very important. "Take heed therefore unto yourselves, and to all the flock, over which the Holy Ghost hath made you overseers, to feed the church of God, which he hath purchased with his blood," said Paul in Acts 20:28 when addressing the Ephesian elders. According to Cheeseman (1999), to be effective preachers, what one says must not be negated by the way that one lives. Paul wrote to Titus: "Show yourself in all respects a model of good deeds" (Titus 2:7). This implies that preachers' lives must match up to the doctrines they proclaim from the pulpit in order not to damage the cause of the gospel (product).One could also note that training employees for efficiency are one of the most important areas in the service industry (Van Vliet 2011). People in authority in the Christian church (Reverend, Bishop, Cardinal, Deacon, Deaconess, Evangelist, Minister, Pastor, Preacher, Choir or Usher, etc.) can also receive training and development, especially in the area of developing a strong relationship with the Holy Spirit that is, developing sensitivity to the Holy Spirit's voice. Ministerial work is also a calling that involves physical, spiritual, and mental tasks, therefore, training in the area of preaching, manner of preaching, the personality of the preacher, the sermon of a preacher (i.e., gathering of sermon materials) etc. are crucial to the delivery of a church sermon.

f) Process

According to Bromer (2013) process deals with how a service is delivered which includes measuring the success of the service, such as providing service in a timely fashion to solve a specific need. Therefore, services need to be underpinned by a clearly defined and efficient process. In other words, process means that everybody (service providers and consumers) knows what to do and how to do it. Thus, the process of a service company in delivering its product is of utmost importance. It is also a critical component in the service blueprint, wherein before establishing the service, the company defines exactly what should be the process of the service product reaching the end customers. The Chartered Institute of Marketing (2009) states that the process of providing a service and the behaviour of those who deliver it are crucial to customer satisfaction. Issues such as waiting times, the information is given to customers and the helpfulness of staff are all vital to keeping customers happy. Furthermore, in a service situation customers are likely to have to queue before they can be served and the service delivery itself is likely to take a certain length of waiting time. Wilson, Zeithaml, Bitner, and Gremler (2012) state that the actual delivery steps that the customer experiences, or the operational flow of the service, also give customers evidence on which to judge the service. Some services are very complex, requiring the customer to follow a complicated and extensive series of actions to complete the process.

Given these, the spiritual context of how it costs people to become a Christian or obtain spiritual product involves a process. This context is consistent with circumstantial evidence that except a person be born

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again, he/she cannot see the kingdom of God (John 3:3). This implies that salvation stands as the first step a person must take before they can have access to all the benefits of the kingdom of God. In addition, the kingdom of God is a process that starts with righteousness, followed by peace, and then comes joy in the Holy Ghost. It has been noted that seeking the kingdom of God as a priority is important to God (Matthew 6:33). The verse assures that it will cost one to deny oneself of some things such that one's personal needs and challenges must not be placed above the kingdom, and all other things will be added on to one. A preacher and the level of anointing are also worthy of note in the context of the process. It has been established that the greater the anointing, the greater the exploit for God, comparing it with the analysis of value proposition where marketing offers that the greater the value of a product, the higher the price. One question that could be generated in this aspect is how does a Christian/preacher obtain greater anointing?

Relationship marketing and customer relationship management can help answer the aforementioned question. Relationship Marketing (RM) and Customer Relationship Management (CRM) both represent a paradigm shift in traditional marketing thinking. Thus, the process in the spiritual context can be rewarded as having a relationship with God. According to the book of 1 John chapter 1 verse 3, "We proclaim to you what we have seen and heard, so that you also may have fellowship with us. And our fellowship is with the Father and with his Son, Jesus Christ". In addition, having a profitable life in Christ as a Christian/preacher implies a life that is surrendered to the Lord (Mark 8:36: "For what shall it profit a man, if he shall gain the whole world, and lose his soul?").The process involves one being willing to die daily; this means that one's self-will is subjected to the Master on a daily basis which Palmatier (2008) termed "relational-based exchange". One must be ready to tear off one's old garments and get into new garments (costs) (Mark 8:37: "Or what shall a man give in exchange for his soul?"). However, a love relationship is could be added to the process, which can bring about clear communication with God in the spiritual realm. This is revealed in the book of John chapter 10 verse 27: "My sheep listen to my voice; I know them, and they follow me", which Palmatier (2008) considers as an interpersonal relationship from the perspective of customer relationship management – involving managing detailed information about individual customers.

g) Physical evidence

According to Kotler and Keller (2012) unlike physical products, services cannot be seen, tasted, felt, heard, or smelled before they are bought. A service cannot be experienced before it is delivered. Therefore, choosing to use a service can be perceived as a risky business because you are buying something intangible. Wirtz, Chew, and Lovelock (2012) raise the point that if the service requires customers to enter the service factory, it is important to start thinking about the design of the physical environment. The appearance of the buildings, landscaping, vehicles, interior furnishings, equipment, staff members' uniforms, signs, printed materials, and other visible cues provide tangible evidence of a firm's service quality. Fisher (2017) agrees that business assets are effectively used to market business, brand personality should be a pervasive consideration when choosing organisations' furniture, fittings, computer equipment, stock, publications, and brochures.

One could add that physical evidence is critical in guiding customers through the purchase process and making them feel comfortable and trusting toward the service provider. Mike (2020) supports that physical evidence includes the things customers see when interacting with a business and it gives some solid knowledge of the organisation's product or service for first-time customers. However, some churches must provide some physical evidence to showcase their theological practices. The important touch of this study is to understand the way a church service provider presents an intangible offering to the target consumer (unsaved) or to provide an understanding of what is to be done to convince the unsaved or the needy to attend church services. In the case of the church, having expectations depends on many variables, particularly having expectations of God, i.e., the promises of God, levels of interaction/communication between God and a believer, and the integrity of the one giving the promise (God) as seen in the book of Numbers 23:19 that "God is not a man that should lie". Thus, physical evidence, in this sense, conforms to the definition provided by Zeithaml, Bitner, and Gremler (2009:25) that physical evidence is the environment in which the service is delivered and where the firm and consumer interact, and any tangible components that facilitate performance or communication of the service.

