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DUAL COMMITMENTS AMONG FIREFIGHTERS

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Abstract: There have been recent changes in the employment setting that suggest that a re-examination of the influence of organizational and professional commitment on employee outcomes is in order. We explore the direct and interactive effects of the two forms of commitment on perceived supervisor support, perceived organizational support, and clarity of promotional procedures as well as job performance and organizational citizenship behavior. Research in a fire department in the southwest region of the U.S. indicates that organizational and professional commitment can jointly enhance individual attitudes but not behavior. The results are discussed in terms of current employment trends.

INTRODUCTION

Ever since Gouldner (1957, 1958) introduced the terms "local" and "cosmopolitan," there has been interest in dual commitments among employees. For "locals," the organization is a reference group and the primary focus of loyalty. "Cosmopolitans," by contrast, align with their profession and take their professional colleagues as a reference group. Their loyalty is aligned with the profession rather than the organization.

While Gouldner's work focused on the classic professions (accounting, engineering, medicine, and law), there has been an increase in professionalization of the workforce, including police and firefighters (Miller & Unruh, 2019; Susca, 2018). By contrast, loyalty to the employer has been damaged by changes in the work environment (Bawany, 2016), including lower job security and more emphasis on short-term results. Many companies, including public safety services (Merritt et al., 2019), have downsized or outsourced work. How have these changes influenced the operation of dual commitments?

DUAL COMMITMENTS

Dual commitments to organization and profession have often been viewed as conflicting (Howell & Dorfman, 1986; Kwon & Banks, 2004; Singh & Gupta, 2015). There may be organizational pressure to act to benefit the organization (e.g., cut costs or increase profits) in ways that are inconsistent with professional requirements (Clayton & van Staden, 2015). However, dual commitments to organization and profession may jointly enhance outcomes (Paillé et al., 2016). If organizational culture supports professional behavior, conflict between

professional and organizational commitments is less likely (Barrainkua & Espinosa-Pike, 2020). Studies support this complementary effect (Baugh & Roberts, 1994; Jørgensen & Becker, 2015; Perry et al., 2016), but external changes suggest a re-examination of this complementarity.

Employee Attitudinal Responses

Supervisory support may be related to both organizational and professional commitment. An individual with high organizational commitment is likely to perceive positive aspects of the organization, including support from the supervisor (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Thus, one would expect a positive relationship between organizational commitment and supervisory support (Eisenberg et al. 1986). While individuals with high professional commitment may view the supervisor as constraining the ability to perform the job to professional standards (Baugh & Roberts, 1994), consistency between organizational and professional requirements may enhance perceived supervisory support (Barrainkua & Espinosa-Pike, 2020; Valeau et al., 2021). We predict that this situation is the case for firefighters.

Individuals with high organizational commitment will believe that the organization supports them in performing their best, suggesting a positive relationship between organizational commitment and perceived organizational support. Professionally committed individuals may view the organization as setting obstacles to high performance as defined by professional requirements (Baugh & Roberts, 1994). However, an organization that facilitates professional identity will be viewed as supportive (Kwon & Banks,2004; Jøgensen & Becker, 2015), thus indicating a positive relationship between professional commitment and organizational support. We predict a positive relationship between professional commitment and perceived organizational support.

Individuals with high organizational commitment will have high expectations for organizational justice (Blix et al., 2021; Jehanzeb & Mohanty, 2019). They are likely to perceive that promotional practices are transparent and open. Individuals who are highly professionally committed may be discouraged by what they view as "organizational politics" influencing promotional processes. However, professionally committed individuals are also likely to believe that good performance will overcome organizational politics. We predict a positive relationship between professional commitment and transparency and clarity of promotion processes.

Job Performance and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organizational commitment has been weakly but positively tied to job performance (Mowday et al., 1979; Sumlin et al., 2021). We predict a positive relationship between organizational commitment and job performance as well as between professional commitment and job performance (Dinger et al., 2015; Kalbers & Fogarty, 1995). Good job performance protects the service recipient, who is the concern of professionally-committed employees.

Employees with high organizational commitment should be willing to engage in organizational citizenship behaviors—behaviors beneficial to the organization or its members but not required by the work role (Organ, 1988, 1997). Individuals high in professional commitment will be willing to engage in extra-role behavior (Jehanzeb & Mohanty, 2019). Professionally committed employees do not view their job as bounded by bureaucratic job descriptions, but instead as utilizing their professional expertise in any way that is can be useful.

Hypotheses

Organizational and professional commitment both may have positive relationships to organizational outcomes and each form of commitment may enhance the effects of the other.

Hypothesis 1: Affective organizational commitment will have a positive relationship with (a)

perceived supervisor support, (b) perceived organizational support, (c) clarity of promotional processes, (d) job performance, and (e) organizational citizenship behaviors.

Hypothesis 2: Professional commitment will have a positive relationship with (a) perceived supervisor support, (b) perceived organizational support, (c) clarity of promotional processes, (d) job performance, and (e) organizational citizenship behaviors.

Hypothesis 3: Organizational and professional commitment will interact such that the highest (a) perceived supervisor support, (b) perceived organizational support, (c) clarity of promotional processes, (d) job performance, and (e) organizational citizenship behaviors will occur when both forms of commitment are high.

METHOD

Procedure and Sample

This research stems from a larger study of behavior within a fire department located in the Southwestern United States. surveys were distributed to personnel in sessions over the span of three weeks. Two individuals described the purpose of the research and disposition of responses. Surveys were collected and sealed in envelopes after each session.

The sample comprised 86 respondents, including firefighters, emergency medical services personnel, and administrative employees. The participation rate was over 90%. The sample was 96% male and primarily Caucasian or Hispanic Caucasian. Respondents had worked at the fire department from 1.5 to 24 years. Tenure as a firefighter ranged from 3 to 26 years.

We collected data from the respondents' supervisors in separate sessions. Supervisors rated their subordinates' job performance and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Measures

All response scales ranged from "1" (strongly disagree) to "7" (strongly agree). Any necessary reversals in coding of items was accomplished before creating scales.

Predictor variables. We assessed affective commitment using the 8-item scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). The internal consistency value was .90. Aranya, Pollock, and Amernic (1981) introduced a modification of the organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ; Mowday et al., 1978, 1979) to assess professional commitment. The 6-item measure referred to the respondent's profession rather than the employing organization. The internal consistency reliability of the measure in this sample was .77.

Dependent variables. Eisenberg and colleagues (1986) developed both the perceived supervisor support and the perceived organizational support scales. In the supervisor support scale, the word "organization" was replaced by the word "supervisor." An additional item was added ("My supervisor is highly concerned about my safety") based on the high-risk nature of the jobs. The internal consistency reliability for this 9-item scale was .95. The measure of perceived organizational support was developed by Eisenberger and colleagues (1986) and has been used in subsequent research (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Moorman et al., 1998). We employed the 8-item scale but eliminated one item that was not applicable in the current setting. The internal consistency reliability for the 7-item measure used in this study was .89.

The 6-item measure of openness and clarity of information about promotion procedures was created for this study at the request of top managers and with the assistance of members of the fire department. An example item was "I am familiar with the requirements for promotions." The internal consistency for this scale was .82.

Supervisors rated the respondents' job performance using a 7-item scale introduced by Williams and Anderson (1991). Williams and Anderson reported an internal consistency reliability of .91, but in this sample the value was somewhat lower at .86. They responded to a 7-item scale assessing organizational citizenship behavior (Wayne et al., 1997). The coefficient alpha for this scale was .88 in this study.

Analyses

We tested hypotheses using hierarchical regressions. The two commitment variables were entered in the first step of each regression analysis. The interaction between the two commitment variables was entered in the second step. Both commitment variables were centered prior to computing the interaction variable. Significant interactions were explored using simple slopes analysis. Due to the small sample size, we used a median split on the organizational commitment variable to develop high and low groups for the simple slopes analysis.

RESULTS

The intercorrelations among the study variables are presented in Table 1. There were significant and positive correlations among supervisor support, organizational support, and promotion clarity, but the attitudinal variables were unrelated to supervisor-rated performance variables. The supervisor-rated outcome variables were highly, positively correlated. The two commitment variables were moderately, positively correlated to one another. The three attitudinal variables were significantly correlated to affective organizational commitment but not to professional commitment. Interestingly, respondents reported higher professional commitment than affective organizational commitment ($t(80) = 3.309$, $p = .001$).

Table 2 presents results for the hypotheses. Affective organizational commitment was positively and significantly related to the supervisor support, organizational support, and clarity of promotion procedures, but not to either of the supervisor-rated performance outcomes. Hypothesis 1 was partially supported.

There were no significant relationships between professional commitment and any of the outcome variables. Hypothesis 2 received no support.

There were significant interactions between affective and professional commitment on perceived organizational support and clarity of promotion procedures, showing partial support for Hypothesis 3. The significant interaction effects were explored using simple slopes analysis.

Professional commitment was significantly and positively related to organizational support when affective organizational commitment was high (= .316, $p = .064$), but not when affective commitment was low (= -.065, ns). Similarly, professional commitment was significantly and positively related to clarity of promotional procedures when affective commitment was high (= .334, $p = .046$), but not when affective commitment was low (= -.149, ns). Thus, attitudinal responses were stronger when the respondent experienced both high affective organizational commitment and high professional commitment.

We performed the analyses including organizational tenure and ethnicity as control variables and found consistent results.

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DISCUSSION

Results of this study suggest positive associations between organizational commitment and perceived supervisor support, perceived organizational support, and clarity of promotion procedures, but not with performance measures. Professional commitment was unrelated to outcomes. This result was a bit surprising; however, the absence of direct relationships does not mean that professional commitment is irrelevant to attitudinal outcomes.

There were significant interaction effects on two attitudinal outcomes. Combined high levels of these commitments were associated with higher levels of both perceived organizational support and clarity of promotional processes. The outcomes associated with the interaction of the two commitments were both characteristics of the organization as a whole, rather than the supervisor. Professional commitment, when combined with a positive attitude toward the work setting, results in positive perceptions of the organization's policies. The good news for organizations is that enhancing either form of commitment may improve employee attitudes.

The complementarity of organizational and professional commitment may be facilitated by the setting in which the research took place. The two major goals of the organization are protection of the public and protection of the employees. Professional standards involve maintaining public safety and careful attention to safety standards for the firefighters themselves. Thus, the goals of the organization and the profession are inherently compatible. There is rarely pressure to lower standards of performance for the public or safety of the employees. The same situation may not hold in some other professions—for example, medicine or accounting. There may be pressure in health care settings to control cost of care that creates conflict for the medical professional whose professional standards involve providing the best care possible. In the accounting profession, there is often pressure to engage in "creative accounting" for the benefit of the client.

It is puzzling that professional commitment showed no relationship to any of the outcomes. It seems that in the absence of reasonably high levels of organizational commitment, professional commitment may be viewed as conflicting with organizational standards. It is even possible that this conflict may be a causal factor in reducing organizational commitment.

We expected to see some relationships between the commitment variables and individual performance. The absence of relationships may be the product of very limited variance in the two behavioral outcomes of job performance and organizational citizenship behavior. In the case of job performance, individuals who do not perform to very high standards are soon let go due to safety concerns. Organizational citizenship behavior likewise had very limited variance. In a setting in which one's life may literally depend on the behavior of a teammate, it is expected that one will engage in organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward others. The constrained variance in these two outcome variables might explain the absence of relationships.

Limitations

These findings are relevant to occupations in which level of professional commitment varies. If such commitment is uniformly high (or low), outcomes will be different. The small sample size is also a limiting factor in this research. It would be desirable to continue this line of research with additional fire departments or perhaps other public safety officers. Common method variance might be a difficulty in this research, given that the variables that showed the strongest effects were self-reported. Common method variance could explain the main effects for affective organizational commitment, but it cannot explain the interaction effects.

Directions for Future Research

Future research should be directed toward identifying organizational features that enhance the complementarity of organizational and professional commitment. Organizations with a culture supportive of the employees' professional behavior may benefit from enhanced outcomes due to the complementarity of the dual commitments. This area merits greater attention, given the increasing professionalization of the workforce. Similar research could be focused on the relationship of contract employees to the contracting agency and the job site. Research might explore the potential undermining effects of extrinsic organizational rewards relative to the intrinsic psychological satisfaction of upholding professional standards. Finally, it is important to consider how jobs can be designed such that individuals feel that they can perform the job well and simultaneously meet professional standards.

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Table 1[a]
Intercorrelations Among Study Variables

Variable Name	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Supervisor Support	___						
2 Organizational Support	.316**	___					
3 Promotion Clarity	.613***	.424***	___				
4 Rated Job Performance	.067	.105	-.049	___			
5 Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	.112	.085	-.008	.630** *	___		
6 Affective Commitment	.294**	.657***	.354**	.052	.084	___	
7 Professional Commitment	.155	.195†	.113	.154	.175	.346**	___

[a] n varies from 70 to 80 due to missing data

Table 2
Regression Analyses for Organizational and Professional Commitments
Dependent Variables

Variable	Supervisor Support	Organizational Support	Promotion Clarity	Rated Job Performance	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors
Affective Organizational Commitment	0.324* (0.138)	0.879*** (0.111)	0.345*** (0.097)	-0.007 (0.077)	0.039 (0.102)
Professional Commitment	0.119 (0.219)	0.066 (0.174)	0.057 (0.154)	0.109 (0.128)	0.198 (0.170)
Affective Organizational Commitment x Professional Commitment	0.065 (0.152)	0.301** (0.120)	0.215* (0.108)	-0.052 (0.083)	0.022 (.111)
	R^2 = .087 †	R^2 = .481***	R^2 = .168**	R^2 = .026	R^2 = .030

† p < .10, * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

The Influence of Emotional Intelligence on Organizational Teams

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ABSTRACT

Organizational managers widely underrate team emotional intelligence (TEI) despite its significant role in promoting team success. TEI impacts on project management should be studied more, as most scholars focus on its benefits in leadership. We surveyed employees with experience working in teams in various organizations across the U.S. This study assesses the correlation between TEI and team performance, cohesion, task conflict, and team relationship conflict. In 226 responses, the findings showed that TEI and team performance were positively and strongly correlated, TEI and team cohesion were positively and moderately correlated, TEI and team task conflict were positively and weakly correlated, and TEI and team relationship conflict exhibited no correlation result. This study recommends incorporating TEI into team and project management strategies to enhance team and organizational performance.

INTRODUCTION

Building cohesive, high-performance, effective, and less antagonistic teams is one of companies' most potent strategies to succeed. Team performance is increasingly considered a critical contributor to a firm's survival (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017; Rezvani et al., 2019; Tran et al., 2021). Ashkanasy and Dorris (2017) note that task conflicts are rampant in the workplace due to competing interests, opinions, and priorities. Therefore, organizations face the challenge of enabling team performance by better managing intrateam conflict (Flores et al., 2018).

To research perceptions of employees and their work in teams, we examined 226 members of various organizations within the U.S. Researching issues of TEI and team performance, cohesion, task conflict, and relationship conflict helps provide organizational practitioners with empirical evidence on the need to nurture E.I. among teams. For this reason, this study examined the role of E.I. in promoting team performance, cohesion, and better task and relationship conflicts.

LITERATURE

Emotional Intelligence (E.I.) has become a critical tool for enhancing organizational performance, especially in highly challenging and complex work environments, and delineates a person's capability to perceive, access, understand, and regulate emotions to promote intellectual development (Drigas & Papoutsi, 2018; Supramaniam & Singaravelloo, 2021). High levels of E.I. may exhibit elevated performance rates and minimal counterproductive behavior (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). This favorable implication accentuates the need for organizations to hone the E.I. skills of their workforce. Firms have invested substantial financial and human resources in creating and developing effective teams (Jamshed & Majeed, 2018; Mysirlaki & Paraskeva, 2020); however, individual emotional intelligence (IEI) development has often been overlooked.

Team Emotional Intelligence

TEI also denotes the capability of team members to mind each other's state of mind, appreciate group feelings, and repair adverse emotions through positive thinking skills (Aritzeta et al., 2020; Druskat et al., 2017). A shared positive mood affects teams' motivation and behaviors, including the commitment to established goals, gratification, and initiative-taking (Buades et al., 2020). TEI is one of the dynamic concepts identified as a source of variability in group behavior (Aritzeta et al., 2020). TEI entails the capability of members to understand emotions within the team and identify the means to manage them effectively (Mindeguia et al., (2020). Furthermore, TEI comprises the potential of self-appraising to comprehend team emotions and group experiences (Aritzeta et al., 2020). Recognizing team experiences is vital to enabling team members to learn how to perceive their feelings, value their teammates' emotions, and adopt positive thinking to address adverse group reactions (Lee & Wong, 2019).

Team Performance

Team performance refers to how a team stays or works together until it achieves its goals or objectives (Salas et al., 2015). Teams with high cohesion levels reported improved performance compared to those with low or no cohesion among members (Grossman et al., 2022). Similarly, team cohesion predicts team performance and vice versa (Braun et al., 2020). Cohesion is a critical component in contemporary performance, as teams are likely to report improved performance because of their willingness to stick together and work collaboratively to

achieve the set objectives (Benishek & Lazzara, 2019). Conversely, a lack of cohesion discourages team performance if a lack of leadership or a hostile work environment exists (Mansor & Hossman, 2021). Similarly, a lack of team cohesion increased turnover intentions and resulted in poor organizational performance (Bartanen et al., 2021; Grissom & Bartanen, 2019). Overall, this evidence implies that team performance requires elevated levels of cohesion between members.