IV. Methodology

The study centres on a secondary source of data, associated with a literature review of existing data. The secondary data which constitute the core of the literature review are drawn from textbooks, journals, articles, previous researches, and internet sources (Appiah et al., 2013). The notion behind the use of secondary data is to establish the theoretical underpinning of the effective and non-effective use of marketing by churches.

V. Conclusion

The service sector is nothing new, as evidenced in the academic literature, and today most products

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include some element of service in them. However, there are various services in church organisation such as anointing services, Holy Communion service, Sunday school service, worship service, deliverance services, healing services, and Holy Ghost service, etc. It has also been noted in this review that services, in effect, are vital for creating 'value in use' for goods, and goods effectively become a subsidiary part of a service offer. Not only these, but it has also showcased an extended mix for service marketing where the differences between goods and services are explored. In this regard, the article has critically defined the role of marketing for different types of services. It should be apparent, therefore, that there are many ways in which the marketing of a pure good is likely to differ from the marketing of pure service. According to Palmer (2011), the principle of the extended marketing mix (as indeed with the traditional marketing mix) is to break a service offering down into several component parts and to arrange them into manageable subject areas for making strategic and tactical decisions. The influence of marketing on non-profit issues has been identified in this review. The scope and characteristics of marketing as it pertains to non-profit organisations, including the church, could be another study for consideration.

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Research on the Cultural Integration of International Students in Universities: A Perspective of Cross-Cultural Management

By Jiayun Wang
Donghua University

Abstract- With the development of globalization, the number of international students in Chinese colleges will continue to grow, and the education of international students has gradually become an important part of the domestic higher education system. Facing the group of international students in China, its complicated cultural backgrounds and individual differences further increase the difficulty of school management. Therefore, colleges need to start from the perspective of cross-cultural management to strengthen the management of international students, improve and innovate the management system of domestic universities. In this case, schools can reduce the cultural anxiety of international students and improve the cross-cultural awareness of managers, as well as create a better campus environment. In a long run, schools can then create a good environment conducive to the reform, innovation, and development of domestic higher education, and promote the rapid and highquality development of national education.

Keywords: *cross-cultural; education; international students; management.*

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I. Introduction

Since China adopted an opening-up policy and its active participation in economic globalization, the number of international students in China has witnessed a consistent increase. In 2017, China has become the world third-largest and Asia's largest destination country for foreign students studying abroad, attracting 489,200 international students from 204 countries and regions. It is estimated that the number of international students will exceed 500,000 in 2020[1].However, it's not easy for overseas students to fit in the local environment. While such a situation can help develop the cause of education in China, it also brings great management pressure to colleges.

II. Problems

The current situation of the cultural integration of international students is quite tricky. Considering the psychological conditions of international students, most of them are struggling with psychological changes such as loneliness, homesickness, and emptiness. As Oberg's culture shock theory deduced that people may be 'precipitated by the anxiety that results from losing all our familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse (1954)', such a sense of unfamiliarity may further increase because of the language barrier, living habits, and moral standards. At this time, the impact of cultural differences will gradually become apparent. The first time a person living in a certain cultural environment enters another unfamiliar cultural environment, the loss of all the symbols and means of social communication that one is familiar with produces a feeling of being overwhelmed and apprehensive, and resulting in a psychological reaction of resisting the new culture. That is, when people living in a certain cultural environment try to understand or adapt to a new cultural group, they may experience feelings of helplessness, doubt, rejection, and even fear due to different cultural backgrounds, values and habits[2]. Thus, it would be very hard for some international students to open up to people from other cultures and to adapt to a new cultural environment.

Meanwhile, international students are also facing many problems in daily school life. One of the most common problems is their adjustment to life at Chinese college. There are differences in the thinking styles, personal habits, and moral concepts of different international students in China, which makes the school management even harder. For instance, the maladjustment to accommodation conditions has always been a major problem in school management. Whether it is on-campus accommodation or off-campus accommodation, the differences in religious beliefs and living habits of international students in different countries make school management continue to face new challenges. For international students living on campus, the international student dormitory is a gathering area for students from various countries. The huge cultural differences between them cause students with low adaptability to feel at a loss or even cause conflict between them, which brings lots of inconvenience to school management. For international students who live off campus, the lack of the school's jurisdiction and discipline may encourage their lazy living habits, leading to serious late school absenteeism. At the same time, the student's rented house may be in an area with a poor public security environment, which can be a huge safety hazard. In this case, it is difficult for the school to ensure the physical and mental health

Author: College of Foreign Languages, Donghua University, China.
e-mail: jiayunwanglucy@163.com

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and safety of students. Thus, the school often fails to further improve the daily life management of international students, not only because it's difficult to detect their discomforts in life, but also because it relates to personal privacy and different living habits, which requires more detailed and personalized management.

III. Reasons

The reasons for such cultural integration issues of international students are as follows. The very first reason is the cultural differences between countries, especially that different people have great individual differences. When individuals come to an unfamiliar cultural environment, such differences will be further amplified. 'Acculturation is the dual process of cultural and psychological change that takes place as a result of contact between two or more cultural groups and their individual members. At the group level, it involves changes in social structures and institutions and in cultural practices' (Berry, 2005). Lucas is an international student from Turkey. He and Ming, a student from Shanghai, often study and play together. Once, Ming invited Lucas to the college canteen for lunch and ordered fried pork for Lucas. He also enthusiastically introduced and recommended this signature dish to Lucas. Unexpectedly, Lucas behaved very angry, and left the canteen on the spot, leaving Ming alone at a loss. From this case, we can see that differences in religious culture are one of the main reasons for this misunderstanding. Obviously, as a Muslim, Lucas cannot eat pork. However, Ming does not understand this cultural difference, and his kindness was misunderstood. Meanwhile, in an unfamiliar environment, international students from different cultures are more likely to face problems caused by cultural differences. For example, when international students who believe in Islam go to the cafeteria to eat, they will feel inconvenient to some extent. Due to differences in religious beliefs, Chinese universities rarely have dedicated Muslim cafeterias. There is no clear ingredient list for the meals in the canteens for international students' reference, and due to the language barrier of international students, it often happens that Muslim students eat meals with pork or do not have more suitable meals to choose, which seriously affects the daily life of them. It will also cause certain harm to their psychology. Thus, when it comes to the cultural integration of international students, it would not be an easy task for college management to take into account cultural and individual differences.

The lack of cross-cultural awareness is another cause of cultural integration problems. Cultural awareness means having a clear understanding of cultural identity and underlying biases[3]. Since different people are affected by various cultural environments, every individual has different cross-cultural competence that can help recognize cultural differences in a group and use them to enrich a situation rather than detract from it. Most college students and teachers are unfamiliar with the concept of cultural awareness and the uneven level of cross-cultural competence further obstructs effective communication between the school and international students. Thus, when it comes to a situation that requires enough cross-cultural awareness, it would be very hard for them to react to new and ambiguous situations without discomfort and to respond to others in non-judgmental ways. For instance, international student Mike and local student Jay have recently become friends, and they often study together and prepare for exam review together. One day, they were studying together in the library. Mike said he wanted to buy a cup of coffee. He asked Jay if he wanted to bring him a cup, but Jay refused and stayed in his seat to continue studying. However, when Mike came back, he found Jay was looking at his notes. He was very unhappy at the time, but he didn't say it immediately. Since then, he has never studied with Jay again. Jay also noticed this change, but didn't understand why[4]. In this case, it is easy to find that their lack of awareness of the different attitudes of personal privacy between Chinese and Western cultures is the decisive factor in causing this misunderstanding. Mike's attitude should be 'These are my own notes, my personal thing, and others shouldn't read it without my consent.' But Jay obviously has a different view: 'we often study together and are very good friends. The notes or other things between friends should be able to share with each other.' The opinions represented by them are also the views of Chinese and Western cultures on personal privacy. Chinese culture is a typical collectivistic society while a large number of international students may come from an individualistic culture. Influenced by the concept of individualism, people tend to emphasize the protection of individual personality and dignity. However, since Chinese people are more concerned about cooperation and dependence with others, some of their behaviors may seem too selfish and eccentric to their fellows. The misunderstanding between Mike and Jay also shows their level of cross-cultural adaptation. According to the concept of cross-cultural adaptation put forward by the anthropologist Redfield (1936), cross-cultural adaptation means the integration of different cultural groups, and the adaptation to this cultural integration phenomenon[5]. However, under the cross-cultural background, people will have a various understanding of the concept of 'acculturation/social positioning' because of the differences in language, traditional customs, and religions. According to John Berry's model of acculturation (1994) [6], there are four different attitudes: integration, assimilation, separation, and marginalization. The individual will have different

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acceptance of their cultural identity and the host culture according to their internalized culture, their desire for social integration, and their willingness to take risks. Thus, when individuals don't have enough cultural awareness to understand different tricky situations caused by various factors such as different living environment, cultural background, and personal personality, it will definitely be obstacles for college managers to solving the integration problem of overseas students.

More importantly, managers of universities lack the awareness of cross-cultural management and have little knowledge about cross-cultural management strategies that are conducive to the administration of international students. Not only international students, but college manager and teaching faculty should try to understand and adapt to a different culture. The culture awareness of college managers will directly affect the mode and school decisions on the management of international students. At present, the management mode of most universities for international students is often simple and lacks personalized management. Due to the lack of awareness of cross-cultural management, college managers don't know how to apply relevant theories of cross-cultural management into practice. Meanwhile, the lack of unified training for relevant management personnel in colleges and universities also hinders the development of efficient college management. Therefore, many colleges and universities inevitably adopt a formalistic management mode, which has little effect on helping international students to integrate as soon as possible. Most of China's traditional higher education adopts standardized management methods. This management method has formed an inherent concept in people's minds and is difficult to change. Judging from the previous management model, we can find that college management usually appoints some teachers with weak professional level and fewer class hours to serve as managers. They often have not received systematic professional training, and they lack cross-cultural awareness and education service awareness. This approach can easily lead to irregular management models, making students, especially international students who are not familiar with the Chinese education model, in a passive state under such model management, affecting their physical and mental health to some extent.

IV. Solutions

In order to improve the efficiency and quality of international students' management, colleges need to figure out some solutions under the view of cross-cultural management. From the perspective of individuals, one needs to increase the cross-cultural sensitivity of international students, especially college managers by combining the cross-cultural theories mentioned above. Individuals should learn to change their attitudes toward unfamiliar cultures, trying to be more tolerant and open to different habits. For example, the most basic thing that both students and managers need to do is to improve their ability to show respect and positive regard for another person. Especially managers should act as mediators that can help international students adapt to the new environment as soon as possible. School managers should improve the ability of cross-cultural management from the following aspects: First, it should supervise whether the teaching courseware and teaching methods used by teachers are formulated according to the actual physical and mental development of international students, learning needs, and cultural background so that the cross-cultural awareness and communication ability of international students in China can be promoted. Second, managers need to play the role of "Internet +"technology in the management of overseas students[7]. School managers can search and organize resources through the Internet, to understand the learning and management needs of international students in China, and to build digital campus cultural exchange platform which allows international students to interact with managers and other students, strengthening the quality of cross-cultural management. For international students, one way to improve cross-cultural competence is to gain cultural background knowledge through language learning, so that they can understand Chinese culture by understanding Chinese language background and learn both culture and language more effectively since the two are intertwined. Through the learning of cross-cultural communication, students can understand their own culture, accept cultural differences, understand and respect different cultures, equip with the knowledge, skills, and values of cross-cultural communication and integrate the new environment as soon as possible.