Team Cohesion

Cohesion occurs when members remain united while working to attain established objectives with feelings of contribution to overall team achievement (Fonseca et al., 2019; Thornton et al., 2019). Remarkably, firms require cohesive teams to implement, execute, and achieve their goals in highly competitive global environments (Minhas & Sindakis, 2021). High-performing teams work to achieve the same clearly stated goal even while engaging in different activities that contribute to common objectives (Burlingame et al., 2018; Thornton et al., 2019). If there is no common goal, team members risk not understanding clearly what they are working toward, which can be demotivating. Also, teams need measurable performance goal indicators to evaluate their progress (Fonseca et al., 2019). Through open communication, cohesion encourages workers to give genuine and frequent feedback while voicing ideas concerning improvements (Fonseca et al., 2019). Members should be able to express their thoughts and feelings about the team while focusing on work behaviors (Burlingame et al., 2018). These observations imply the need for team members to listen to each other and cease complaining about their teammates' behaviors without their knowledge.

Team Task Conflict

Task conflict implies disagreements among employees over executing duties at work (Vaux & Dority, 2020). Also, task conflict is tension caused by divergent views that trigger broken relationships (Maltarich et al., 2018). For this reason, it would be commendable for team leaders to monitor developments in their groups to detect and manage sources of tension before the situation worsens. Workgroups assigned to compound tasks are expected to produce novel and valuable ideas to help companies innovate better solutions to market demands (Liu et al., 2022). However, with the complexity and uncertainty of such exercises, task conflict happens when members have diverse interpretations of corporate policies and procedures or instructions for job assignments (Vaux & Dority, 2020). Task conflict may result from corporate decisions, laws and regulations, budgets, employee perceptions of workload, and company policies (He et al., 2021). People have different viewpoints at various times, some believing their ideas are superior while others hold conflicting opinions (Butt & Ahmad, 2019). Despite its potential to trigger innovation, task conflict can be a source of disagreements and poor working relationships (He et al., 2021). Although task conflict is unavoidably part of human nature, firms must address it because it may have severe repercussions on businesses (Zhao et al., 2019). Organizations may develop comprehensive monitoring systems to identify conflicts as soon as they arise to avoid detrimental outcomes (Burton et al., 2019). Organizational teams may desire to explore various leadership approaches for managing task conflicts.

Team Relationship Conflict

Team relationship conflict may be defined as a lack of consensus due to differences in perspectives, opinions, beliefs, personalities, and experiences (Ahmed et al., 2019). Moreover, Simons and Peterson (2000) conceptualize relationship conflict as tension, annoyance, and hatred among team members. Relationship conflict is unavoidable because of differing opinions,

cultural practices, and beliefs, and conflict may arise whenever members closely interact on specific tasks (Ahmed et al., 2019; Sinha et al., 2021). Given this revelation, organizations must be ready to apply the best practices to manage relationship conflicts among team members. Distinct features denote relationship conflict. Huang (2012) identifies hostilities, anxiety, stress, and tension among team members as the most notable characteristics of conflict. Manifestations of these features can be explained using the threat-rigidity theory. According to this model, perceived social threats such as relationship conflict trigger a stress response, adversely affecting individual and group behavior (Staw et al., 1981). The team's mental resources are vital in managing the outcomes of a stress response. If not properly managed, the impacts of relationship conflict may be detrimental to task performance (Huang, 2012). This possibility underlines the need for enhanced mental capacity for individuals to navigate the potential solutions to relationship conflict management.

HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1: There is a correlation between team emotional intelligence and team performance.

Hypothesis 2: There is a correlation between team emotional intelligence and team cohesion.

Hypothesis 3: There is a correlation between team emotional intelligence and team task conflict.

Hypothesis 4: There is a correlation between team emotional intelligence and team relationship conflict.

METHODOLOGY

The population for this study were full-time employees with experience working in teams in U.S. companies. A 53-item survey including five demographical questions was distributed via SurveyMonkey® to 342 individuals with 226 completed responses, a 66% response rate. The variable Team Emotional Intelligence (TEI) was correlated with team performance, team cohesion, team conflict, task conflict, and team relationship conflict and operationalized with the 16-item Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile-Short Scale (WEIP-S) by Jordan and Lawrence (2015), the 17-item Team Functioning Scale by Erickson et al. (2017), and the 7-item Group Cohesiveness Scale by Klocek Et al. (2020), and the 8-item Intragroup Conflict Scale by Jehn (1995).

RESULTS

We used Spearman's correlation to test the direction and strength of each hypothesis. All the assumptions for correlation were met, including two continuous variables, paired observation, and a monotonic relationship. The results of the analyses are as follows:

H1: Correlation between TEI and Team Performance

The results of Spearman's correlation show a statistically strong positive correlation between team emotional intelligence and performance: H1 is supported, $r_s(224) = .719$, $p < .001$, and the null hypothesis is rejected.

H2: Correlation between TEI and Team Cohesion

The results of Spearman's correlation reveal a statistically moderate positive correlation between team emotional intelligence and cohesion: H2 is supported, r_s (224) = .676, $p < .001$, and the null hypothesis is rejected.

H3: Correlation between TEI and Task Conflict

The results of Spearman's correlation reveal a statistically weak positive correlation between team emotional intelligence and task conflict: H3 is supported, r_s (224) = .193, $p < .05$, and the null hypothesis is rejected.

H4: Correlation between TEI and Team Relationship Conflict

The results of Spearman's correlation reveal no correlation between team emotional intelligence and team relationship conflict: H4 is not supported, r_s (224) = .107, $p = .109$, and the null hypothesis is accepted.

This study investigated the relationships between the influence of TEI on team performance, team cohesion, team task conflict, and team relationship conflict. The first significant study finding is a strong positive correlation between team emotional intelligence and performance. This finding was expected given that existing empirical evidence indicates a positive relationship between TEI and team performance, specifically that TEI moderates team performance by establishing a firm underpinning for norms that support trust, group identity, and efficacy via elevated levels of awareness and emotional regulation of members' interactions (Cole et al., 2019; Lee & Wong, 2019; Tse et al., 2018). A moderate positive relationship between TEI and team cohesion was revealed. This outcome was expected because extant literature posits that teams with enhanced TEI are more apt to participate in a collaborative and cohesive culture because they can understand their own emotions and those of others, enabling them to manage feelings appropriately (Jimenez et al., 2021; Michinov & Michinov, 2020; Moore & Mamiseishvili, 2012). Another finding was that TEI weakly correlates with team task conflict. This outcome aligns with the literature, however, not as substantially as recent studies that showed teams with enhanced levels of TEI are more effective, united, and better placed to achieve organizational goals and exhibit low task conflict frequencies (Dong et al., 2022; Kukah et al., 2022).

The final pair of variables analyzed revealed an unexpected result of no statistical correlation between TEI and team relationship conflict. However, empirical research examining the nexus between TEI and relationship conflict indicates that TEI motivates team members to achieve the organization's goals and minimizes relationship conflicts (Barinua et al., 2022; Mysirlaki & Paraskeva, 2020). The reasons for this outcome could be that the respondents have not recently experienced a stressful relationship conflict within a team dynamic and thus did not perceive it as an issue on the survey. The data analysis outcomes show TEI enhanced team performance, team cohesion, and the management of team task conflict and show no statistical correlation between TEI and team relationship conflict. The study's outcome contributes to the available body of knowledge by providing fresh insights into this association.

LIMITATIONS

As with any study, there are research limitations. For example, the instrument was administered online, which decreased the researcher's environmental control. Additionally, using self-reported information is a limitation because it cannot be independently verified. Furthermore, the e-survey contained several potential sources of bias of selective memory, telescoping, attributions, and exaggeration from the respondents. Finally, a significant limitation of the study is that the correlation method can determine a relationship between two variables, but it doesn't provide predictive or causal indicators.

CONCLUSIONS

The study's findings have significant implications for modern organizations. In particular, the results underscore the need for organizational managers to appreciate the role of team emotional intelligence (TEI) in human resources management. As the study revealed, TEI significantly positively impacts team performance. Therefore, organizations that create an environment that fosters TEI will be better positioned to manage their teams effectively while optimizing their performance. In the contemporary business landscape, team performance is a cardinal prerequisite for companies keen on realizing their core objectives, promoting collaboration within their workforces, and increasing productivity (Ji & Yan, 2020). Furthermore, the study's findings highlight the need for organizational leaders to embrace TEI to enhance team cohesion. Once employees feel connected to each other, they will likely communicate better, feel more satisfied with their work, and improve their productivity (Grossman et al., 2022).

Accordingly, organizations can borrow these lessons to leverage TEI to boost team performance and cohesion. Equally important, the study's findings demonstrate the need for organizational leaders to understand how TEI can affect team task conflict. Differences among team members can undermine productivity and decrease morale (MacCann et al., 2020). Organizational leaders can minimize the adverse effects of task conflict by guiding employees to recognize and manage their emotions and those of others within their teams. Moreover, companies that create environments that elevate TEI will be able to help teams make decisions more effectively, promoting creativity, solving problems, and accessing opportunities for learning and development (Morrison-Smith & Ruiz, 2020). Rather than ignoring the importance of TEI, organizational leaders should invest in strategies to turn the negatives associated with task conflict into positives. These benefits are undoubtedly significant and could profoundly affect organizations in different industries.

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FAITH & ENTREPRENEURSHIP: A REVIEW AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

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ABSTRACT

A literature review at the intersection of faith and entrepreneurship that contribute to the field by structuring the current knowledge and uncovering current research gaps. The review draws from an electronic search within 20 premier journals in entrepreneurship and general management with a total of 73 peer-reviewed articles analyzed. Collectively, this review accentuates the multifaceted influence of faith on entrepreneurship. Recognizing that faith's profound influence can pave the way for a more holistic approach to entrepreneurship. This paper addresses the call to incorporate theological viewpoints into entrepreneurship studies aiming to reveal groundbreaking insights by reviewing the nexus of faith and entrepreneurship across individual, family, organizational, and societal levels. It synthetizes and structures the current knowledge to provide valuable insights for policymakers, researchers, and entrepreneurs in order to cultivate an inclusive entrepreneurial environment.

INTRODUCTION

Weber's (1922) "The Sociology of Religion" starts by tackling the question of why humankind so widely embraces the belief in supernatural powers? And even though 100 years have passed since Weber's piece was published, we can say that despite continued projections of secularization, more than 80% of the world's population claim some form of religion (Pew Research Center, 2015). This review aims to continue and expand Weber's line of questioning and investigate the role of faith in entrepreneurial endeavors. For this review, I use the term "faith", but with it, I also consider "religion" and "spirituality". The oxford dictionary defines faith as "strong belief in God or in the doctrines of a religion, based on spiritual apprehension rather than proof." It is in these strong beliefs that I want to focus. In particular, what the entrepreneurship literature tells us on how these beliefs shape and influence entrepreneurial behaviors and outcomes.

The last few years we have seen an increase of interest in research around the intersection of faith and entrepreneurship. With that increase we have seen different perspectives and methodologies emerge around the body of research on the intersection between faith and entrepreneurship which bring complexity and the fragmentation into the field. From macro perspectives of entrepreneurial activity and individual level factors that influence entrepreneurial behaviors to organizational performance and beyond. This review aims to contribute to the field by synthetizing and structuring the current knowledge, serving as a comprehensive guide for

academics, practitioners, and policymakers interested in how faith-based variables interact with entrepreneurial phenomena. It follows the suggestion of Smith, McMullen & Cardon (2021) for the incorporation of theological viewpoints into entrepreneurship studies aiming to reveal groundbreaking insights.

METHODS

This review draws from a wide variety of scholarly journals for articles on entrepreneurship and general management in the last 30 years from 1993 to 2023. I employed an electronic search limited to peer-reviewed articles within 20 top journals. I used the following logic to determine which journals to include. First, I included the general management and entrepreneurship journals that are part of the 50 journals on the Financial Times (FT) journal list. Additionally, I included the top entrepreneurship journals not part of the FT 50 journal list but that are highly regarded in the ABS Academic Journal Guide, with a score of 3 or 4, or the Australian Business Deans Council with a score or A or A*.

To provide transparency and replicability, the searched followed the following process: each journal was searched by "*TOPIC*", which searches title, abstract, author keywords, on the Web of Science database for combinations of keywords related to faith and entrepreneurship. This keyword-based search initially identified a potential of 92 articles for the review. These 92 articles were screened to check for relevance of the article in relation to the review's topic of interest and non-relevant studies were eliminated to have a finalized list of 73 journal articles total used for this review. From the 73 journal articles that are part of this review, 13 are conceptual and 60 are empirical, and from the empirical ones 31 are qualitative, 28 quantitative, and 1 is mixed methods.

Through the search and article review I found that the majority of research at the intersection faith and entrepreneurship focuses on the mechanisms through which faith shapes entrepreneurship at different levels; individual, organizational, and societal. I divided the literature into three levels of interaction between faith and entrepreneurship which I will expand in the following pages.

FINDINGS

Level 1: Faith at the Individual Level

The intersection of faith & entrepreneurship offers a unique lens to view the behaviors, decision-making processes, motivation, and resource acquisition approaches of individual entrepreneurs. Some of the earliest work in this field talks about faith providing a work ethic that aligns to the spirit of capitalism (Weber, 1930), more recent work has continued this line of thought looking at how faith might shape an individual's choice for entrepreneurship through values of self-reliance and resilience showcasing that religious beliefs can be foundational, influencing entrepreneurial careers and decisions (Audretsch et al., 2013). Once engaged in entrepreneurship, entrepreneurs deeply rooted in their faith tend to amalgamate their beliefs into their work ethic and management style (Uygur, 2009). Faith also acts as a distinct frame influencing individual business operations shaping the moral and ethical paradigms within which entrepreneurs operate (Werner, 2008); for example, entrepreneurs with spiritual practices are

more likely to prioritize social and communal benefits (Pavlovich & Corner, 2014) and spiritual orientation can be a catalyst for innovative solutions geared towards societal improvement (Perez-Nordtvedt & Fallatah, 2022) suggesting that spirituality not only serves as a moral compass but can also be a tangible asset in the entrepreneurial landscape influencing business innovation and performance (Neubert et al., 2017).

Faith can also play a role motivating entrepreneurs and their endeavors, the interaction between a faith-driven relational identity with God and an individual's entrepreneurial identity bolsters the individual's persistence in their entrepreneurial ventures, suggesting a profound spiritual underpinning in entrepreneurial resilience (Smith, Lawson, Barbosa & Jones, 2023). Similarly, entrepreneurs harness resilience and inspiration from faith-based teachings that impact their entrepreneurial decisions (Tlaiss & McAdam, 2021).

Faith can be a catalyst influencing business growth activities (Sabah, Carsrud, & Kocak, 2014) and network ties through business connections that provide support, resources, and mentorship rooted in shared spiritual values (Mitra & Basit, 2021). Spirituality can potentially bolster trust and credibility in business settings (Xu, Tang & Liu, 2023). Empirical findings support the idea of faith serving as a solid foundation, guiding individual entrepreneurs in their journey. Offering a foundational pillar that deeply influence individual entrepreneurs' behaviors, identity, motivations, and decision-making processes. The integration of faith into one's work ethic and management style shape the ethical parameters within which entrepreneurs operate. It serves not merely as a moral compass, but as a tangible asset in the entrepreneurial ecosystem, impacting innovation, business growth, resilience, and network building.

Level 2: Faith at the Organizational Level

This literature review also revealed nuanced intersections between faith and entrepreneurial activities at the organizational level. Particularly in relation to the unique ways faith shapes organizational dynamics, performance, social responsibility and resources acquisition efforts.

Faith-based values, greatly impact the performance and effectiveness of new ventures (Liu et al., 2019) and play a pivotal role in shaping organizational stewardship (Carradus, Zozimo & Cruz, 2020). Suddaby et al. (2023) introduced the concept of "sacralization" to describe the enduring transference of faith-based values within the organization suggesting that faith not only influences immediate business decisions but also weaves a foundational fabric that undergirds the long-term ethos and trajectory of an organization. Similarly, faith-based values within an organization tends to align with long-term business goals, emphasizing sustainability over short-term gains (Pieper et al., 2020). Spiritual practices foster a heightened sense of awareness and connectedness, which can subsequently guide operational strategies and stakeholder engagement (Gamble & Beer, 2017).

We can also see a two-way effect between entrepreneurship and faith in organizational performance. Faith orientations can translate to distinct organizational behaviors that impact performance (Quattrone, 2015). On the other side, positive correlation has been found between entrepreneurial orientation in religious congregations and enhanced organizational performance (Pearce, Fritz & Davis, 2010).

Organizations, particularly in the entrepreneurial realm, often grapple with ethical dilemmas and the foundations provided by faith-based teachings, whether they are rule-centric or principle-driven, assists businesses in navigating these moral quandaries, ensuring actions that

align with their values (Fathallah, Sidani & Khalil, 2020). In rule-based frameworks, decisions are influenced by strict religious tenets, while principle-based frameworks allow for more interpretative application of religious values. This distinction is critical, suggesting that the way in which faith is approached within the organization can dramatically shape its ethical demeanor and consequential decisions.

In terms of organizational social responsibility and altruistic behaviors. Faith-based beliefs instill a broader, more holistic vision in organizations, pushing them to extend beyond immediate profit motives to consider community and societal welfare (Bhatnagar et al., 2020). Faith acts as a motivating factor, driving organizations towards altruistic behaviors and charitable contributions, aligning their operations more closely with broader societal benefits. Faith perspectives frame social responsibility activities sculpting an organization's understanding of, and commitment to, societal betterment (Zigan & Le Grys, 2018). Diverse faith perspectives can lead to variances in social responsibility initiatives.

If we delve into resource acquisition efforts, faith is of extreme relevance driving entrepreneurial endeavors by promoting affiliation and cooperation particularly in developing nations (Kirkbesoglu & Sargut, 2016). Faith diversity within an organization can influence the capital acquisition capabilities (Zhao & Lounsbury, 2016). In an interconnected, globalized world, this insight is vital, suggesting that religious plurality can be a strength, perhaps offering a broader array of perspectives and networks to leverage.

Faith is not mere individual or societal beliefs relegated to personal spheres. As this review reveals, it plays an instrumental role at the organizational level, impacting decision-making, long-term vision, social responsibility, and operational practices. In a multifaceted world of entrepreneurship, understanding these religious underpinnings offers a richer, more holistic view of organizational dynamics and potential. The relationship between faith and entrepreneurial activities reveals a foundational influence on organizational ethos, performance, and resource acquisition. Whether it's through the organizational values, navigating ethical dilemmas, promoting social responsibility, or driving resource acquisition, prior research suggests faith may play an instrumental role. The entrepreneurial literature is enriched by understanding these faith-based underpinnings that shape organizational dynamics and strategies.

Level 3: Faith at the Societal Level

Faith has profound implications for how entrepreneurship is pursued, viewed, and institutionalized within a society. Faith emerges as critical elements that shape entrepreneurial activities, behaviors, and outcomes at the societal level.

Faith levels in a society can play a pivotal role in shaping economic activities. It can facilitate resource flow and trust in crowdfunding, suggesting that shared religious beliefs can foster a sense of community and trustworthiness among entrepreneurs and investors (Di Pietro & Masciarelli, 2022). Shared faith beliefs can foster economic collaboration by providing an avenue of trust and mutual understanding (Janjuha-Jivraj, 2003). The underlying value systems of faith groups can advocate for ethical business practices, such as fair trade, that prioritize communal well-being over mere profit motives at the societal level (Cater, Collins, & Beal, 2017). Faith-based institutions significantly impact entrepreneurial tendencies at both macro and societal levels (Zelekha, Avnimelech, & Sharabi, 2014). The institutional approach of religions towards commerce, wealth creation, and individual autonomy can vary, influencing entrepreneurial tendencies and market accessibility (Hall & Ames, 1993; Mair, Marti &

Ventresca, 2012). By emphasizing the integration of entrepreneurial, socio-economic/ethical, and faith pillars entrepreneurs intertwine entrepreneurial ambition with socio-economic and faith responsibilities, reinforcing the idea that entrepreneurship doesn't merely serve individualistic or capitalistic ends but can also cater to broader societal purposes (Gümüsay, 2015).

While faith can be a driver of entrepreneurship, it can also pose barriers to entrepreneurial activities. Certain faith backgrounds could create entrepreneurial obstacles for women (Collins & Low, 2010) and generate religion-based discrimination against minorities (Davidson et al., 2010). Similarly, some faith groups can hinder the ability to become self-employed (Sarkar et al., 2018) and some faith convictions can limit certain businesses' growth by facing opposition due to religious beliefs (Gohmann, 2016). Such findings emphasize that while shared faith can foster entrepreneurship, it can also reinforce societal norms and values that may restrict or limit entrepreneurial endeavors for specific groups. Finally, Patel & Wolfe (2023) revealed that county-level factors, such as religiosity, do not necessarily influence the link between economic connectedness and entrepreneurial activity. This is complemented their study which found that secular values amplify the effects of economic decentralization on entrepreneurial ventures (Patel & Wolfe, 2022).

The literature suggests that the societal role of faith in entrepreneurship manifests in multifaceted ways. It can foster trust and community engagement, drive ethical business practices, and provide social capital all these rooted in deep cultural, ethical, and institutional frameworks. However, it can also pose barriers and challenges, especially for marginalized or minority groups. While some religious beliefs support and encourage entrepreneurial activities, others might oppose certain ventures due to moral or ethical concerns. Understanding these intricate relationships can provide richer insights into the societal dynamics that drive entrepreneurial behaviors and outcomes. As societies continue to evolve, understanding these nuances will be crucial for policymakers, entrepreneurs, and researchers alike.

DISCUSSION

The intersection of faith with entrepreneurship surfaces as a multifaceted, profound area of inquiry, that extends across individual, organizational, and societal levels, profoundly influencing entrepreneurial behaviors, decisions, and outcomes. At the core of entrepreneurial endeavors lies individual decisions, motivations, and actions. The research posits faith as a foundational pillar that profoundly affects individual behaviors, motivations, and decision-making processes (Audretsch et al., 2013; Uygur, 2009). This echoes Smith, Lawson, Barbosa & Jones' (2023) findings, reinforcing the assertion that one's spiritual orientation can shape their entrepreneurial journey. Organizations operating in the entrepreneurial realm frequently grapple with ethical conundrums and operational challenges, the inclusion of faith-based teachings within these organizations not only provides a foundation for addressing ethical dilemmas but also shapes the overall trajectory and ethos of the organization (Suddaby et al., 2023). As indicated by Gamble & Beer (2017), spirituality fosters a heightened sense of connectedness, which can be crucial for stakeholder engagement and operational strategies. Furthermore, faith's influence on social responsibility initiatives suggests its profound impact on how businesses perceive and engage with their broader societal responsibilities (Bhatnagar et al., 2020). Faith's societal implications for entrepreneurship are both vast and multifaceted. It plays a dual role by acting as a catalyst for trust and economic collaboration (Di Pietro & Masciarelli, 2022; Janjuha-Jivraj, 2003) while also being a potential barrier, as evidenced by the challenges

faced by women from certain faith backgrounds (Collins & Low, 2010) or religious-based discrimination against minority entrepreneurs (Davidson et al., 2010). The dynamic relationship between faith and entrepreneurship offers rich academic terrain to explore. Recognizing faith-based underpinnings and their implications is critical for a holistic understanding of the entrepreneurship process.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Entrepreneurs seeking to embed faith into their business strategies can view faith as a distinct advantage. This merging of faith and business strategy can offer a holistic model of entrepreneurship, potentially leading to innovative solutions with positive societal impacts. Entrepreneurs can also leverage faith-based communities for networking, mentorship, and resource acquisition, relying on shared values for building trust and collaboration. Investors can consider the faith orientation of entrepreneurial ventures as part of their due diligence, understanding how it might influence a business's ethics, operational style, and long-term vision. Shared faith beliefs can fast-track trust-building, which is pivotal for successful investor-entrepreneur relationships. Entrepreneurs might consider faith not just as a personal belief but as an organizational asset. Embracing faith-based values can align organizations with sustainability goals, ethical business practices, and community welfare, potentially leading to increased trust, stakeholder engagement, and business performance. Emphasizing faith perspectives can drive organizations towards more significant societal benefits, integrating them into their corporate social responsibility strategies. At the societal level, faith plays a pivotal role in shaping societal views and practices in entrepreneurship. It facilitates economic collaboration, fosters trust, guides ethical business practices, and influences institutional entrepreneurial tendencies. Understanding the societal implications of faith in entrepreneurship is essential for policymakers, entrepreneurs, and stakeholders. Policymakers can work with faith institutions to promote ethical business practices, leveraging shared values for communal well-being. Crafting policies that encourage the positive facets of faith while mitigating its potential barriers could foster a more inclusive and supportive entrepreneurial ecosystem. The interplay between faith and entrepreneurship reveals that faith is not a mere personal belief but an influential force shaping the entrepreneurial landscape. Understanding its practical implications can guide stakeholders to navigate the entrepreneurial ecosystem more effectively, leveraging faith as both a moral compass and a strategic asset.

CONCLUSION

This literature review at the intersection of faith and entrepreneurship illuminates that faith-based beliefs, far from being an antiquated or peripheral dimension, are vitally integrated into the entrepreneurial spirit. Across all levels, faith undeniably shapes the entrepreneurial landscape. It weaves into the fabric of individual identities and motivations, organizational strategies, and societal norms. Recognizing faith's profound influence can pave the way for a more holistic approach to entrepreneurship. This understanding is paramount for any stakeholder in the entrepreneurial ecosystem, from policymakers and investors to entrepreneurs themselves. As we move forward in an increasingly globalized and diverse world that grapples with complex socio-economic challenges, intertwining faith and entrepreneurship might offer a balanced path forward, ensuring that business ventures serve not only individualistic ends but also broader societal purposes. To grasp this is to truly comprehend the depth of human spirit and endeavor,

reminding us that at the heart of every business venture lies not just a financial pursuit, but a tapestry of values, beliefs, and aspirations that define our shared human experience.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM FIRST AUTHOR

SHIFTING STRATEGIC FOCUS DURING A MAJOR CRISIS: A LONGITUDINAL EXPLORATORY STUDY

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INTRODUCTION

Firms and their CEOs pay attention to various strategic opportunities based on their understanding of different environmental conditions (Rerup, 2009)—as they seek to exploit the best opportunities (Danneels, 2003) and to chart a clear path towards firm success (Joseph and Wilson 2018). While much research has focused on the outcomes of strategic attention (Ocasio and Joseph, 2018), research on the antecedents of strategic attention has been either sparse (e.g., Shinkle, Goudsmit, Yang, and Luo, 2017) or narrow in scope (e.g., Martínez-del-Río, Li, and Guthrie, 2022), thus, our understanding of broad antecedents of strategic focus is still limited.

We fill this gap in the literature by proposing this exploratory work, focusing on the broadest representative sample of large firms in the U.S. economy (the S&P 500), as well as on a wide framework of strategic issues developed by Eklund and Mannor (2020) covering 13 different "grand strategic avenues" that could be pursued by executives (e.g., customer-centric strategies, low-cost strategies, or new market strategies; full list described later in this paper).

In addition to our focus on broad strategic priorities from a wide range of large U.S. firms, we also use a large exogenous event that impacted all firms as our antecedent to strategic focus: the COVID-19 major crisis. Major crises as exogenous environmental shocks are sudden, unprecedented, and negatively impact and threaten firms, businesses, and society (Gundel, 2005; Meyer, 1982). This study's main exploratory research question is to understand the magnitude and direction of the change in strategic focus for S&P 500 firms in three separate samples: before the crisis, during the crisis, and after the crisis.

The remainder of this paper begins with a literature review followed by the development of a single exploratory hypothesis. Our methods detail the data collection, measurement, and analysis process to be followed in this paper. We conclude this work with a comprehensive analysis of our results and a discussion of their implications for the future.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Strategic Focus

The attention-based view (ABV) purports that a firm's behavior is largely dependent on what a firm's decision-makers pay attention to (Ocasio, 1997). A core assumption of ABV is that managers possess limited attentional capabilities (Simon, 1947), and therefore cannot pay attention to all information relevant to decision-making, thereby resulting in a bounded capacity to be rational. Two tenets of ABV may have a marked impact on the nature of strategic attention: *first*, executives select which strategic issues they attend to at any point time, and decision

making can only happen for these issues to which executives pay attention to; and *second*, the focus of decision-makers is largely influenced by the situations to which they are confronted (Ocasio, 1997).

Various antecedents may precede an increase or a decrease in focus on different strategic issues. For example, social tensions between the firm and its employees (e.g., a strike) may precede an increase in social strategies, the removal of tariffs by a neighboring country may lead to new market entry strategies, and technological breakthroughs (e.g., Artificial intelligence and GPT transformers) may lead to a focus on product innovation. In this study, we are interested in how managerial focus on 13 strategic issues shifted in response to a major crisis.

The Major Crisis Environment

Firms go through varied types of crises throughout their existence, but few crises are as profound as major crises. We define major crises as exogenous environmental shocks are sudden and unprecedented, and likely to be detrimental and harmful to the broadest range of organizations (Meyer, 1982). Examples of such crises include the 9/11 terrorist attacks (Gundel, 2005), the 2008 financial crisis, or more recently, the COVID-19 pandemic. These types of major crisis have unique characteristics. For example, they "appear surprisingly and are even beyond comprehension" (Gundel, 2005; p. 112); which makes preparing for them close to impossible. Such crises are major sources of uncertainty and disruption for firms (Bundy and Pfarrer, 2015), and represent a threat to organizations and their stakeholders, which is why organizational leaders typically mobilize and respond swiftly to major crises in an attempt to mitigate harm to the firm (Bundy and Pfarrer, 2015). While unfortunate for business and society, exogenous environmental shocks are useful to researchers as they often serve as natural experiments—that is, they mimic the "experimental ideal in which units are split into a treatment and a control group" (Sieweke and Santoni, 2020; p. 1).

Top Management Cues and Signals of Strategic Focus

Top management teams and their behavior is generally closely linked to the behavior of the firm, per Upper Echelons Theory (Hambrick & Mason, 1984). Actions carried out by firms and their strategic behavior can be explained to a great extent by the focus of top management teams (Chaganti & Sambharya, 1987; Hambrick & Mason, 1984) on various issues facing the firm. The study of top management teams is generally seen as a more appropriate way to obtain an accurate picture of firm behavior than the CEO alone, since modern organizations are increasingly complex, and require the leadership of a combination of cognitive capabilities (Hambrick, 2007).

Cues and signals of strategic focus are likely to be visible during earnings conference calls, which feature the cues the of many different top managers. Indeed, Earnings conference calls provide credible top managers—CEOs and CFOs—with the opportunity to address the market with prepared remarks and responses to questions from analysts' regarding the firm's strategic state (Kimbrough, 2005). Because top managers are likely to be perceived as a reflection of their firm (i.e., the face of the firm; Hambrick & Mason, 1984), cues of strategic focus sent during conference calls are likely to be perceived as those of the firm, as there is a high level of intertwinement between the firm and its top management team. These cues are also likely to reflect the firm's current situation as impacted by various antecedents, as insiders are aware of the true economic state of the firm (Merkl-Davies and Brennan, 2007).

HYPOTHESES

Strategic Focus Prior To and After A Major Crisis

Relatively stable macroenvironments may constitute ideal settings for managers who are able to selectively focus their attentional capabilities on the most salient business opportunities, while at the same time ignoring other less pressing matters (Ocasio, 1997). By focusing their energy on the most important business matters, top managers avoid becoming overloaded with too much information to process and too many ideas to pursue (Funk, 2014). The lack of an environmental shock means that managers may be free to craft the best strategy for their firm and focus on the most appropriate strategic issues for their specific firms (Ocasio and Joseph, 2018).

The lack of a major crisis during business operation (either prior the crisis event or long-after the crisis event) means that top managers are free to focus on the most appropriate strategic issues for their firms. Each firm should idiosyncratically select which strategic issue is most appropriate for them to focus on. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

> **H1:** Top managers display similar levels of attention towards all strategic issues between the pre-crisis and the post-crisis period.

Strategic Focus During A Major Crisis

Major crises may precede changes in strategic focus on all strategic issues, as they bring about sudden and unprecedented uncertainty, disruption, and potential harm for firms (Gundel, 2005; Bundy and Pfarrer, 2015). A major crisis is likely to quickly shift priorities for top managers, as new executive demands are created pressing threats brought about by the major crisis. A change in strategic priorities is likely required to mitigate harm to the firm, and changes in strategic attention may become necessary for top managers as they now need to scan, process, and make sense of new information (Nadkarni and Barr, 2008). Therefore, we expect that top managers will exhibit different strategic focus during a major crisis than prior or after. Thus, we propose the following hypothesis:

> **H2:** Top managers display different levels of attention towards all strategic issues during a crisis than outside of a crisis.

METHOD

Sample

This proposal relies on a pair of three samples of earnings conference calls held by the same S&P 500 firms prior to, during, and after the COVID-19 pandemic emergency declaration, which was officially declared on March 13, 2020 and officially ended on May 11, 2023. We used these two dates as a cutoff for creating three samples: all calls held directly prior to March 13, 2020 make up one sample (pre-crisis); all calls in the quarter directly following March 13, 2020 make up a second sample (during-crisis), and all calls held directly after May 11, 2023 make up a third sample (post-crisis). Although there are 503 firms in the S&P 500 index, our three samples comprise the same 446 firms each measured three times (the exact same firms are included in all samples). The discrepancy between 503 firms and 446 firms is explained by a) regular index modifications b) some firms never hold conference calls (e.g., Berkshire Hathaway), c)

bankruptcies (e.g., Silicon Valley Bank, First Republic Bank), and acquisitions (e.g., Twitter taken private). The data is from S&P Global.

Measuring Strategic Attention Breadth through CATA Methodology

CATA methodology was used to assess executive displays of strategic focus embedded within earnings conference call transcripts. CATA is a method of text analysis that allows researchers to measure constructs directly from language, such as the one featured in earnings conference calls (e.g., Larcker and Zakolyukina, 2012). CATA methodology is considered to possess strong empirical validity for strategic management research (Short and Palmer, 2008) due to its advantages over human coders. Indeed, CATA offers the unique feature of being able to analyze hundreds of thousands of words within minutes (Duriau, Reger, and Pfarrer, 2007) and with near-perfect reliability (as similarly coded CATA software will yield the same results; Neuendorf, 2016). Another distinctive feature of CATA for secondary research is its ability to generate formative independent variables (in contrast with reflective variables; e.g., a survey scale) which represent the "manifest characteristics of messages" (Neuendorf, 2016, p. 32). As such, CATA measures yield scores representative of written words that are objectively visible and countable.