In addition to the international student's own efforts, colleges need to play a supporting role as well. Not only the school leadership but also the college managers need to help organize some stimulating activities that students can experience the authenticity of language and culture directly. It's essential for college to make sure that international students can practice and use Chinese in activities to experience the strong charm of Chinese culture to achieve the purpose of cross-cultural communication, to help overseas students understand the similarities and differences between Chinese and their cultures, and to understand different life, diet, thinking, values, etc. College should provide international students with opportunities to experience the strong exotic customs, and enables them to experience the authenticity of language in real situations, so as to further cultivate the cross-cultural competence of international students and to avoid misunderstandings to the greatest extent. Taking a real

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case as an example, there are many international students from Africa in the university where the author is located, but the school rarely organizes relevant international student activities, and the lives of international students and local students seem to be separated. Sometimes I can see international students at school, but local students rarely take the initiative to communicate with them. Most of the international students also form their own small groups, and it seems that they only change a country to live almost the same life as their original way of life. Obviously, such a study abroad life is meaningless. Once international students close themselves and do not communicate with the outside world, then the school's plan to attract international students has obviously failed. Fortunately, in recent years, the school's leadership has rectified the management of international students and introduced a series of improvement measures, including the opening of an English corner for international students once a week. The purpose of this English corner is to enable international students to have friendly exchanges with local students. International students act as teachers in the English corner and chat with local students who want to practice English. This can promote exchanges between students on both sides and enable students to communicate. Understand each other's culture and have a more comprehensive understanding of each other, so that international students can jump out of their original circles in a subtle way, make new friends, and truly integrate into the campus. At the same time, local students can also understand the cultural differences of different countries, cultivate their cross-cultural awareness, adapt to the globalized society as soon as possible, and lay the foundation for future development.

The more important point is that the school should uphold the concept of equality for everyone in terms of policy and management, but it also needs to teach in accordance with the situation and individualize management to avoid unreasonable management policies. The preferential (privilege) policy of the universities for foreign students has a long history. On the one hand, this is an inevitable trend for colleges and universities to cooperate with each other in a globalized environment; on the other hand, in order to occupy higher rankings and get more money in various evaluations, colleges spare no effort to expand the enrollment of international students to. The former is an international obligation that China should undertake as a large developing country, and the latter is also an inevitable requirement for school development. As long as it is kept within reasonable limits, both reasons are acceptable. However, colleges and universities are often prone to going to extremes and adopting some unreasonable and unequal management policies. These policies will inevitably cause unfair problems. For example, differences in school treatment caused by foreign student policies, large gaps in the number of grants, daily assessments, and different accommodation standards will generate public opinion on campus and affect the relationship between foreign students and local students to a certain extent. At the same time, there are often news reports about international students' repeated violations of regulations, and they have adopted an indifferent or even provocative attitude towards the rules. For such international students in a state of cultural dissociation, the school must take tough measures and invest more energy in cultural integration. This kind of situation is often caused by the lack of communication between foreign students and the mainstream culture, and groups formed in a foreign cultural environment will conflict with the mainstream culture due to misunderstandings[8]. Such negative information and emotions are fermented within the group, which can easily lead to fierce confrontations and even extreme events. Thus, relevant departments need to take actions to further promote the management of the convergence of Chinese and foreign students, and severely deal with international students who violate regulations and disciplines. However, the way of international student management should be personalized as well. Schools should provide humanized help as much as possible within the scope of policies. For instance, individualized help should be provided to international students according to their psychological status and cultural adaptability, so that they can adapt to the school management system and integrate into the campus as soon as possible. With China's accession to the WTO, the development of education for international students must directly face international evaluation and international competition[9]. We should take internationalization as the basic direction, learn from the experience and practices of advanced countries in developing foreign student education, combine our own actual conditions, formulate long-term development goals, reform and optimize our management system and management methods.

V. Conclusion

To sum up everything that has been stated so far, the management of international students is facing problems in helping students maintain good psychological conditions and integrate their school life because of the cultural differences, lack of cross-cultural awareness, and the single management model. Thus, in the management of international students in China, college should pay attention to the mental health and life experience of international students, starting with teaching and management, and taking active measures to avoid the seriousness of cultural shock. At the same time, colleges and universities need to increase their attention to the integration of international students, increase the cross-cultural awareness of students and

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management personnel, and adopt corresponding management and education strategies for the specific performance of different students. What colleges and universities also need to do is to continuously improve the educational and teaching activities of international students. In order to strengthen their exchanges with Chinese students, the school should accept and encourage them to participate in club activities, social services, and English corners. In this case, school can do their best to help adjust the cultural adaptation status of international students. When formulating and implementing management policies, colleges also need to uphold the principles of equality, justice, and harmonious coexistence to seek common ground while reserving differences. It's essential for college managers to establish a sustainable management concept, strengthen the overall management of overseas students in China, and cultivate the correct awareness and ability of cross-cultural communication among overseas students. Only in this way can colleges create a rich and colorful study life with international students during their stay in China.