The strategic issues to which executives pay attention were assessed through 13strategic issue dictionaries proposed, developed, and validated by Eklund and Mannor (2020) through inductive and deductive best practices in CATA measure development (Short, Broberg, Cogliser, and Brigham, 2010).

The aforementioned individual dictionaries were designed for implementation with LIWC software—which we used to analyze our earnings call transcripts for all 13 word-count dictionaries. We calculated the proportion of words associated with each strategy issue k. There are 300 words in total, spread over 13 separate strategy issue dictionaries, and the following equation was used to estimate all $p_{i,k,t}$.

$$p_{i,k,t} = \frac{300}{13\ x\ n_k}\ x\ \frac{c_{i,k,t}}{q_{i,t}}$$

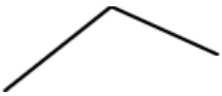
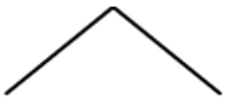
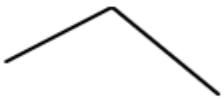
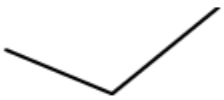
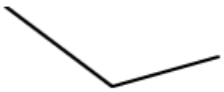
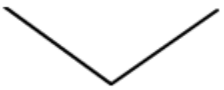
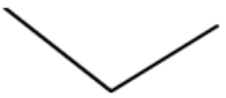
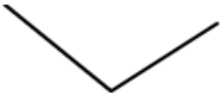
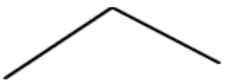
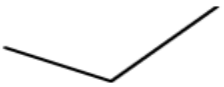
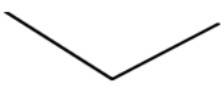
Statistical Analysis

The statistical analysis relied on 13 One-Way ANOVA procedures to compare levels of strategic focus on each issue across all three samples. The analysis was performed with R version 4.2.3.

RESULTS

The results for Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2 are included in Table 2. As can be seen, H1 was supported for the APS and FIRM strategic focus, but not supported for all other strategic issues. While differences across 11 out of 13 issues were found to be statistically significant, a preliminary analysis of each plot suggests that an economically significant difference between Group 1 and Group 3 may only apply to IOS, LCE, MAS, and PIN. Regarding Hypothesis 2, we found support for COS, STM, IOS, LCE, MAS, NME, PMS, RCD, SOC, PIN, and BMI; but not for APS and FRM. All supported strategic issue for Hypothesis 2 also appears to be economically meaningful.

Table 2: One-Way ANOVAs before, during, and after the COVID-19 crisis

	T	N	Mean	SD	SE	Plots/Commentary	F (Welch's)	p-value
	1	446	0.1003	0.083	0.004			
APS	2	446	0.1001	0.074	0.004	No significant difference across earnings calls.	0.01	0.989
	3	446	0.1009	0.077	0.004			
	1	446	0.377	0.29	0.014			
COS	2	446	0.4609	0.298	0.014		9.12	< .001
	3	446	0.4141	0.288	0.014			
	1	446	0.0758	0.088	0.004			
STM	2	446	0.1733	0.109	0.005		133.80	< .001
	3	446	0.0761	0.087	0.004			
	1	446	1.0606	0.455	0.022			
FRM	2	446	1.0426	0.411	0.019	No significant difference across earnings calls.	2.80	0.061
	3	446	0.9935	0.432	0.020			
	1	446	0.1747	0.108	0.005			
IOS	2	446	0.2207	0.114	0.005		51.08	< .001
	3	446	0.1475	0.103	0.005			
	1	446	0.354	0.179	0.008			
LCE	2	446	0.336	0.173	0.008		4.09	0.017
	3	446	0.3712	0.196	0.009			
	1	446	0.0896	0.096	0.005			
MAS	2	446	0.0445	0.051	0.002		39.93	< .001
	3	446	0.0619	0.076	0.004			
	1	446	0.3137	0.24	0.011			
NME	2	446	0.2522	0.21	0.010		8.35	< .001
	3	446	0.2738	0.228	0.011			
	1	446	0.1262	0.166	0.008			
PMS	2	446	0.1029	0.128	0.006		3.90	0.021
	3	446	0.1255	0.167	0.008			
	1	446	0.0459	0.046	0.002			
RCD	2	446	0.0356	0.038	0.002		7.41	< .001
	3	446	0.0437	0.053	0.003			
	1	446	0.0712	0.065	0.003			
SOC	2	446	0.1442	0.077	0.004		123.63	< .001
	3	446	0.0874	0.07	0.003			
	1	446	0.255	0.163	0.008			
PIN	2	446	0.2362	0.19	0.009		5.19	0.006
	3	446	0.2766	0.185	0.009			
	1	446	0.0557	0.066	0.003			
BMI	2	446	0.0429	0.054	0.003		6.00	0.003
	3	446	0.0534	0.069	0.003			

Note: Pre-Crisis period, T=1; During-Crisis period T=2; Post-Crisis Call T=3.
Inflection point on plots is Group 2 (During-Crisis calls)

DISCUSSION

Implications for research

Greater focus given to COS, SOC, STM, and IOS issues during a major crisis

Top managers appeared to increase their focus on customer-orientated strategies (COS), social strategies (SOC), external stakeholder management strategies (STM) and internal organizational orientated strategies (IOS) during the major crisis. This finding shows that top managers shifted their focus towards normative concerns during the crisis, and focused their efforts on caring for customers, internal and external stakeholders, as well as the public at large (as seen through the adoption of social strategies; inclusive of acts like charity/donations).

The major crisis appeared to act as an antecedent to increasing prosocial behavior for firms, however, focus on all aforementioned strategic issues (COS, SOC, STM, and IOS) seemed to wane and revert back to normal by the time the crisis was over. No increase in prosocial focus has lasted beyond crisis times, with some seeing even lower focus post crisis (such as IOS).

Lower focus given to LCE, MAS, NME, PMS, RCD, PIN, and BMI during a major crisis

Strategies aimed at increasing the efficiency of the firm, such as low cost and efficiency strategies (LCE), mergers, acquisitions, and firm scope strategies (MAS) and resource and capability development strategies (RCD) saw much decreased focus during the major crisis, as priorities seemed to have shifted to prosocial strategies as a result of major crisis. Shifting priorities appeared to have reduced managerial attention on these issues, to the benefit of aforementioned more socially beneficial issues.

We can also note that strategies aimed at expanding and growing the firm saw decreased focus in the during crisis sample, such as new market entry strategies (NME), product marketing strategies (PMS), product innovation strategies (PIN), and business model innovation strategies (BMI). The major crisis seemed to act as an antecedent to a reduction of focus on growth-oriented or innovation-oriented strategies such as NME, PMS, PIN, and BMI.

Product innovation strategies (PIN) and low cost and efficiency strategies (LCE) appeared to spring back up to higher levels in the post-crisis sample, perhaps suggesting that the lack of product innovation or efficiency improvements needed to be made-up once the crisis was over. These unique reversals in focus are not observed for other strategic issues.

No change in focus on APS and FRM during a major crisis

Top management teams did not appear to exhibit any change on focus on alliance partner strategies (APS) and financial and risk management strategies (FRM). On one hand, APS and FRM focus may be unlikely to shift as a result of entering a major crisis, since the crisis would not be an opportune moment to engage in such changes. On the other hand, the crisis could be seen as a trigger for new alliances or new risk management strategies, which make the lack of change observed in our data interesting. As it stands, it appears that managers do not change their focus on either APS or FRM issues during a major crisis.

Return to normal in the post-crisis sample

Generally, all changes in focus observed in the during crisis sample reverted back to their means. Our data seems to be indicative of time-bound changes in behavior for firms after going through a major crisis antecedent. While changes during the crisis happened rapidly, they seemed to have reverted back to pre-crisis levels once the major crisis was officially over. A major crisis

does not seem to input long lasting changes in CEO and top management team focus over the long run.

Implications for practice

Top managers and CEO should be careful about making permanent changes in response to a major crisis, as some of the shifts in strategic focus implemented during the crisis may be short lived. Indeed, over 3 years after the COVID-19 pandemic, many of the changes in strategy signaled by managers had reverted back to pre-pandemic levels. Firms should be careful not to overinvest or overcommit resources based on a major crisis, as change that seems permanent at the height of a crisis in fact appears to be rarely permanent. Most notably, a lack of focus on innovation and efficiency strategies during a major crisis may need to be overcompensated for once the firm exits the crisis, likely leading to uneven and uncertain investments in the firm's imperatives.

Limitations

As with all studies, this study comes with limitations. First, this study's context is situated around the COVID-19 pandemic, which is a unique type of fundamental crisis. While this crisis fits the definition of a fundamental crisis—that is a major, sudden, and unprecedented exogenous shock (Meyer, 1982) similar in magnitude to other fundamental crises (the 9/11 attacks, the 2008 Global Financial crisis)—we believe researchers should be cautious about generalizing our findings to other crisis context, especially if they are of a smaller magnitude. Second, we assessed downsizing and authenticity cues through pre-validated measures using CATA methodology. Although this type of textual analysis offers incomparable advantages, such as the ability to analyze large quantities of text rapidly and reliably (Neuendorf, 2016; Duriau et al., 2017), it still does not yield the fine-grained analyses which qualitative content analysis and case studies could provide (Neuendorf, 2016).

Future research

Future research may consider studying shifts in strategic issues before, during and after a major crisis with other fundamental crisis set-ups, such as financial crises. Pandemics have very unique crisis patterns which may differ from other fundamental crises. Furthermore, it would be interesting to see if hypotheses similar to this study can be tested in different countries and for different firm sizes. Future research may also want to investigate the performance consequences of shifts in strategic focus, through event-study methodology (e.g., abnormal returns) or financial measures of performance (e.g., changes in ROA or free cash flow to the firm).

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A CAREER FOCUSED INTRODUCTION TO BUSINESS CURRICULUM: ENGAGING STUDENTS, COMMUNITY, AND FACULTY

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Abstract: This paper highlights a re-positioning of a first time in college (FTIC) level Introduction to Business course to engage students through consideration of their broader career goals and to envision themselves as business professionals. The course model involves significant engagement from the business community/alumni, career services staff, and faculty across multiple business disciplines. Student learning objectives for the course are broadened to nest traditional discipline-based survey course content within career understanding and student professional development. Proposed outcomes include greater retention of students through development of shorter-term goals such as identification with specific majors and internships while longer-term goals include development of career placement and trajectories.

In 2022, a college of business (hereafter "College") of a mid-sized regional comprehensive public university extensively re-tooled an Introduction to Business course to address student needs. Among the College's 1,300 undergraduates 47% are female, 42% are Hispanic, 4% are international, and 44% identifying as first-generation college students. This abridged paper presents the redesigned course seeks to address:

-A lack of awareness about majors and understanding of career opportunities in business
-Low retention rates particularly among lower division students
-Low rates of participation in for-credit internships
-A lack of career readiness and professional development

Course Redesign

The course redesign included the following goals:

-Provide an overview of curriculum across the business disciplines
-Purposefully engage students with each major offered by the College
-Introduce students to a broad range of members of the business community/careers
-Prepare students to become professionals

Overview of Business Disciplines

The BUSI 1301 course remains true to its primary aim to impart broad knowledge about different business disciplines to students. The course was developed to utilize an OpenStax branded textbook, Introduction to Business (OpenStax, 2023). The e-book is an Open Educational Resource (OER) that students can access for free. Students were required to purchase a student subscription to *The Wall Street Journal* during the semester with 20% of the course grade based on discussion and sharing of articles from this resource on a discussion platform called Yellowdig. Yellowdig is a points-based learning platform that incentivizes active student discussion and engagement in an environment that is similar to social media platforms (Alfoldi, 2023). Yellowdig has shown to be more effective at facilitating student participation than traditional discussion boards (Martin et al., 2017).

Engage Students with Each Major

Course readings were used as framework for guest lectures and in class discussion. Two main types of guest lecturers were included. Students had ample opportunity to hear from faculty representing each discipline as well as from members of the business community. Each of the seven majors in the College were represented by a faculty member from the discipline. Many weeks would include a faculty member as the topic in the book/reading list was one that aligned with a major offered by the college (e.g., management, accounting).

Faculty who routinely serve as ambassadors of their discipline were asked to present for one class period about the major, career options, as well themselves. This introduction to a member of the faculty from each discipline gives existing majors in the discipline a stronger connection to the faculty. It provides undeclared or otherwise undecided students with someone to connect with should they want to learn more about the major. Students have routinely scheduled a follow-up visit with professors to have a more in-depth conversation.

Engagement with the Business Community

The second pool of guest speakers was from the business community. For instance, Chapter 8 covers Human Resources and features a guest presentation by the University's Chief Human Resource Officer. Chapter 14, Using Financial Information and Accounting, featured a member of the accounting faculty to present during the week. Members from the business community also presented as part of these topics. Their information was more practice based often sharing about their organizations and internships/careers available to students. Most presenters shared about their own career allowing students to see how they too can become successful professionals. Presenters included business leaders from retail, government, the College innovation center, and insurance/financial services. Many were alumni of the College.

Prepare Students as Professionals

The cumulative effect of the class is to begin students on a path from student to professional. While several years of coursework remains for students, the idea that they can join the professional world just as the alumni they hear from in the classroom is a powerful message. This is coupled with a discovery about various majors and career paths presented by the faculty.

Another component is provided by career services staff through in class presentations and the selection of career development assignments. A foundational assignment is for students to investigate careers that are of interest to determine the required KSAOs to obtain the position. Students are encouraged to research how many job openings are projected, potential employers, and salary information. Conducting this activity early in the semester allows student to build off their choice (or refine it) through the semester. Students create a resume and engage in a mock interview as part of the course. These two activities are conducted in Quinncia, an artificial intelligence driven platform for career development. Students upload a resume to Quinncia for

scoring and feedback which then informs personalized questions for an interview later in the semester. These activities could also be scored by the professor if Quinncia is not an option. Additional career development exercises were assigned including a LinkedIn profile, a synopsis of an informational interview with a professional, and a career plan in which students articulated their career goals and action plans for achieving those goals. Students had the opportunity to immediately leverage these completed assignments by attending career fairs during the semester and connecting with guest speakers and other professionals through LinkedIn.

The course emphasizes the importance of internships in gaining a career upon graduation. Many of the guest speakers discuss internship and career opportunities. In the case of the business community speakers, they often had opportunities available and would provide advice on when to apply during student's college progression and tips for applying to the positions. Career services was instrumental in the process as they provide the job board via Handshake (a college-student centered online job board) for students to locate internships/careers as well as campus-wide programming on professional development. Having staff from career services in the classroom on multiple occasions allows students to meet staff members and feel more at ease to engage with them or attend events (e.g., career fairs, business etiquette dinners). Providing a broader view of the full business field from an academic and experiential context may provide students with motivation to engage with their fields and develop a more concrete professional path. Each of the guess presenters contributed to this outcome.

Discussion

We have presented changes to the Introduction to Business/Business Principles course to address challenges within the College. While the context for the deployment of the course is narrow, the issues addressed are common to many universities, particularly public, regional institutions. The course maintains the learning objectives that are familiar yet engages students on a deeper level with longer term objectives driving the pedagogy. College leaders purposefully chose curricular changes as opposed to extra-curricular or other activities that fall outside the scope a class. Assessing the student body being served, many hold jobs, often even full-time jobs. Many students also have family obligations such as caring for parents, grandparents, or children. Placing additional burdens on student's limited time by adding requirements beyond coursework seemed less ideal given the circumstances. This approach does not negate the need for additional certificates or programs on professional development. However, the focus was to provide basic opportunities to engage with guest speakers, faculty, and professional development within a required course. Introducing students to these types of activities and their importance may lead more students to take initiative to attend other career focused events and opportunities.

We do not consider the re-development of the course to be a finished product but part of a holistic approach to address major issues present in academia such as low retention and graduate rates, and career readiness among students. Metrics on these outcomes are yet to be determined.

We share these ideas in the hope for adoption by other Colleges. The relatively recent introduction of the redesigned course has provided for little quantitative data collection, yet anecdotal outcomes include positive takeaways. The number of undeclared majors in the College has dropped substantially and number of for-credit summer internships has set a record.

Conclusion

Keeping curriculum current and relevant provides students with the best opportunities for success. Early business courses, such as Introduction to Business, hold the potential to have an oversized and enduring impact on students as they make important decisions about their majors and careers. Providing the best experience through inclusion of faculty, guest speakers from the business community, and a heavy emphasis on career readiness may prove to be best practices for business school curriculum.

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Work Environment Support and Transfer Training

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine if and to what extent supervisor support, peer support, and personal outcomes affected the interest to transfer training in full-time employees in higher education in the United States. The study was built upon Baldwin and Ford's (1988) Transfer of Training Model, which identified and defined the variables for the study. The sample included 154 individuals from two different Higher Education Facebook groups who participated. The participants were asked to complete an online survey composed of the informed consent, inclusion criteria questions, the abbreviated LTSI V.4 and TIQ instruments. The survey was posted as a link in two different higher education Facebook groups. A linear regression analysis was used to determine the relationship between work environment inputs

(i.e., supervisor support, peer support, personal outcomes) and the interest to transfer training. The relationship between supervisor support and the interest to transfer was significant ($F(1,126) = 45.513$, $p < .01$). The relationship between peer support and the interest to transfer was significant ($F(1,126) = 47.142$, $p < .01$). The relationship between personal outcomes and the interest to transfer was not significant ($F(1,126) = 3.788$, $p = .054$).