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Authors can submit papers and articles in an acceptable file format: MS Word (doc, docx), LaTeX (.tex, .zip or .rar including all of your files), Adobe PDF (.pdf), rich text format (.rtf), simple text document (.txt), Open Document Text (.odt), and Apple Pages (.pages). Our professional layout editors will format the entire paper according to our official guidelines. This is one of the highlights of publishing with Global Journals—authors should not be concerned about the formatting of their paper. Global Journals accepts articles and manuscripts in every major language, be it Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, French, German, Dutch, Italian, Greek, or any other national language, but the title, subtitle, and abstract should be in English. This will facilitate indexing and the pre-peer review process.

The following is the official style and template developed for publication of a research paper. Authors are not required to follow this style during the submission of the paper. It is just for reference purposes.

Manuscript Style Instruction (Optional)

- Microsoft Word Document Setting Instructions.
- Font type of all text should be Swis721 Lt BT.
- Page size: 8.27" x 11'", left margin: 0.65, right margin: 0.65, bottom margin: 0.75.
- Paper title should be in one column of font size 24.
- Author name in font size of 11 in one column.
- Abstract: font size 9 with the word "Abstract" in bold italics.
- Main text: font size 10 with two justified columns.
- Two columns with equal column width of 3.38 and spacing of 0.2.
- First character must be three lines drop-capped.
- The paragraph before spacing of 1 pt and after of 0 pt.
- Line spacing of 1 pt.
- Large images must be in one column.
- The names of first main headings (Heading 1) must be in Roman font, capital letters, and font size of 10.
- The names of second main headings (Heading 2) must not include numbers and must be in italics with a font size of 10.

Structure and Format of Manuscript

The recommended size of an original research paper is under 15,000 words and review papers under 7,000 words. Research articles should be less than 10,000 words. Research papers are usually longer than review papers. Review papers are reports of significant research (typically less than 7,000 words, including tables, figures, and references)

A research paper must include:

a) A title which should be relevant to the theme of the paper.
b) A summary, known as an abstract (less than 150 words), containing the major results and conclusions.
c) Up to 10 keywords that precisely identify the paper's subject, purpose, and focus.
d) An introduction, giving fundamental background objectives.
e) Resources and techniques with sufficient complete experimental details (wherever possible by reference) to permit repetition, sources of information must be given, and numerical methods must be specified by reference.
f) Results which should be presented concisely by well-designed tables and figures.
g) Suitable statistical data should also be given.
h) All data must have been gathered with attention to numerical detail in the planning stage.

Design has been recognized to be essential to experiments for a considerable time, and the editor has decided that any paper that appears not to have adequate numerical treatments of the data will be returned unrefereed.

i) Discussion should cover implications and consequences and not just recapitulate the results; conclusions should also be summarized.
j) There should be brief acknowledgments.
k) There ought to be references in the conventional format. Global Journals recommends APA format.

Authors should carefully consider the preparation of papers to ensure that they communicate effectively. Papers are much more likely to be accepted if they are carefully designed and laid out, contain few or no errors, are summarizing, and follow instructions. They will also be published with much fewer delays than those that require much technical and editorial correction.

The Editorial Board reserves the right to make literary corrections and suggestions to improve brevity.



Format Structure

It is necessary that authors take care in submitting a manuscript that is written in simple language and adheres to published guidelines.

All manuscripts submitted to Global Journals should include:

Title

The title page must carry an informative title that reflects the content, a running title (less than 45 characters together with spaces), names of the authors and co-authors, and the place(s) where the work was carried out.

Author details

The full postal address of any related author(s) must be specified.

Abstract

The abstract is the foundation of the research paper. It should be clear and concise and must contain the objective of the paper and inferences drawn. It is advised to not include big mathematical equations or complicated jargon.

Many researchers searching for information online will use search engines such as Google, Yahoo or others. By optimizing your paper for search engines, you will amplify the chance of someone finding it. In turn, this will make it more likely to be viewed and cited in further works. Global Journals has compiled these guidelines to facilitate you to maximize the web-friendliness of the most public part of your paper.

Keywords

A major lynchpin of research work for the writing of research papers is the keyword search, which one will employ to find both library and internet resources. Up to eleven keywords or very brief phrases have to be given to help data retrieval, mining, and indexing.

One must be persistent and creative in using keywords. An effective keyword search requires a strategy: planning of a list of possible keywords and phrases to try.

Choice of the main keywords is the first tool of writing a research paper. Research paper writing is an art. Keyword search should be as strategic as possible.

One should start brainstorming lists of potential keywords before even beginning searching. Think about the most important concepts related to research work. Ask, “What words would a source have to include to be truly valuable in a research paper?” Then consider synonyms for the important words.

It may take the discovery of only one important paper to steer in the right keyword direction because, in most databases, the keywords under which a research paper is abstracted are listed with the paper.

Numerical Methods

Numerical methods used should be transparent and, where appropriate, supported by references.

Abbreviations

Authors must list all the abbreviations used in the paper at the end of the paper or in a separate table before using them.

Formulas and equations

Authors are advised to submit any mathematical equation using either MathJax, KaTeX, or LaTeX, or in a very high-quality image.

Tables, Figures, and Figure Legends

Tables: Tables should be cautiously designed, uncrowned, and include only essential data. Each must have an Arabic number, e.g., Table 4, a self-explanatory caption, and be on a separate sheet. Authors must submit tables in an editable format and not as images. References to these tables (if any) must be mentioned accurately.

Figures

Figures are supposed to be submitted as separate files. Always include a citation in the text for each figure using Arabic numbers, e.g., Fig. 4. Artwork must be submitted online in vector electronic form or by emailing it.

Preparation of Eletronic Figures for Publication

Although low-quality images are sufficient for review purposes, print publication requires high-quality images to prevent the final product being blurred or fuzzy. Submit (possibly by e-mail) EPS (line art) or TIFF (halftone/ photographs) files only. MS PowerPoint and Word Graphics are unsuitable for printed pictures. Avoid using pixel-oriented software. Scans (TIFF only) should have a resolution of at least 350 dpi (halftone) or 700 to 1100 dpi (line drawings). Please give the data for figures in black and white or submit a Color Work Agreement form. EPS files must be saved with fonts embedded (and with a TIFF preview, if possible).

For scanned images, the scanning resolution at final image size ought to be as follows to ensure good reproduction: line art: >650 dpi; halftones (including gel photographs): >350 dpi; figures containing both halftone and line images: >650 dpi.

Color charges: Authors are advised to pay the full cost for the reproduction of their color artwork. Hence, please note that if there is color artwork in your manuscript when it is accepted for publication, we would require you to complete and return a Color Work Agreement form before your paper can be published. Also, you can email your editor to remove the color fee after acceptance of the paper.

Tips for writing a good quality Management Research Paper

Techniques for writing a good quality management and business research paper:

1. Choosing the topic: In most cases, the topic is selected by the interests of the author, but it can also be suggested by the guides. You can have several topics, and then judge which you are most comfortable with. This may be done by asking several questions of yourself, like "Will I be able to carry out a search in this area? Will I find all necessary resources to accomplish the search? Will I be able to find all information in this field area?" If the answer to this type of question is "yes," then you ought to choose that topic. In most cases, you may have to conduct surveys and visit several places. Also, you might have to do a lot of work to find all the rises and falls of the various data on that subject. Sometimes, detailed information plays a vital role, instead of short information. Evaluators are human: The first thing to remember is that evaluators are also human beings. They are not only meant for rejecting a paper. They are here to evaluate your paper. So present your best aspect.

2. Think like evaluators: If you are in confusion or getting demotivated because your paper may not be accepted by the evaluators, then think, and try to evaluate your paper like an evaluator. Try to understand what an evaluator wants in your research paper, and you will automatically have your answer. Make blueprints of paper: The outline is the plan or framework that will help you to arrange your thoughts. It will make your paper logical. But remember that all points of your outline must be related to the topic you have chosen.

3. Ask your guides: If you are having any difficulty with your research, then do not hesitate to share your difficulty with your guide (if you have one). They will surely help you out and resolve your doubts. If you can't clarify what exactly you require for your work, then ask your supervisor to help you with an alternative. He or she might also provide you with a list of essential readings.

4. Use of computer is recommended: As you are doing research in the field of management and business then this point is quite obvious. Use right software: Always use good quality software packages. If you are not capable of judging good software, then you can lose the quality of your paper unknowingly. There are various programs available to help you which you can get through the internet.

5. Use the internet for help: An excellent start for your paper is using Google. It is a wondrous search engine, where you can have your doubts resolved. You may also read some answers for the frequent question of how to write your research paper or find a model research paper. You can download books from the internet. If you have all the required books, place importance on reading, selecting, and analyzing the specified information. Then sketch out your research paper. Use big pictures: You may use encyclopedias like Wikipedia to get pictures with the best resolution. At Global Journals, you should strictly follow here.



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6. Bookmarks are useful: When you read any book or magazine, you generally use bookmarks, right? It is a good habit which helps to not lose your continuity. You should always use bookmarks while searching on the internet also, which will make your search easier.

7. Revise what you wrote: When you write anything, always read it, summarize it, and then finalize it.

8. Make every effort: Make every effort to mention what you are going to write in your paper. That means always have a good start. Try to mention everything in the introduction—what is the need for a particular research paper. Polish your work with good writing skills and always give an evaluator what he wants. Make backups: When you are going to do any important thing like making a research paper, you should always have backup copies of it either on your computer or on paper. This protects you from losing any portion of your important data.

9. Produce good diagrams of your own: Always try to include good charts or diagrams in your paper to improve quality. Using several unnecessary diagrams will degrade the quality of your paper by creating a hodgepodge. So always try to include diagrams which were made by you to improve the readability of your paper. Use of direct quotes: When you do research relevant to literature, history, or current affairs, then use of quotes becomes essential, but if the study is relevant to science, use of quotes is not preferable.

10. Use proper verb tense: Use proper verb tenses in your paper. Use past tense to present those events that have happened. Use present tense to indicate events that are going on. Use future tense to indicate events that will happen in the future. Use of wrong tenses will confuse the evaluator. Avoid sentences that are incomplete.

11. Pick a good study spot: Always try to pick a spot for your research which is quiet. Not every spot is good for studying.

12. Know what you know: Always try to know what you know by making objectives, otherwise you will be confused and unable to achieve your target.

13. Use good grammar: Always use good grammar and words that will have a positive impact on the evaluator; use of good vocabulary does not mean using tough words which the evaluator has to find in a dictionary. Do not fragment sentences. Eliminate one-word sentences. Do not ever use a big word when a smaller one would suffice.
Verbs have to be in agreement with their subjects. In a research paper, do not start sentences with conjunctions or finish them with prepositions. When writing formally, it is advisable to never split an infinitive because someone will (wrongly) complain. Avoid clichés like a disease. Always shun irritating alliteration. Use language which is simple and straightforward. Put together a neat summary.

14. Arrangement of information: Each section of the main body should start with an opening sentence, and there should be a changeover at the end of the section. Give only valid and powerful arguments for your topic. You may also maintain your arguments with records.

15. Never start at the last minute: Always allow enough time for research work. Leaving everything to the last minute will degrade your paper and spoil your work.

16. Multitasking in research is not good: Doing several things at the same time is a bad habit in the case of research activity. Research is an area where everything has a particular time slot. Divide your research work into parts, and do a particular part in a particular time slot.

17. Never copy others' work: Never copy others' work and give it your name because if the evaluator has seen it anywhere, you will be in trouble. Take proper rest and food: No matter how many hours you spend on your research activity, if you are not taking care of your health, then all your efforts will have been in vain. For quality research, take proper rest and food.