INTRODUCTION

Organizations worldwide design employee trainings to help reach organizational goals. Training workshops were implemented within organizations to help build and develop employee's knowledge, skills, and abilities (Awais Bhatti et al., 2014). Organizations gain an effective outcome from training's when the employees transfer what was learned from the training to the workplace (Blume et al., 2010; Vignoli & Depolo, 2019). The transfer of training was the implementation of the new knowledge, skills, and abilities that the trainee transfers to the workplace to enhance job performance (Rizvi & Kumar, 2018). Therefore, it is important to understand how organizations gain a positive transfer of training to the workplace (Yaghi & Bates, 2020). While a considerable amount of research has been completed on the transfer of training process, an opportunity to investigate specific training variables was still needed.

The success of trainings revolves around identifying and understanding the variables involved in the transfer process (Ford et al., 2018). The Transfer of Training Model developed by Baldwin and Ford (1988), allowed organizations to identify specific training variables that helped influence a positive transfer of training to the workplace. Therefore, to understand better the impact of specific training variables, further investigation was needed in evaluating work environment support and the influence of specific support variables on the transfer process (Ford et al., 2018).

There were many quantitative studies that focused on the transfer of training to the workplace, however there were very few studies that focused on work environment support and the transfer of training in institutions of higher education. The transfer of training was defined as an employee's willingness to take their new knowledge, skills, and abilities learned from a training and apply it to their job (Yaghi & Bates, 2020). Work environment support was defined as the encouragement from employees within the workplace (Bibi et al., 2018). Researchers have explained the need for further research on work environment support and the transfer of training in institutions in higher education (Bibi et al., 2018; Yaghi & Bates, 2020). The current study evaluated work environment support by measuring three types of support, including supervisor support, peer support, and personal outcomes.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Organizations implemented training workshops to help each employee within an organization gain the appropriate knowledge, skills, and abilities to perform at the same or similar levels of productivity (Awais Bhatti et al., 2014; Madsen et al., 2015). Furthermore, training programs and workshops allowed organizations the opportunity to overcome performance barriers such as absenteeism, poor work performance, turnover, and more (Bibi et al., 2018; Iswahyudi et al., 2019; Saks & Burke, 2012).

Researchers had identified the transfer of training as an employee's ability to generalize the new knowledge, skills, and abilities learned from a training, while being able to relate it to their duties in the workplace (Huang et al., 2015). The transfer of knowledge was not only between the trainer and the trainee but also between the employee who attended the training (i.e., trainee) and others within the organization (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). Fagan (2017) explained in detail that if the employees involved in the training understood the importance of the transfer of training, it could or should influence those within the work environment to implement the transfer. Therefore, this study was focused primarily on work environment support, which allowed for support to be broken down into three specific variables (i.e., supervisor support, peer support, and personal outcomes).

Supervisor support was understood as support built based on the relationship between the supervisor and his employees (Bibi et al., 2018; London, 1993). Thus, support from the supervisor level was recognized to enhance employees' attitudes toward the organization (Lee, 2005; Yaghi & Bates, 2020). Employees within an organization identified with supervisor support in a training setting by relating to the supervisors' willingness to communicate the training purpose, the supervisors' involvement in training activities, as well as the supervisors' encouragement to transfer the new knowledge, skills, and abilities to the job. Therefore, supervisor support played a vital role in training transfer (Bibi et al., 2018; Chauhan et al., 2016). The supervisor acts as an encourager in explaining the importance of how and why trainings benefited all employees involved (Bibi et al., 2018). Support of supervisors strengthens the importance of learning on the job (Bibi et al., 2018; Cromwell & Kolb, 2004).

Peer support was identified within an organization as a mutual level of support between peers or employees (Hua, 2013). Therefore, peer support was defined as an opportunity an employee within a working environment had to strengthen and support the use of learning in the workplace (Chatterjee et al., 2018). This type of support can include employees who engage in opportunities to utilize the new knowledge, skills, and abilities learned from a training (Yaghi & Bates, 2020).

Personal outcomes were identified as a type of inner support because it is a support found within an employee and based on performance outcomes, work effectiveness, and employment opportunities (Hutchins et al., 2013). Personal outcomes were identified as an employee's willingness to apply the new knowledge, skills, and abilities to the job, which led to either a positive or negative job-related outcome (Chatterjee et al., 2018).

HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1: As supervisor support increases, the interest to transfer training increases.
Hypothesis 2: As peer support increases, the interest to transfer training increases.
Hypothesis 3: As personal outcomes increases, the interest to transfer training increases.

METHODOLOGY

The population of interest for the current study was employees who were full-time employees in higher education including faculty members, department chairs, deans, associate deans, or assistant deans who worked a minimum of 35 hours per week. A fifteen-item survey was loaded in two higher education Facebook groups as a SurveyMonkey® link. The work environment support variables were operationalized using the abbreviated Learning Transfer

Systems Inventory Version 4 and interest to transfer training was operationalized using the abbreviated Transfer Interest Questionnaire.

RESULTS

Linear regression analyses, was conducted to determine whether the supervisor support, peer support, and personal outcomes, affected the interest to transfer training. All of the assumptions for regression were met (i.e., continuous dependent variable and independent variable, independent observations, linear relationships, homoscedasticity, no multicollinearity, no outliers, and a normal distribution). The results of the analyses determined that the relationships between both supervisor support ($F(1, 126) = 45.513$, $p < .01$) and peer support ($F(1, 126) = 47.142$, $p < .01$) with the interest to transfer training were significant. However, the relationship between personal outcomes ($F(1,1\ 26) = 3.788$, $p = .054$) and the interest to transfer training was not significant.

LIMITATIONS

There are several limitations that should be addressed. First the date the survey was released did potentially limit the data collection process of the study. The survey was available to full-time employees in higher education during the end of the Spring 2022 term and the beginning of the Summer 2022 semesters which was when employees were dealing with the preparation for early registration, online meetings, submission of final grades and ensuring all new and existing protocols were followed. Second, the study participants were not a random sample of the population. Another limitation was the population and sample used for the study. Collecting data from a single online link (i.e., the online survey link with SurveyMonkey®) limited the data to only that of the full-time employees in higher education who completed the survey (Mansour et al., 2017).

CONCLUSIONS

The impact of the work environment support inputs to intention to transfer training had been largely understudied in the literature (Ford et al., 2018). To help fill the gap in the literature, this study focused on understanding how work environment support inputs of Baldwin and Ford's (1988) Transfer of Training Model affected the transfer of training. The specific environment support inputs of Baldwin and Ford's (1988) Transfer of Training Model included were supervisor support, peer support, and personal outcomes. Previous studies included the work environment support inputs of supervisor support and peer support with mixed results (Bibi et al., 2018, Fagan, 2017; Yaghi and Bates, 2020). Past studies urged researchers to evaluate work environment support inputs by re-evaluating the influence of supervisor and peer support (Yaghi & Bates, 2020), as well as identifying another support variable (Ford et al., 2018). To answer this call, personal outcomes was added as an additional work environment support input in relationship to an employee's interest to transfer training in this study. The purpose of this study was to determine if and to what extent supervisor support, peer support, and personal outcomes affected the interest to transfer training in full-time employees in higher education in the United States.

The results of the analyses determined that the relationships between both supervisor support and peer support with the interest to transfer training were significant. However, the relationship between personal outcomes and the interest to transfer training was not significant.

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The Dynamic Effects of Cultural Leadership Ideals on Nascent and Operating Social Entrepreneurship

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Abstract. An important contextual driver of an individual's decision to become a social entrepreneur is a country's culturally endorsed leadership ideals. This research distinguishes nascent social entrepreneurship from operating social entrepreneurship and examines the influence of cultural leadership ideals on nascent and operating social entrepreneurship. The study showed that both humane-oriented and self-protective leadership ideals at the country level have linear relationships with the incidence of nascent social entrepreneurship. In contrast, those leadership ideals have quadratic relationships with the incidence of operating social entrepreneurship. This study provides an empirical explanation of the dynamic effects of cultural leadership ideals on different phases of social entrepreneurship.

1. Introduction

Social entrepreneurship (SE) has received growing attention for the last 30 years (Agafonow, 2014; Dacin et al., 2010; Zahra et al., 2009). Culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories (CLTs) have improved our understanding of the relationship between culture and social entrepreneurship (House et al., 2004). Prior studies have found that a set of CLTs influences an individual's decision to pursue social (Lee & Kelly, 2019) and commercial entrepreneurship (Stephan et al., 2015; Urbano et al., 2018).

Based on the culture-entrepreneurship fit theory (Gaddefors & Anderson, 2017; Tung et al., 2007), this study examines the varying effects of cultural leadership ideals on different phases of SE: nascent and operating SE. Nascent and operating SE are closely related but have different dynamics of the SE (Van Stel et al., 2007). Nascent SE refers to starting up a new social venture (Renko et al., 2012), whereas operating SE refers to running that social venture (Van Stel et al., 2007). Studies have shown that nascent entrepreneurs differ from the general population (Davidsson & Honig, 2003; Hopp & Stephan, 2012; Renko et al., 2012), and engaging in nascent entrepreneurship does not guarantee the successful creation of a venture and being an operating entrepreneur (Reynolds, 2007).

Then, how do cultural leadership ideals influence nascent SE compared to operating SE? We argue that both linear and curvilinear relationships exist. Specifically, we predicted that humane-oriented CLT would have a positive linear relationship with nascent SE and an inverted U-shaped relationship with operating SE, whereas self-protective CLT would have a negative linear relationship with nascent SE and a U-shaped relationship with operating SE.

2. Theory and Hypotheses

Although it has been claimed that culture is an important determinant in understanding cross-national differences (Baumol, 1996; Noseleit, 2009), there are mixed findings on the influence of national culture on entrepreneurship rates (Hayton & Cacciotti, 2013), which suggest that the relationship between the two is complex and may not be a simple, linear association (Wennekers et al., 2007). Stephan and Pathak (2016) found a positive relationship between self-protective CLT and (individual commercial) entrepreneurship. Lee and Kelly (2019) investigated the effect of cultural leadership ideals on SE and found that self-protective CLT is negatively related to SE. We argue that different phases of SE should be considered since factors influencing the preference for SE might differ from those affecting the actual SE.

2.1. Culturally Endorsed Implicit Leadership Theories

CLTs are the attitudes, motives, and behaviors of ideal leaders that people in a culture expect their leaders to have (House et al., 2004). The GLOBE study (House et al., 2004) extended this individual-level theory to the aggregate country level and argued that cultures shape implicit leadership theory, and there are culturally agreed upon leadership prototypes considered adequate. To answer the question, "What makes ideal leadership vary across cultures?," (Stephan & Pathak, 2016) found that cross-country differences in CLT affect entrepreneurship.

Based on the fit hypothesis, which argues that there is a good fit between entrepreneurship and CLT (Rauch et al., 2000; Stephan & Pathak, 2016; Tung et al., 2007), we argue that there is a good fit between the emergence of nascent and operating SE and CLT. The more individuals exhibit leadership attributes considered effective in the culture, the more likely they are to be nascent or operating social entrepreneurs.

Specifically, we propose that humane-oriented and self-protective CLTs influence SE for the following reasons. First and conceptually, among six CLTs in the GLOBE study (i.e., charismatic, team-oriented, self-protective, participative, humane-oriented, and autonomous CLTs) (House et al., 2002), humane-oriented and self-protective CLTs are the most important cultural leadership ideals to social entrepreneurs who create and manage social enterprises based on both humanism (Miller et al., 2012) and economic activities (Stephan & Pathak, 2016). Second, a study model with more than two CLTs as predictors would suffer from low validity due to redundancy among the predictors, raising multicollinearity issues (Stephan & Pathak, 2016). To address this, we take an approach to limit the number of cultural constructs as other studies did (Stephan & Pathak, 2016; Wennberg et al., 2013), by including two CLTs (i.e., humane-oriented and self-protective CLTs) that are conceptually more closely related to SE than others.

2.2. Humane-oriented CLT and SE

The GLOBE definition of the *humane-oriented CLT* is "unpretentious, show humility, and are reticent to boast. They are empathetic and likely to help and humanely support team members by offering resources and other forms of assistance" (House et al., 2004, p. 342). It includes two subscales: Modesty (modest, self-effacing, and patient) and Humane Orientation (generous and compassionate). Humane-oriented leadership is related to prosocial motivation (i.e., the desire to help and contribute to others) (see Batson, 1987). Research shows that prosocial motivation enhances one's awareness of social problems and increases one's inclination to solve these problems for others (Grant & Mayer, 2009; Grant & Wrzesniewski, 2010; Rioux & Penner, 2001; Schwartz, 1992). Thus, humane-oriented CLT may support individuals who are motivated to engage in SE. Based on this rationale, we hypothesized the following:

> **Hypothesis 1a:** Humane-oriented CLT at the country level has a positive linear relationship with the probability of individuals engaging in nascent SE.

Renko (2013) found that a nascent social entrepreneur's prosocial motivation decreases the likelihood of establishing a viable firm compared to the likelihood of a nascent commercial entrepreneur whose primary motivation is to achieve financial gains. This finding demonstrates the necessity of focusing on profitability for operating SE to survive and suggests that a high level of humane-oriented CLT would harm operating SE. On the other hand, a low level of human-oriented CLT suggests that people in a particular culture generally do not regard modest and humane-oriented leaders highly, which implies that a low level of humane-oriented CLT would also be averse to operating SE. Thus, we argue that a moderate level of humane-oriented CLT would be most conducive to operating SE by helping social entrepreneurs create social and economic value. Therefore, we propose that the relationship between humane-oriented CLT and operating SE may be curvilinear, particularly in an inverted U shape. Taken together, we hypothesized the following:

> **Hypothesis 1b:** Humane-oriented CLT at the country level has an inverted U-shaped relationship with the probability of individuals engaging in operating SE.

2.3. Self-protective CLT and SE

Self-protective CLT focuses on ensuring the safety and security of the individual and includes five subscales: Self-Centered (self-centered, non-participative, loner, and asocial), Status Conscious (status conscious and class conscious), Conflict Inducer (secretive, normative, and intragroup competitor), Face Saver (indirect, avoids negatives, and evasive), and Procedural (habitual, procedural, cautious, ritualistic, and formal; (House et al., 2004). Self-protective leaders tend to seek self-interests such as self-realization, status, growth, financial success, status, and autonomy (Manolova et al., 2008; Renko et al., 2012; Van Gelderen & Jansen, 2006). This self-orientation may decrease one's willingness to tackle social problems for others if they are not in one's self-interest. Thus, self-protective CLT may demotivate individuals willing to engage in SE. Thus, we hypothesized the following:

> **Hypothesis 2a:** Self-protective CLT at the country level has a negative linear relationship with the probability of individuals engaging in nascent SE.

Social ventures can come in three types: nonprofit, hybrid, or for-profit social ventures. Among these three types, nonprofits would not fit with the self-centered and competitive nature of self-protective CLT, which suggests that the low level of self-protective CLT is ideal for the non-profit operating SE. As such, we argue that as self-protective CLT increases from low to moderate levels, it will decrease the rate of operating SE, especially the nonprofit type. On the other hand, a high level of self-protective CLT is ideal for the for-profit or hybrid social venture types because their main goal is to maximize profits, and in doing so, they fulfill a social purpose (Bull, 2008). As such, we argue that as the self-protective CLT increases from moderate to high level, it will increase the rate of operating SE.

In sum, we propose that the relationship between self-protective CLT and operating SE would be a U shape, meaning that having an extreme (high or low) self-protective CLT would increase the incidence of operating SE to a greater extent than having a moderate level of self-protective CLT. Taken together, we hypothesized the following:

> **Hypothesis 2b:** Self-protective CLT at the country level has a U-shaped relationship with the probability of individuals engaging in operating SE.

3. Methods

3.1. Dataset and Sample

The sample came from multiple data sources that are publicly available. First, for the individual-level variables (Level 1), data were collected from Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM), which published a special issue on SE in 2009. Second, for the country-level variables (Level 2), data were collected from the GLOBE study and Heritage Foundation database. Economic Freedom values of countries were collected from the Heritage Foundation database. The final sample included 118,941 individuals, which was comprised of 823 nascent social entrepreneurs, 1,834 operating social entrepreneurs, and 116,284 commercial entrepreneurs across 27 countries.

3.2. Study Variables

The dependent variable in this study was the likelihood of an individual being a social entrepreneur. In this study, nascent social entrepreneurs were defined as individuals who had been trying to start a social enterprise in the past 12 months, which had not provided service or received external funding for more than 3 months, and who would proactively manage the social enterprise. Operating social entrepreneurs were defined as individuals who owned and were managing an active social enterprise. Among six second-order CLT dimensions of GLOBE study: charismatic, team-oriented, self-protective, participative, humane-oriented, and autonomous CLTs, this study used humane-oriented, self-protective, and charismatic CLTs as predictors of the likelihood of nascent or operating SE. At the individual level, this study controlled for entrepreneur age, gender, education, and experience. At the country level, this study controlled for GDP per capita in current international USD obtained from the World Bank, which lagged one year to address possible endogeneity in the research model (Hoogendoorn, 2016).

4. Results

First, the logistic regression results support Hypothesis 1b but not Hypothesis 1a. For operating SE, the linear term of humane-oriented CLT was positive and significant ($\beta = 40.406$, $p < 0.01$), and the squared term was negative and significant ($\beta = -4.568$, $p < 0.01$). Second, Hypotheses 2a and 2b are supported. The linear term (Model 2) of self-protective CLT was negatively and significantly related to nascent SE ($\beta = -1.858$, $p < 0.01$). The linear term (Model 3) of self-protective CLT was negatively and significantly related to operating SE ($\beta = -41.143$, $p < 0.01$), and the squared term is positively and significantly related to operating SE ($\beta = 6.309$, $p < 0.01$). Table 1 shows the results of the logistic regression analyses.

Table 1: Multinomial Logistic Multilevel Regression Results for the Incidence of Nascent and Operating Social Entrepreneurship

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	Nascent	Operating	Nascent	Operating	Nascent	Operating
Intercept	-6.471**	-8.188**	-1.548	-8.500*	-17.025	12.598
	(0.457)	(0.372)	(3.452)	(3.801)	(31.434)	(125.43)
Economic freedom	0.027**	0.049**	0.022**	0.030**	0.026**	0.026**
	(0.009)	(0.004)	(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Gender	-0.313**	-0.244**	-0.302**	-0.245**	-0.301**	-0.250**
	(0.041)	(0.028)	(0.040)	(0.028)	(0.040)	(0.028)
Age	-0.011**	-0.002*	-0.010**	0.002*	-0.010**	0.002**
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Education	0.351**	0.363**	0.358**	0.364**	0.357**	0.360**
	(0.017)	(0.012)	(0.017)	(0.012)	(0.017)	(0.001)
Experience	0.950**	0.747**	0.938**	0.734**	0.930**	0.720**
	(0.073)	(0.059)	(0.074)	(0.059)	(0.074)	(0.060)
Humane-oriented CLT			0.022	-0.913**	3.858	41.949**
			(0.191)	(0.135)	(3.635)	(3.023)
Self-protective CLT			-0.766**	-1.322**	-12.441**	-31.338**
			(0.267)	(0.210)	(2.964)	(1.801)
Charismatic CLT			-0.410	1.785**	7.720	-22.120
			(0.570)	(0.643)	(11.353)	(44.413)
Humane-oriented CLT × Humane-oriented CLT					-0.439	-4.571**
					(0.387)	(0.318)
Self-protective CLT × Self-protective CLT					1.733**	4.544**
					(0.437)	(0.273)
Charismatic CLT × Charismatic CLT					-0.618	1.986
					(1.002)	(3.923)
-2LL	72646.81		72446.49		72105.92	
Degrees of freedom (df)	14		20		26	
Δ-2LL			-200.32**		-340.57**	

Note: $n = 241{,}558$.
*$p < 0.05$.
**$p < 0.01$.

5. Discussion

This study focused on the different effects of cultural leadership ideals on nascent and operating SE to advance the SE literature, which situates culture as an important institutional context

affecting SE (Hechavarría, 2016; Muralidharan & Pathak, 2018; Stephan et al., 2015; Zahra et al., 2014). Based on Renko's (2013) study arguing that the contextual and individual drivers of nascent SE differ from the drivers of operating SE, we differentiated between these two types of SE, disentangling the different shapes of the relationship between cultural leadership ideals and nascent and operating SE.

6. Implications for Future Research

This study has several implications. First, it contributes to the culture-entrepreneurship fit literature. We differentiated the influence of CLTs on nascent SE from that on operating SE. Second, this study has several contributions to comparative SE research. The current study empirically examined the role of CLTs in promoting the incidence of nascent and social SE across countries. Third, this study contributes to cross-cultural leadership research by empirically showing that the moderate level of humane-oriented CLT is positively related to operating SE, whereas self-protective CLT is negatively related to nascent SE and has a U-shaped relationship with operating SE. Future research is encouraged to further examine the relationship between cultural leadership ideals and nascent or operating SE.

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ABSTRACT

Bridging traditional thought on women serving in educational leadership positions led to findings revealing that work is still to be accomplished. This qualitative research interviewed nine women in private and public university leadership and three in non-leadership roles. Preliminary results showed that women leaders may not be fully respected and valued. Women may purposefully sidestep serving as leaders to avoid such pitfalls or to maintain a work-life balance. These women are intelligent and capable of leadership, so the question is not, can we be leaders, but do we want to?

INTRODUCTION

Although female students outnumber males on US college campuses (60% of students are female (Nietzel, 2022), there remains an imbalance of women filling leadership roles in American universities. A recent study of 130 public and private universities found that only 22% had women leaders as president, chancellor, or system head (Nietzel, 2022). Earlier studies report less than 30% of female leaders at the vice president level or higher (Longman & Anderson, 2016; Longman et al., 2019). Low percentages of women in leadership in higher education extend to the university's governing boards as well, with only 26% of the board chair positions held by women (Nietzel, 2022). The path to presidential leadership in higher education for men and women is incongruent. While most university presidents are appointed to the position through traditional pathways by first serving as academic deans or provosts, men are more likely to advance into the presidency without this traditional pathway, with 26% of male presidents following a nontraditional route to the office as opposed to 7% of women presidents (Nietzel, 2022). Surprisingly, statistics show that women have been earning the majority of Ph.D. degrees in the United States for decades (Nietzel, 2022). Thus, there are plenty of women in academia to occupy available leadership roles. The problem is not a lack of qualified women prepared to adopt higher leadership roles in academia, given that women comprise 39% of academic dean positions and 38% of provost positions. Longman et al. (2019) noted that numerous internal, institutional, and systemic barriers had been identified that hinder women from aspiring to leadership and advancing into senior-level roles. One reason for the lack of women in leadership roles in academia may be that women may choose not to advance into leadership roles, avoiding the expected obstacles, but instead choose to stay where they are comfortable.

LITERATURE

The original thought was that women leaders in private and public universities might have different perspectives, given the traditional thinking often present in university settings. Three primary concerns of gender bias, competitive nature among women, and work-life balance address top concerns when considering leadership roles.

Gender Bias

Gender bias persists regarding women's advancement to leadership roles (Heilman et al., 2004; Phelan et al., 2008; Redman, 2008; Rudman, 1998; Rudman et al., 2012; Vial et al., 2015). Often, women are spoken over or ignored, which behavior is identified in the literature as microaggressions (Channing, 2023). Microaggressive behaviors may make women feel

marginalized and undervalued in academic leadership positions, leading to lower self-esteem and decreased motivation to pursue academic goals (Channing, 2023). Universities are "greedy institutions; their demands on the person are omnivorous" (Coser, 1974). For example, Sprague and Massoni (2005, p.779) note that women are expected to expend emotional labor, much of which is "frequently invisible and uncounted." Further, Lu (2018, p.89) states that there is an "implicit but persistent tie between care, emotion, and womanness in the university context." This example illustrates the cultural expectation that women in the academy will expend more time and effort responding while men can choose to care. Channing (2023) also discusses the gendered expectations placed on women regarding appearance and behavior. These cultural expectations limit the potential for women to grow professionally and reinforce gender stereotypes that contribute to gender inequity in leadership positions (Channing, 2023).

Nature of Professional Advancement among Women

Longman et al. (2019) found that three developmental relationships were important for women in Christian universities to improve leadership identity, not just leadership development. The authors pursued the importance of Coach, Mentor, and Sponsor relationships as a "constellation" of developmental relationships important to leadership identity." In facing the challenges of advancing women leaders in Christian, therefore private, higher education, such developmental relationships were not only sought after by women but also viewed as potentially critical to professional advancement. Coaching and sponsorship were strong motivators for women to aspire to or step into leadership, especially in the later stages of women's career development (Longman et al., 2019).

Longman and Anderson (2016) compared the number of women leaders on private campuses to the number of women in leadership roles in other nonprofit entities. They found that colleges and universities were far short of other nonprofits embracing and developing women as leaders. The researchers noted that institutions of higher education, particularly private universities, which are often faith-based, have an opportunity to set the standard within higher education" (Longman & Anderson, 2016, p. 25). Unfortunately, the research identified a variety of environmental and internalized barriers, which "hinder the affirmation and development of women's leadership identity and advancement" (Longman & Anderson, 2016, p. 24).

Mentoring

One commonality between leaders of any gender and organization type is mentorship. Different organizations mentor according to the varying needs and levels of development invoked on the precipice of knowledge-sharing (Wilson & Elman, (1990). Block and Tietjen-Smith (2016) note that although women are making strides in achieving advanced degrees, there continues to be a lack of women serving in leadership roles in higher education. Further, a lack of available gender-diverse mentors at higher levels of leadership creates potential barriers to these leadership roles.

While mentoring can take many forms, such as formal, informal, or hybrid, deciding on mentee/mentor relationships can be messy with existing barriers such as time constraints, logistics, floundering relationships between mentor and mentee, and availability of mentors willing to take on a mentee (Garvey, 2004). Dunbar and Kinnersly (2011) discuss the benefits for mentees in their ability to learn needed skills and experience to help make them successful and mentors who can pass on knowledge. Further, mentoring works best when the mentee/mentor

shares similarities. Mentoring can encourage more women to apply for leadership roles within higher education, especially when they know they have a sage to help guide their transition.

Work-Family Balance

Channing (2023) suggests that work-family balance issues women in leadership often face choices of personal sacrifice or balancing professional lives. Fitzgerald (2013) found that women focus on regulating family time to prevent allegations of lacking commitment. The lack of support for work-life balance in higher education leadership positions impacts women and opportunities for leadership roles. Schulthesis and Blustein (2019) found similar results in that women in leadership are often expected to work long hours and prioritize their careers over their families, which creates a barrier to successful work-life balance. Such expectations can lead to burnout and make it more difficult for women leaders to succeed.

METHODOLOGY

This preliminary study used a qualitative approach to study women in leadership roles in higher education. The study originated by interviewing two women in the upper echelon of higher education at a private university via Zoom using a protocol to guide the interview. This interview aimed to find a research topic and was just a fact-finding exercise. After digesting the points discussed in the interview, we decided to interview multiple women leaders in private and public universities, which would be beneficial in completing this study. Initially, we thought answers from private and public universities might have different perspectives, but the results showed their perspectives to be similar. Given the results of this first study, we also developed a second protocol and interviewed women in higher education in non-leadership roles to investigate whether they aspire to leadership positions.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Preliminary Study and Results for Women Serving in Leadership Roles

A preliminary qualitative case study investigated the work environment of women leaders in higher education. A protocol was developed and followed, interviewing nine women serving in university leadership roles from six universities (three private, three public). Interviews took place either via email, phone, or Zoom. Protocol questions include "Did you always aspire to be a leader in higher education?", "What are three benefits of being a woman in education leadership?" "What are three challenges of being a woman in education leadership?" "Describe networking and day-to-day interactions with other male educational leaders," "Are you expected to behave a certain way?", "What are your favorite parts of your job?" "What is your least favorite part of your job?" and "What advice would you give women who have goals to be leaders in higher education?". The results of this sample are in line with current literature.

The original thought was that women leaders in private and public universities might have different perspectives, given the traditional thinking (e.g., males rather than females in leadership positions, females subservient to males, etc.) often present in private universities. However, the results on many issues showed that women in leadership in private and public universities share the same experiences and viewpoints. Three primary concerns from this study with women leaders center around gender bias, competitive nature with other women leaders, and work-life balance.

Gender Bias Findings

The women who responded to this study reported different standards and expectations for men and women in academia. For example, communication differences and other expectations of women versus men created issues. Women leaders reported having difficulty communicating with their male counterparts, often making women feel they needed to be more passive, accommodating, and agreeable. Women leaders' perspective is that they should not complain or come to the table with problems, only solutions. Responses further indicated that women felt they were often "talked over" or "ignored." Women leaders must continue to prove themselves by working harder and more hours than men.

In some cases, the men would expect the women to complete the men's work and then step back to allow women to volunteer to do university and community service. Women are often tasked with "housekeeping" responsibilities in meetings, such as taking notes, scheduling meetings, and bringing snacks, to name a few. Women leaders are often the only female at the table, sometimes feeling isolated and exhausted. Showing emotion is also viewed differently for men and women. Men who show emotion are passionate, but women who show emotions are weak. Some respondents shared that they make a substantially lower salary than men in the same positions. Overall, those in our study noted that female perspectives are less valued.

Findings of Professional Advancement among Women

One difference found between women leaders in private and public universities was the relationships that they experienced with women leaders. Whereas women in private university leadership roles note a more collaborative relationship, the relationship is more competitive in public universities. Women leaders working in public universities felt like the competitiveness between women was imposed in the culture because there is an implied quota of women leaders. Some women in leadership positions are leery of supporting or encouraging other women because of specific gender leadership quotas. Although women in private and public universities searched for mentors and mentoring opportunities, private universities are more successful with mentoring and supporting their coworkers, leaders, and non-leaders.

Findings of Work-Life Balance

Issues with work-family balance revealed that women tend to emphasize balancing work and family responsibilities more than men. To prove herself, a woman leader may be prone to managing perceptions about dedication and commitment to the position and university. The women interviewed agreed that there is a perception that women leaders tend to work longer hours than their male counterparts, often working nights and weekends. Several women in different universities agreed that male leaders usually do not carry their weight and let the women do the work, especially the work seen as secretarial. It was noted that male leaders have a spouse at home to take care of responsibilities that women leaders must attend to when they are home. Thus, women leaders' overall workload is greater.

Second Preliminary Study and Results for Women in Non-Leadership Roles

A second preliminary qualitative case study investigated whether qualified women would aspire to move into leadership roles. Three women from public and private universities were interviewed. A protocol for the second preliminary study was developed and followed

throughout the interview process. Similar to the first preliminary study, the interviews were via phone or Zoom. The respondents answered the questions and returned them via email. Protocol questions include, "Do you aspire to be a leader in higher education? Explain why or why not", and "What differences do you notice when interacting with male leaders in higher education? How would these differences affect your decision to be a leader? Please explain.", "What differences do you notice when interacting with female leaders in higher education? How would these differences affect your decision to be a leader? Please explain.", "Describe communication expectations while interacting with male colleagues that you do not notice when communicating with female colleagues. Please explain.", "Are you expected to behave a certain way as a higher-education woman? Please explain.", "What are the challenges of being a woman leader in higher education? Would these challenges keep you from pursuing a leadership role? Please explain.", "What are the benefits of being a women leader in higher education? Would these benefits encourage you to pursue a leadership role? Please explain.", "Has the treatment of women in leadership in higher education either deterred or encouraged you to want to be a leader yourself? Please explain."

Results of the Second Preliminary Study

Higher education is anticipating vacancies in senior leadership positions over the coming years. However, a study by Mayya et al. (2021) showed that 48% of the female participants expressed no desire to move into leadership roles. These women stated that they would decline the opportunity to advance if asked. One reason for their hesitation may be that "roles within this context occupy a position that is ambivalent and emotionally exhausting given the need to navigate considerable organizational pressure" (O'Connor, 2015, p. 309).

The women interviewed in the non-leader positions agreed with the Mayya et al. (2021) study and Morley's (2013) work and stated they do not have the desire to seek leadership positions despite their talents. Specifically, "Why bother?" (Morley, 2013, p. 125). Some women have witnessed the adverse treatment of female leaders and do not want to fight that fight. The perception is that there is too much pressure with little reward. Others enjoy teaching and influencing students and are happy to stay in the role of a faculty member. In other words, the challenges present are not the sole determinant of whether or not one pursues leadership. The desire to have flexibility in work-life balance and the ability to engage in other interests is equally impactful.

LIMITATIONS

Research limitations included a small number of women in non-leadership roles interviewed. Increasing non-leader participants may have shed light on existing self-imposed or institutional barriers. While qualitative, the survey questions were emailed to women, with some receiving follow-up interviews using phone and Zoom. Interviewing all participants on Zoom may have allowed researchers to ask more probing questions about issues. However, these limitations did not affect the contributions of this study.

CONCLUSIONS

The leaders in our study attempt to improve the culture of women leaders through mentoring and education. Women in non-leadership roles are looking for mentors to guide them. These mentee/mentor relationships and networking allow women to "utilize shared experiences

and advocate together as a stronger voice" (O'Meara and Stromquist. 2015, p. 355). However, women need the help of the whole university to make substantial changes. Fitzgerald (2013) explained that many development programs focus on improving women's performance according to male norms, thus further reinforcing inequalities rather than contesting the current state of affairs. What is needed, however, is something entirely different. Andrea Silbert, President of the Eos Foundation, summarized the issue efficiently and effectively, "Universities need to focus their efforts on fixing the system, not the women" (Nietzel, 2022, para. 13).

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An Analysis of the Relationship between Authentic Leadership and Employee Engagement Mediated by Positive Psychological Capital in the Workplace

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Literature Review

Organizations across the globe vary in their goals and business approaches; however, one goal is constant throughout all industries, especially successful ones, the need for a strong leader. Leaders steer successful businesses. The definition of a leader and the qualities a leader needs to obtain fluctuates given workplace demands, the economy, the organizational environment, and employee engagement or burnout (Avolio et al., 2019). This paper will explore the relationship between authentic leadership and employee engagement and explore the mediating impact of psychological capital on the relationship. First, this paper will define employee engagement and authentic leadership, explore its defining features, and conclude with how authentic leadership promotes engagement. Lastly, this paper will explore psychological capital and its prominent role in mediating the relationship between employee engagement and authentic leadership.

Employee engagement is defined as a positive psychological state that is characterized by dedication, enthusiasm, and involvement in one's work (Bakker et al., 2018). Engaged employees are more productive, have lower absenteeism rates, and are more likely to contribute to a company's success (Bakker et al., 2018). The importance of employee engagement is evident. Leading to the primary question, what drives employee engagement?