18. Go to seminars: Attend seminars if the topic is relevant to your research area. Utilize all your resources.

19. Refresh your mind after intervals: Try to give your mind a rest by listening to soft music or sleeping in intervals. This will also improve your memory. Acquire colleagues: Always try to acquire colleagues. No matter how sharp you are, if you acquire colleagues, they can give you ideas which will be helpful to your research.

20. Think technically: Always think technically. If anything happens, search for its reasons, benefits, and demerits. Think and then print: When you go to print your paper, check that tables are not split, headings are not detached from their descriptions, and page sequence is maintained.

21. Adding unnecessary information: Do not add unnecessary information like "I have used MS Excel to draw graphs." Irrelevant and inappropriate material is superfluous. Foreign terminology and phrases are not apropos. One should never take a broad view. Analogy is like feathers on a snake. Use words properly, regardless of how others use them. Remove quotations. Puns are for kids, not grunt readers. Never oversimplify: When adding material to your research paper, never go for oversimplification; this will definitely irritate the evaluator. Be specific. Never use rhythmic redundancies. Contractions shouldn't be used in a research paper. Comparisons are as terrible as clichés. Give up ampersands, abbreviations, and so on. Remove commas that are not necessary. Parenthetical words should be between brackets or commas. Understatement is always the best way to put forward earth-shaking thoughts. Give a detailed literary review.

22. Report concluded results: Use concluded results. From raw data, filter the results, and then conclude your studies based on measurements and observations taken. An appropriate number of decimal places should be used. Parenthetical remarks are prohibited here. Proofread carefully at the final stage. At the end, give an outline to your arguments. Spot perspectives of further study of the subject. Justify your conclusion at the bottom sufficiently, which will probably include examples.

23. Upon conclusion: Once you have concluded your research, the next most important step is to present your findings. Presentation is extremely important as it is the definite medium though which your research is going to be in print for the rest of the crowd. Care should be taken to categorize your thoughts well and present them in a logical and neat manner. A good quality research paper format is essential because it serves to highlight your research paper and bring to light all necessary aspects of your research.

Informal Guidelines of Research Paper Writing

Key points to remember:

- Submit all work in its final form.
- Write your paper in the form which is presented in the guidelines using the template.
- Please note the criteria peer reviewers will use for grading the final paper.

Final points:

One purpose of organizing a research paper is to let people interpret your efforts selectively. The journal requires the following sections, submitted in the order listed, with each section starting on a new page:

The introduction: This will be compiled from reference matter and reflect the design processes or outline of basis that directed you to make a study. As you carry out the process of study, the method and process section will be constructed like that. The results segment will show related statistics in nearly sequential order and direct reviewers to similar intellectual paths throughout the data that you gathered to carry out your study.

The discussion section:

This will provide understanding of the data and projections as to the implications of the results. The use of good quality references throughout the paper will give the effort trustworthiness by representing an alertness to prior workings.

Writing a research paper is not an easy job, no matter how trouble-free the actual research or concept. Practice, excellent preparation, and controlled record-keeping are the only means to make straightforward progression.

General style:

Specific editorial column necessities for compliance of a manuscript will always take over from directions in these general guidelines.

To make a paper clear: Adhere to recommended page limits.

Mistakes to avoid:

- Insertion of a title at the foot of a page with subsequent text on the next page.
- Separating a table, chart, or figure—confine each to a single page.
- Submitting a manuscript with pages out of sequence.
- In every section of your document, use standard writing style, including articles ("a" and "the").
- Keep paying attention to the topic of the paper.



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- Use paragraphs to split each significant point (excluding the abstract).
- Align the primary line of each section.
- Present your points in sound order.
- Use present tense to report well-accepted matters.
- Use past tense to describe specific results.
- Do not use familiar wording; don't address the reviewer directly. Don't use slang or superlatives.
- Avoid use of extra pictures—include only those figures essential to presenting results.

Title page:

Choose a revealing title. It should be short and include the name(s) and address(es) of all authors. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations or exceed two printed lines.

Abstract: This summary should be two hundred words or less. It should clearly and briefly explain the key findings reported in the manuscript and must have precise statistics. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations. It should be logical in itself. Do not cite references at this point.

An abstract is a brief, distinct paragraph summary of finished work or work in development. In a minute or less, a reviewer can be taught the foundation behind the study, common approaches to the problem, relevant results, and significant conclusions or new questions.

Write your summary when your paper is completed because how can you write the summary of anything which is not yet written? Wealth of terminology is very essential in abstract. Use comprehensive sentences, and do not sacrifice readability for brevity; you can maintain it succinctly by phrasing sentences so that they provide more than a lone rationale. The author can at this moment go straight to shortening the outcome. Sum up the study with the subsequent elements in any summary. Try to limit the initial two items to no more than one line each.

Reason for writing the article—theory, overall issue, purpose.

- Fundamental goal.
- To-the-point depiction of the research.
- Consequences, including definite statistics—if the consequences are quantitative in nature, account for this; results of any numerical analysis should be reported. Significant conclusions or questions that emerge from the research.

Approach:

- Single section and succinct.
- An outline of the job done is always written in past tense.
- Concentrate on shortening results—limit background information to a verdict or two.
- Exact spelling, clarity of sentences and phrases, and appropriate reporting of quantities (proper units, important statistics) are just as significant in an abstract as they are anywhere else.

Introduction:

The introduction should "introduce" the manuscript. The reviewer should be presented with sufficient background information to be capable of comprehending and calculating the purpose of your study without having to refer to other works. The basis for the study should be offered. Give the most important references, but avoid making a comprehensive appraisal of the topic. Describe the problem visibly. If the problem is not acknowledged in a logical, reasonable way, the reviewer will give no attention to your results. Speak in common terms about techniques used to explain the problem, if needed, but do not present any particulars about the protocols here.