Authentic Leadership

Authentic leadership is a leadership style that emphasizes the importance of leaders being true to themselves, their values, and their beliefs. In recent years, there has been growing interest in authentic leadership as companies have made a shift to working remote (Zuberbühler et al., 2021). This shift has put greater impact on specific leadership styles, especially authentic

leadership (Sepeng et al., 2020). Studies have identified four key components of authentic leadership: self-awareness, relational transparency, moral behavior, and balanced processing (Avolio et al., 2019). In the next sections, this paper will dissect the four components compared to other forms of leadership and illustrate its direct impact on employee engagement.

Self-awareness. Self-awareness is critical to being an authentic leader. It helps leaders understand their strengths, weaknesses, and biases (Novitasari et al., 2020). When leaders are self-aware, they can play to their strengths, avoid their weaknesses, and minimize the impact of their biases. Such leaders create an environment of psychological safety wherein employees feel heard, valued, and motivated to engage in their work; therefore, increasing employee engagement (Novitasari et al., 2020).

Transparency. Authentic leaders are transparent about their thoughts, values, and intentions (Zuberbühler et al., 2021). Transparent leaders do not hide information from their subordinates in order to exert power or control (Aria, Jafari, & Behifar 2019). Instead, they share relevant information, proactively communicate with their employees, and foster an environment of trust and respect (Aria, Jafari, & Behifar 2019). When employees feel that their leaders are transparent, they can speak up, share their ideas, and give feedback without fear of retribution; thus, fostering better engagement and commitment among employees (Avolio et al., 2019).

Moral and ethical behavior. Leaders who display ethical and moral behavior create a culture of integrity, trust, and fairness (Zuberbühler et al., 2021). These leaders lead by example and hold themselves and their employees accountable for their actions (Avolio et al., 2019). Studies have shown that when employees witness their leaders behaving ethically, they feel motivated to do the same (Novitasari et al., 2020). Such leaders create an atmosphere where employees feel good about their work and are committed to the organization's mission; therefore, leading to elevated levels of employee engagement (Aria, Jafari, & Behifar 2019).

Balanced processing. Authentic leaders process information objectively and fairly (Soni & Rastogi, 2019). Through balanced processing, leaders listen to their employees' ideas, opinions, and feedback, even when they might not agree with them (Soni & Rastogi, 2019). Leaders who demonstrate balanced processing create an inclusive work culture where everyone's ideas and viewpoints are heard, which in turn promotes employee engagement and empowerment (Novitasari et al., 2020).

In summary, authentic leadership directly impacts employee engagement in several prominent ways; however, there are many other approaches of leadership that share similar values with authentic leadership such as transformational or transactional. Transformational leadership focuses on inspiring followers to achieve greater goals, and it involves charisma, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and involvement (Demirtas, 2020). One of the commonalities between authentic leadership and transformational leadership is that they both focus on inspiring followers (Avolio et al., 2019). In transformational leadership, the leader uses inspiration to motivate followers to achieve results, while in authentic leadership, the leader inspires by being honest and true to oneself (Hoch et al., 2018).

Transactional leadership is a model that emphasizes the exchange of rewards and penalties between the leader and the followers (Demirtas, 2020). Leaders who use this approach focus on setting clear goals, expectations, and outcomes and uses incentives to motivate the

implementation of the set standards (Hoch et al., 2018). Authentic leadership and transactional leadership contrast in that authentic leadership prioritizes honesty and transparency, while transactional leadership focuses on the achievement of specific goals (Avolio et al., 2019). Amidst the changing dynamics of the 21st century, authentic leadership suits the needs of the modern workplace and promises more meaningful and fulfilling leadership; however, authentic leadership obtains its own limitations (Hoch et al., 2018).

Limitations. Despite the growing interest and research in authentic leadership, there are some limitations to this approach. One challenge is the potential for antecedents and outcomes of authentic leadership to overlap with other leadership approaches, such as transformational leadership and servant leadership (Novitasari et al., 2020). Leading to our first hypothesis:

H1: Authentic leadership strongly impacts employee engagement in the workplace.

Research has shown that authentic leadership is positively correlated with employee engagement; however, future research is needed to continue to learn the strength of its relationship (Avolio et al., 2019). Employee engagement and authentic leadership are two critical factors that contribute to the success of organizations; however, there are many factors that impact this relationship, such as psychological capital.

Psychological capital. Psychological capital is defined as the positive developmental state of an individual and has emerged as a key construct in the study of work engagement and behavior (Cunha, 2020). Psychological capital is constructed through four components: self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience (Ciftci & Erkanli, 2020). In the next section, this paper will dissent each construct of psychological capital and how it would play a mediating role to the relationship between authentic leadership and employee engagement.

Self-efficacy is defined as the belief in oneself and one's ability to successfully perform tasks (Ciftci & Erkanli, 2020). Research has indicated that self-efficacy is positively related to employee engagement (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017). Employees who have elevated levels of self-efficacy are more likely to exhibit prominent levels of engagement because they believe that their efforts will lead to successful outcomes (Soni & Rastogi, 2019). Authentic leaders help employees develop self-efficacy by providing support and guidance, which leads to higher levels of employee engagement (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017).

Optimism refers to the general expectation that positive outcomes will occur in the future (Soni & Rastogi, 2019). Optimistic employees have been found to be more engaged (Ciftci & Erkanli, 2020). Authentic leadership has been shown to be positively related to optimism (Soni & Rastogi, 2019). When authentic leaders communicate a positive vision for the future, they cultivate optimism among employees, which, in turn, improves employee engagement (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017).

Hope is defined as the belief that one can find a pathway to achieve desired goals and the motivation to use those pathways (Ciftci & Erkanli, 2020). Elevated levels of hope have been associated with prominent levels of employee engagement (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017). Authentic leadership has been shown to be positively related to hope (Ciftci & Erkanli, 2020). When authentic leaders empower their employees to achieve their goals and provide them with the necessary resources, employees develop a sense of hope, which, in turn, enhances engagement (Avolio et al., 2019).

Resilience is defined as the ability to bounce back from adversity and maintain elevated levels of functioning (Ciftci & Erkanli, 2020). Resilient employees have been found to exhibit

prominent levels of engagement (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017). Authentic leaders have been found to be positively related to employee resilience (Ciftci & Erkanli, 2020). Authentic leaders who provide support and encouragement to employees during challenging times help develop resilience, which, in turn, enhances employee engagement (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017). Psychological capital can be seen to directly impact authentic leadership and employee engagement, leading to the second hypothesis:

H2: The relationship between authentic leadership and employee engagement is mediated by an employee's psychological capital.

Authentic leaders who develop psychological capital among employees enhance engagement through the development of self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience. By building a positive work environment that fosters the development of psychological capital among employees, authentic leaders are able to enhance engagement, which leads to positive individual and organizational outcomes (Zuberbühler et al., 2021).

Employee engagement and authentic leadership are critical constructs that affect organizational outcomes, and the relationship is mediated by psychological capital. A leader who displays authentic leadership behavior and develops psychological capital can enhance employee engagement levels leading to better work outcomes as has been seen in previous research (Avolio et al., 2019). Therefore, organizations should focus on investing in leadership development programs that can enhance authentic leadership and psychological capital, leading to increased employee engagement levels.

In conclusion, the relationship between authentic leadership, employee engagement, and psychological capital is a complex and multi-dimensional one. Previous literature on this topic discusses evidence that authentic leadership can positively influence employee engagement through the mediation of psychological capital; however, future researched is needed. Through future research, leaders who strive to be authentic, transparent, and ethical may be able to create a more engaged workforce by enhancing their employees' psychological capital.

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COMPARISON AND CONTRAST OF WORK/FAMILY BORDER THEORY AND WORK/FAMILY ENRICHMENT THEORY

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The effects of conflict between work and family on employees continue to be of increasing importance in the research field. Employees struggle daily with the balance of work and family dynamics considering there are more households with duel working adults, single parents and those providing care to elderly parents (Stephens & Sommer, 1996). Work-family conflict has been related to negative influences in the home and not compatible with work situations, especially within the last few years (Boles, Howard, & Donofrio, 2001). Often, work-family conflict is considered an inter-role conflict due to pressures and compatibility issues within both areas of an employee's situation both at home and at work resulting in negative attitudes at work, lower job satisfaction and strain in the home as well (Boles et al., 2001; Stephens & Sommer, 1996).

However, there are two theories intersecting the work and family domains encouraging positive outcomes and relationships between work and home by recognizing a balance of the two with boundaries and enrichment of work and family life. Work/family border theory encourages the explanation of interaction between the domains of work and family through border-crossers or those who make transitions, on a daily basis, from work to family and family to work, especially with remote employees (Clark, 2000). Work-family enrichment theory delivers a concept explaining how when one role improves so does the other as to the extent of work experiences improve so does family life and vice versa (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). These theories attempt to define a new outlook on work/family conflict in a positive representation through enhancement, balance and well-being for the employee and their family members.

Work/Family Border Theory

Clark (2000) introduced this new theory to dispel the negativity brought on by work and family activities and to justify the primary connection between the two is not emotions but human. The theory explains how employees navigate between work and family by negotiation and management of 'spheres' and borders to attain balance (Clark, 2000). Clark explains the idea of border-crossers who are able to transition daily between work and family focusing their attention to goals, interpersonal styles, and fit of domain to find a balance between the two. According to Clark (2000), balance is defined as "satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home, with a minimum of role conflict" (p. 751). To develop the theory further, Clark (2000) examined literature and collected stories from published research, defined border theory, domains, border-crossers, border-keepers and other domain members to finalize the eight propositions for borders to remain strong. Border theory also distinguished between boundary theory by borders encompassing psychological categories and tangible boundaries divided by time, place, and people associated with work not family (Desrochers & Sargent, 2004). The theory was designed to provide a framework using the propositions to gain a better understanding for harmony within the family and work areas of people's lives (Clark, 2000).

Work/Family Enrichment Theory

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) introduced this theory to specify the "conditions under which work and family roles are allied together rather than as enemies" (p.72). Research for theory identifies from several areas to gain a positive examination of the relationship between work and family to include enrichment, positive spillover, and enhancement (Greenhause & Powell, 2006). The authors discussed three ways multiple roles play in enrichment of work and family to include role accumulation, participation in both roles of work and family, and experiences of work and family to produce outcomes of each. The last role focused on the actual concept of the theory due to work experiences improving quality of family life and family experiences improving the quality of work life (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). A theoretical model was also developed to show how experiences in two roles (A & B) improved quality of life consisting of two components of high performance and positive affect. The authors identified five resource types to be generated in these roles: skills and perspectives, psychological and physical resources, social-capital resources, flexibility, and material resources (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Each role being a thing in itself allowed this to develop the framework (Marks & MacDermid, 1996). Focusing on the many roles and selves, individuals usually will not separate the two but organize them in relation to one another (Marks & MacDermid, 1996). The instrument was developed with hopes that it be validated to dispel the negativity of work/family conflict proving that positive affect and performance gained through work/family enrichment.

Comparison of Theories

While work/family border theory concentrates on domains and work/family enrichment concentrates on experiences, there are similarities to these two theories. The two theories focus on finding positive perspectives to work/family conflict even though most research points to negative influences and compatibility (Boles, et al., 2001). Clark (2000) viewed domains between work and home different, instead comparing them through borders or the point where one dominant domain behavior begins or ends. The three forms of borders are physical (actual walls), temporal (divided hours), and psychological (emotions). Described as the lines of

demarcation between domains, they are self-created (Clark, 2000). Keeping these borders in domains positive by allowing permeability, flexibility, blending and strength, Clark's propositions allow for border-crossing. Positive perspectives for work/family enrichment compared by examining positive relationships between work and family lives through enrichment, positive spillover, and enhancement increasing positive interdependencies with behavior and focusing on strengths, health, and understanding social systems (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Clark (2000) explained border-crossers as a byproduct of self-creation as a natural flow of transition from home to work domains and are able to have an innate ability to alter their domains and borders to fit their needs. To a degree, they are central participants having internalized the domain culture, demonstrating competencies for responsibilities, connecting with others in domains, and personally identifying domain responsibilities (Lave & Wegner, 1991). While Greehaus and Powell (2006) explained self-report identifiers for enrichment (positive spillover), family life (caregiver for ill or disabled parent), and rewards (role privileges) of work to family and family to work included as positive relationships between work-related and family-related variables. It is the authors' beliefs that positive roles in one area can produce positive experiences and outcomes in the other by transferring of this positive experience to the other role and takes on a variety of roles, enhance their personalities when learning to be tolerant, flexible, and become diverse role senders.

Contrast of Theories

Theories differed in respect to concepts and models. Work/family border theory centered on central concepts and characteristics to include permeations, blending or borderland and boarder-keepers/domain keepers distinguishing the separation of home and work domains depicting where the crossing occurs. Clark (2000) described her concept model by breaking down each section (see Figure 1, p. 754). Work domain area included permeation (family photos, phone call from, home, insights from family) and border-keepers (employees, managers). Blending or borderland areas included permeable, flexible borders allowing the individual to cross back and forth between domains with ease. Family domain area included permeations (client phones, insights from work, work brought home), and border-keepers (spouses, kids, parents) (Clark, 2000).

Work/family enrichment theory centered on a theoretical model the authors illustrated. The illustration focused on experiences in Role A (work or family) improved the quality of life in Role B (family or work) with regards to quality of life (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). In the model, moderators of the instruments path included salience of Role B, perceived relevance of resource to Role B, and consistency of resource with requirements and norms for Role B (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 79). The model detailed resources generated in Role A. It diagramed the paths for high performance in Role A to positive affect in Role A as well as the same in Role B. Greenhaus & Powell (2006) included a moderating affective path of salience of Role B that showed positive affect Role A to high performance in Role B. The authors explained in great detail this model created along with propositions for future research to include but not limited to role of gender, role characteristics, dispositional characteristics, boundary-crossing, and impact of community.

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GRADUATE BUSINESS STUDENTS AND ONLINE TESTING: A QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

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INTRODUCTION

The rise of online education has been remarkable and has established itself as an integral part of the higher education system (Allen and Seaman, 2006; Kim and Bonk, 2006; Palvia et al., 2018). Despite its increasing popularity, the issue of academic integrity remains a primary concern. To mitigate such a concern, several colleges and universities offering online degree programs have adopted proctored exam requirements. These requirements aim to safeguard the academic integrity of online education and ensure students' adherence to honesty and ethics in online learning environments. The purpose of this study is to investigate student performance on proctored and non-proctored exams in an online, graduate-level MBA course. The study contributes to the ongoing discussion on academic integrity in online education and offers valuable insights into the best practices for assessment in online courses.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The study collects data from two distinct sections of an online graduate MBA course, wherein one section necessitates the administration of the final exam online in a proctored environment, while the other does not mandate such a requirement. The study performs a series of empirical tests to investigate the differences in student test scores between the two distinct exam environments. The

study also examines potential contributing factors that may impact student performance on proctored exams.

RESULTS

Through various regression models, the results indicate that students in the non-proctored environment achieve significantly higher exam scores than those in the proctored environment. The results further reveal that students' academic performance in the proctored environment is significantly influenced by proctoring methods, students' GPA, and their familiarity with the proctoring system.

CONCLUSION

The study extends the current body of knowledge on online education by examining student performance on proctored and non-proctored exams in an online, graduate-level MBA course. Through this analysis, the study offers meaningful implications for higher education institutions in developing effective and reliable assessments for online courses and, most importantly, contributes positively toward sustainable development in online teaching and learning.

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EXAMINING THE DIFFERENTIAL IMPACT OF COMPETENCE- AND BENEVOLENCE-BASED TRUST ON KNOWLEDGE SHARING

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Organizational teams are often deployed with the hope of bringing diverse knowledge together and achieving more than any individual contributor alone (Argote & Ingram 2000; Lipnak & Stamps 1993). However, teams often fail to maximize the contribution of members (Stasser & Stewart, 1992) as individual knowledge is not always shared with other members (van Dijk, van Engen, & van Knippenberg, 2012). In an effort to identify ways to increase knowledge sharing, researchers have turned to studying trust as a critical mechanism. Social exchange theory is often used as the theoretical underpinning suggesting that trust is an important factor because knowledge sharing involves providing knowledge to others with expectations for reciprocity (e.g., Wu, Hsu, & Yeh, 2007). Indeed, some social network scholars use this argument to point out that lack of trust and reciprocity in networks can impede actual sharing of knowledge (Gargiulo, Ertug, & Galunic, 2009; Obstfeld, 2005).

However, the empirical findings of trust and knowledge sharing are rather unequivocal. While some researchers find positive relationships (e.g., Chowdhury, 2005; Kankanhalli, Tan, & Wei, 2005; Wu et al., 2007), others point to the potential negative or insignificant correlations between trust and knowledge sharing (Renzl, 2008; Sondergaard, Kerr, & Clegg, 2007). One of the reasons for these inconsistent findings may be the multi-faceted nature of trust. There are two primary foundations of trust: cognitive and affective. Cognitive-based trust is based on individual beliefs about peer reliability and dependability whereas and affect-based trust is focused on reciprocated interpersonal care and concern (McAllister, 1995).

Indeed, studies show that each dimension of trust may function distinctively and has unique impact on outcomes (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; De Jong, Dirks, & Gillespie, 2016; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2011). Even for the same referent or collective, people can have conflicting trust perceptions. In fact, cognitive-based trust may or may not co-exist with affect-based trust (Chowdhury, 2005). At the team-level, individuals may have different levels of competence trust (i.e., cognitive-based trust) and benevolence trust (i.e., affect-based trust) toward their team members. For example, high performing teams may exhibit high levels of competence trust in that team members can depend on one another for task work, but success is achieved at the expense of team members' morale (i.e., low benevolence trust). At the other extreme, some teams may function with the greatest care and concern for their members (i.e., high benevolence trust) yet lack the ability and capacity to depend on one another for tasks (i.e., low competence trust).