The following approach can create a valuable beginning:

- Explain the value (significance) of the study.
- Defend the model—why did you employ this particular system or method? What is its compensation? Remark upon its appropriateness from an abstract point of view as well as pointing out sensible reasons for using it.
- Present a justification. State your particular theory(-ies) or aim(s), and describe the logic that led you to choose them.
- Briefly explain the study's tentative purpose and how it meets the declared objectives.

Approach:

Use past tense except for when referring to recognized facts. After all, the manuscript will be submitted after the entire job is done. Sort out your thoughts; manufacture one key point for every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need at least four paragraphs. Present surrounding information only when it is necessary to support a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read everything you know about a topic. Shape the theory specifically—do not take a broad view.

As always, give awareness to spelling, simplicity, and correctness of sentences and phrases.

Procedures (methods and materials):

This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A soundly written procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replicate your results. Present precise information about your supplies. The suppliers and clarity of reagents can be helpful bits of information. Present methods in sequential order, but linked methodologies can be grouped as a segment. Be concise when relating the protocols. Attempt to give the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to replicate your outcome, but be cautious that vital information is integrated. The use of subheadings is suggested and ought to be synchronized with the results section.

When a technique is used that has been well-described in another section, mention the specific item describing the way, but draw the basic principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to show all particular resources and broad procedures so that another person may use some or all of the methods in one more study or referee the scientific value of your work. It is not to be a step-by-step report of the whole thing you did, nor is a methods section a set of orders.

Materials:

Materials may be reported in part of a section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

- Report the method and not the particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology.
- Describe the method entirely.
- To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures.
- Simplify—detail how procedures were completed, not how they were performed on a particular day.
- If well-known procedures were used, account for the procedure by name, possibly with a reference, and that's all.

Approach:

It is embarrassing to use vigorous voice when documenting methods without using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result, when writing up the methods, most authors use third person passive voice.

Use standard style in this and every other part of the paper—avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

What to keep away from:

- Resources and methods are not a set of information.
- Skip all descriptive information and surroundings—save it for the argument.
- Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.

Results:

The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part as entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Use statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently.

You must clearly differentiate material which would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matters should not be submitted at all except if requested by the instructor.



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Content:

- Sum up your conclusions in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- In the manuscript, explain each of your consequences, and point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation of an exacting study.
- Explain results of control experiments and give remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
- Examine your data, then prepare the analyzed (transformed) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or manuscript.

What to stay away from:

- Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surrounding information, or try to explain anything.
- Do not include raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
- Do not present similar data more than once.
- A manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate information.
- Never confuse figures with tables—there is a difference.

Approach:

As always, use past tense when you submit your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.

Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report.

If you desire, you may place your figures and tables properly within the text of your results section.

Figures and tables:

If you put figures and tables at the end of some details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attached appendix materials, such as raw facts. Whatever the position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other, and include a heading. All figures and tables must be divided from the text.

Discussion:

The discussion is expected to be the trickiest segment to write. A lot of papers submitted to the journal are discarded based on problems with the discussion. There is no rule for how long an argument should be.

Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implications of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and support all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of results should be fully described.

Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact, you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved the prospect, and let it drop at that. Make a decision as to whether each premise is supported or discarded or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."

Research papers are not acknowledged if the work is imperfect. Draw what conclusions you can based upon the results that you have, and take care of the study as a finished work.

- You may propose future guidelines, such as how an experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- Give details of all of your remarks as much as possible, focusing on mechanisms.
- Make a decision as to whether the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory and whether or not it was correctly restricted. Try to present substitute explanations if they are sensible alternatives.
- One piece of research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind. Where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.

Approach:

When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from other available information. Present work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.

Describe generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.

The Administration Rules

Administration Rules to Be Strictly Followed before Submitting Your Research Paper to Global Journals Inc.

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Please note that following table is only a Grading of "Paper Compilation" and not on "Performed/Stated Research" whose grading solely depends on Individual Assigned Peer Reviewer and Editorial Board Member. These can be available only on request and after decision of Paper. This report will be the property of Global Journals.

Topics	Grades		
	A-B	**C-D**	**E-F**
Abstract	Clear and concise with appropriate content, Correct format. 200 words or below	Unclear summary and no specific data, Incorrect form Above 200 words	No specific data with ambiguous information Above 250 words
Introduction	Containing all background details with clear goal and appropriate details, flow specification, no grammar and spelling mistake, well organized sentence and paragraph, reference cited	Unclear and confusing data, appropriate format, grammar and spelling errors with unorganized matter	Out of place depth and content, hazy format
Methods and Procedures	Clear and to the point with well arranged paragraph, precision and accuracy of facts and figures, well organized subheads	Difficult to comprehend with embarrassed text, too much explanation but completed	Incorrect and unorganized structure with hazy meaning
Result	Well organized, Clear and specific, Correct units with precision, correct data, well structuring of paragraph, no grammar and spelling mistake	Complete and embarrassed text, difficult to comprehend	Irregular format with wrong facts and figures
Discussion	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

INDEX

A

Academia · 2
Anthropologist · 38
Anxiety · 37
Argues · 25, 26, 28, 29
Armour · 26
Articulate · 16
Autonomy · 15, 16, 17, 18, 23

C

Cardinal · 31
Couperthwaite · 1, 3

D

Deacon · 31

E

Eternity · 28

H

Heterogeneity · 25, 26
Homogenous · 26

I

Ingenuity · 16

L

Leadbeater · 1, 3

P

Palmatier · 32, 34
Pastors · 30
Perishability · 25, 26

S

Sermons · 28
Synagogues · 30

T

Tacitness · 16, 21
Tangible · 25, 26, 27, 29, 32, 33
Theological · 32
Theoretical · 5, 15, 16, 25, 32





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