We propose that, contrary to a more intuitive connection between competence team trust and knowledge sharing (because information is the common factor between the two concepts), benevolence team trust is a pre-requisite for individuals' to willingly share their unique information with other team members. This echoes Casciaro and Lobo (2008)'s argument that

when team members have negative affect toward others, competence becomes irrelevant in determining whom they choose to work with because it undermines the possibility of accessing other parties' resources and information.

Similarly, we expect that when individuals perceive other team members to lack benevolence trust, they will not feel psychologically safe and, as a result, will not engage in knowledge sharing as much as they would otherwise. Accordingly, we introduce psychological safety as the mediating mechanism that enables high benevolence team trust to drive knowledge sharing. Individuals would feel psychologically safe when they know their team members genuinely care about them (i.e., benevolence trust), which helps them to more freely exchange information with the team members. This is not likely to occur when individuals have high competence trust toward the team accompanied by low benevolence trust.

We further differentiate two distinct components of knowledge sharing - knowledge acquisition and provision (Reinholt, Pedersen, & Foss, 2011). We expect that individuals with high benevolence trust and consequently, high psychological safety, are more likely to provide more knowledge to other team members as well as to receive more knowledge from other team members. Using a social network perspective, we suggest that individuals with higher levels of benevolence trust will occupy more central positions in their teams which allows for a greater amount of knowledge flow in and out from them.

Based on these foundations, we intend to extend the literature in several ways. First, we test benevolence and competence team trust in the same model to examine their interactive effects on outcomes. Extant research acknowledges differential effects of distinct trust dimensions on knowledge sharing but these studies examined each dimension of trust separately with knowledge sharing for comparison (e.g., Bakker, Leenders, Gabbay, Kratzer, & Van Engelen, 2006; Chowdhury, 2005; Mooradian, Renzl, & Matzler, 2006; Wu et al., 2007). The current study aims to uncover the joint effects of benevolence and competence team trust on knowledge sharing to suggest that one's benevolence trust toward the team is a more basic and essential component for knowledge sharing. Accordingly, we argue that competence trust is a secondary factor which loses its impact if it does not co-exist with benevolence team trust.

Second, we take a more nuanced view of knowledge sharing by incorporating both knowledge provision and acquisition. In social network research, knowledge sharing has been mostly considered from an acquisition perspective (Reinholt et al., 2010). Utilizing in-degree centrality measures, we show that individuals with high benevolence trust and psychological safety occupy central positions in the team whereby they provide and acquire more information from team members. By doing so, we show how interactive effects of benevolence team trust and competence team trust, via psychological safety, have both proximal and distal impact on team functioning.

Hypothesis 1. When high benevolence team trust is combined with low competence team trust, psychological safety is relatively high. Whereas, when low benevolence team trust is combined with high competence team trust, psychological safety is relatively low.

Hypothesis 2a. The interaction between high benevolence team trust and low competence team trust on team members' knowledge acquisition is positively mediated by psychological safety.

Hypothesis 2b. The interaction between high benevolence team trust and low competence team trust on team members' knowledge provision is positively mediated by psychological safety.

METHOD

Participants were students enrolled in six sections of undergraduate and graduate level strategy courses at a large northeastern university in the United States.

Team Trust. Benevolence and competence team trust were assessed using modified versions of Mayer and Davis (1999).

Psychological Safety. We adopted Edmondson's (1999) scale for psychological safety.

Knowledge Sharing. We used knowledge acquisition and provision measures from Reinholt et al. (2011) to capture the level of knowledge acquisition and provision on the part of team members (i.e., other-rating). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they received/used knowledge from each of their team members (two items) as well as to the extent to which each of their team members had received/used knowledge from them (two items). We used the incoming ties on these two measures to capture other team members' perception of the focal individual's level of knowledge sharing. We calculated in-degree centrality for these measures to represent (a) the degree to which team members received knowledge from the focal individual (i.e., knowledge acquisition) and (b) the degree to which team members provided knowledge to the focal individual (i.e., knowledge provision).

Analytical Strategy

Polynomial regression and response surface modeling. We used polynomial regression with response surface analysis (Edwards, 1994; Edwards & Perry, 1993; Shanock, Baran, Gentry, Pattison, & Heggestad, 2010) to examine our hypotheses. Our research question concerns with how the joint effects of two dimensions of trust (i.e., individuals' competence and benevolence trust toward their team) relate to psychological safety and consequently to knowledge sharing and this analytical strategy allowed us to capture a nuanced view of the interaction between the trust dimensions in the same model.

Mediation and block variable approach. We utilized the block variable approach recommended by Edwards and Cable (2009) to test the indirect effects of interaction of trust dimensions on outcome variables via psychological safety.

RESULTS

The slope along the line of incongruence was negative and significant (a3 = -.40, $p <$ .05). Figure 1 also depicts this relationship as psychological safety increases toward the left of the graph, where Y (i.e. benevolence trust) is high and X (i.e., competence trust) is low. As such, Hypothesis 1 was supported. As such, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

As shown in Table 1, the resulting standardized direct effects of interaction of competence and benevolence team trust on knowledge acquisition and provision were significant. The indirect effect of higher benevolence team trust, via psychological safety, on knowledge acquisition was significant (.13, $p <$ .01) as the bootstrapped bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals for the indirect effect excluded zero (.05, .22). The indirect effect of higher benevolence trust, via psychological safety, on knowledge provision was also significant (.11, $p <$ .01) as the confidence interval for the indirect effect excluded zero (.03, .19). These results provide support for hypotheses 2A and 2B.

FIGURE 1
Incongruence Effect of Individual Competence Team Trust and Benevolence Team Trust on Psychological Safety

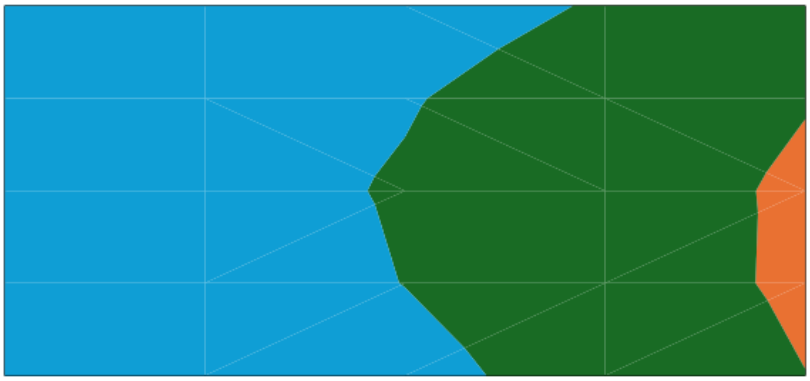

TABLE 1
Direct and Indirect Effects of Competence Team Trust and Benevolence Team Trust Incongruence

Variables	Psychological Safety	Knowledge Acquisition	Knowledge Provision
Coefficient of Block Variable of Competence Trust and Benevolence Trust (Direct Effect)	.50**	.21**	.20**
Coefficient of Psychological Safety		.26**	.21**
Indirect Effect Via Psychological Safety		.13**	.11**
95% Bootstrapped Confidence Interval (10,000 samples)		(.05, .22)	(.03, .19)

Notes: Entries represent standardized regression coefficients. † $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two tailed).

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A DIGITAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP FRAMEWORK FOR SMALL AND RURAL BUSINESSES

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Abstract: Business enterprises have invested heavily in information technology and the benefits have been well documented. However, there is still a dearth in the current literature that analyzes how this digital technology can help small and rural businesses. It is essential that business processes are identified based on their cost, complexity, and criticality and then reengineered and automated based on analyzing the domain specific data. This paper seeks to fill this gap and proposes a framework that helps in choosing the appropriate strategic decisions regarding information technology for small and rural businesses.

INTRODUCTION

Small businesses play an important role in today's market economy. The success of small firms is largely dependent on the strategic decision-making processes that are employed. In this context, information technology (IT) has a critical role to play. It provides ready-to-use, end-to-end solutions and allows small businesses to focus on their core business. Recent innovations in digital technology can play a significant role in spurring the growth of small businesses. Small and medium scale enterprises account for more than 90 percent of enterprises in most OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development) nations and provide about 80 percent of economic growth (Scupola, 2009). Significant research shows that these businesses contribute to economic growth in multiple ways. Their presence in an economy leads to more competitive large enterprises that can outsource some of their activities to smaller firms. Compared to their relatively small sizes, they create more jobs than large firms (Passerini, 2012). Smaller size is an advantage, particularly in terms of the ability to anticipate and respond to changes and achieve a deeper and closer interaction with the customers.

Information is an important asset that gives small businesses a competitive advantage in the new economy. Information access plays a critical role in the informed decision-making process, making it easy for these businesses to make good competitive decisions (Modimogale, 2011). The ability of small businesses to survive in an increasingly competitive global environment is largely predicated upon their capacity to leverage information as a resource. In today's fierce competitive environment, small businesses need to be highly responsive and adaptive to the demands of customers, actions of competitors, and changes in economic conditions (Rashaniphon, 2011). Digital technology is constantly evolving which raises two issues. On the one hand small businesses need to monitor the kind of technologies that their clients are using and try to make sure that they are ready to serve them. On the other hand, small businesses do not need to change every time there is a change in technology as this depends upon the focus area of the small businesses. The competitiveness of a small business depends on the way in which digital technology is used to support business processes. Using the appropriate

digital technology depends on many factors such as the state of the competition, the type of the small business, and the business process that needs to be modified. The major motivation for this research is the need for a framework that will help small businesses choose appropriate decisions regarding which digital artifacts they have to use to improve their performance. This paper is organized as follows. First, we briefly describe the current scenario pertaining to small businesses. This is followed by a discussion of a digital entrepreneurial framework that will help small businesses to make better strategic decisions. Concluding remarks are in the last section.

SMALL AND RURAL BUSINESSES

Even though the economic importance of small and medium scale enterprises has been known, they were considered comparatively unimportant during the great Internet boom during the 1990s and early 2000s (Passerini, 2012). Use of broadband information technology requires extensive investment in technological assets and long-term access to capital. Such capital requirements were not available to small businesses. Today small businesses can compete and excel due to continual improvements in Internet technology as well as breakthroughs in cloud computing and mobile connectivity.

Access to capital and an established brand name are the main advantages of large organizations. One of the greatest advantages small businesses have is flexibility. Many small businesses have a single owner who is free to change policies, and technologies (Sadowski, 2002). For example, the owner of a small grocery store can decide to use broadband to create an automatic reorder system with suppliers. Small businesses can offer new services and change internal processes without having to clear a multitude of committees that would exist in a large organization. Cloud computing and open-source software have brought down the investment requirements and costs. This has resulted in the availability of broadband technologies to small businesses to streamline business processes, grow the customer base, and enlarge existing offerings.

Growth □	*Low*	*High*
Innovation □		
High	Constrained	Glamorous
Low	Core	Ambitious

Figure 1. Kirchoff's Typology of Small Firms
[Adapted from Passerini (2012)]

According to Kirchoff's typology (Kim, 2004), small firms can be classified based on two dimensions: innovation and growth as shown in Figure 1. Core firms represent where innovation and growth are low, whereas Glamorous firms have innovation and growth at a high level. Constrained companies have low growth potential but high innovation potential. Ambitious firms have high growth potential but low innovation potential. This paper mostly focuses on Core firms. Mills (2015) classifies small businesses based on types of firms – whether they are sole proprietorships, B2B, etc. – as indicated in Figure 2. Most of the Core small businesses are either sole proprietorships, or local businesses serving consumers and other local businesses. Lower costs of Information Technology (IT) deployment, mobility advantages supported by broadband, and an IT services support system (now directly available as-a-service)

can help the more IT conservative small firms (such as 'core' as indicated in Figure 1) to transition to the new mobile apps (Passerini, 2012).

The Four Main Types of Small Businesses

TYPES OF FIRMS	NUMBER OF FIRMS*	DESCRIPTION
Non-Employee Businesses	23 million	Sole proprietorships
Main Street	4 million	Local businesses serving consumers and other local businesses
Suppliers	1 million	Suppliers to other businesses (B2B) in the traded sector
High-Growth	200,000	Fast-growing, innovation-driven businesses

*ESTIMATED. **NOTE** AN ESTIMATED 500,000 SMALL BUSINESSES ARE NON-SUPPLIERS IN THE TRADED SECTOR AND DO NOT FALL INTO ANY OF THE ABOVE CATEGORIES.
SOURCE ANALYSIS OF DATA FROM THE CENSUS BUREAU BY KAREN MILLS AND MERCEDES DELGADO © HBR.ORG

Figure 2. Types of Small Businesses [Adapted from (Mills, 2015)]

There is a lack of knowledge about the potential benefits of information technology and strategies to support small businesses in achieving their business objectives. Small businesses face the challenge that generally they are owner managed and the owner makes all or most of the decisions about the business (Fillis, 2004; Spencer, 2006). Unfortunately, owner-manager's limitations become limitations of the business. Information technology needs to be considered a key player for the small business in reaching its goals. As information technology is perceived to be expensive by small businesses, they often do not budget for it. The other problem with regard to the cost of IT is that small businesses may invest in unnecessarily big solutions due to sales pitches, hype of specific products or market patterns without considering their real need [Grandon, 2004).

A DIGITAL ENTREPRENEURIAL FRAMEWORK

We propose the following integrated framework for better decision-making in small businesses consisting of the following four steps:
Step 1: Business Process Reengineering
Step 2: Focus – Dominance Modeling
Step 3: Problem Variety – Solution Process Analysis
Step 4: Integrated Approach

Step 1: Business Process Reengineering

A key component of strategic decision-making in small businesses is the ability to correctly evaluate the need for making changes in the existing business processes. Business process reengineering (BPR) helps organizations to fundamentally rethink how they do their

work to dramatically improve customer service, cut operational costs, and become more competitive (Bogdanoiu, 2014). A key stimulus for reengineering has been the continuing development and deployment of sophisticated information systems and networks.

Redesign, retooling, and re-orchestrating form the key components of BPR that are essential for an organization to focus on the outcome that it needs to achieve. These stages have key steps as indicated in Figure 3. The entire technological, human, and organizational dimensions can be changed in BPR. Information technology provides office automation, allows business to be conducted in different locations, provides flexibility in manufacturing, permits quicker delivery to customers, and supports rapid and paperless transactions (Dowson, 2015). The BPR technique implements organizational change based on rapid change, employee empowerment, and training and support by information technology. To implement BPR to an enterprise, the following key actions need to take place:

- Selection of the strategic processes for redesign,
- Simplify new processes – minimize steps – optimize efficiency – modeling,
- Organize a team of employees for each process,
- Organize the workflow – document transfer and control,
- Assign responsibilities and roles for each process,
- Automate processes using information technology,
- Train the process team to efficiently operate the new process,
- Introduce the redesigned process into the new organizational structure.

REDESIGN	RETOOL	REORCHESTRATE
●Simplify ●Standardize ●Empower ●Measure	●Networks ●Intranets ●Extranets ●Workflow	●Processes ●Information Technology ●Human Resources

Figure 3. The 3 Rs of Reengineering

Here are some guidelines that are especially relevant to small businesses (Mansar, 2007):

- Read the market for your business clearly by SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats) analysis,
- Develop a strategy that optimizes cost, quality, time, and flexibility,
- Execute the developed strategy by strengthening the processes identified for reengineering and without interfering unnecessarily.

Step 2: Focus – Dominance Modeling

Small businesses can leverage information technology (IT) in two different ways. One way is to enhance operational support and transaction processing activities. Small businesses adopt and use simple IT innovations without any form of planned strategy to integrate other aspects of business (Qureshil, 2009). In this approach, any form of IT-based competitive advantage is accidental rather than planned. The second way is typically taken to use IT to improve interaction and relationships with customers. Most small businesses depend on a small number of customers who purchase large amounts of goods and services. These major customers influence the price of goods and services provided by small businesses. Close relationships

between small businesses and customers enable these businesses to respond quickly to any change in customer requirements.

Levy (2001) has proposed an analytical framework that incorporates both forms of strategic focus. In this Focus-Dominance Model (Figure 4), customer dominance is compared with strategic focus. This framework provides four different strategies for IT adoption. The "Efficiency" quadrant consists of small businesses that exploit simple systems such as word processing and spreadsheets. The "Coordination" quadrant consists of small businesses that have a need to increase market share and their customer base. The "Collaboration" quadrant indicates those small businesses that attempt to incorporate emerging technologies to manage relationships with major customers. The "Innovation:" quadrant consists of those businesses that actively seek to adopt new IT innovations to achieve competitive advantage.

Strategic Focus □ *Customer Dominance* □	*Cost*	*Value Added*
Low	Coordination	Repositioning
High	Efficiency	Collaboration

Figure 4. Focus-Dominance Model
[Adapted from Levy (2001)]

In a follow-up study, Levy (2002) investigated 43 small businesses to observe their positions in the Focus-Dominance Model. The results revealed that most of the small businesses make only one move, from "efficiency" to "coordination" or from "efficiency' to "collaboration." Small businesses taking either one of these paths tend to avoid losing control and staying within their current markets. It was also observed that only 17 out of the 43 small businesses wanted to move to the "innovation" quadrant perhaps due to environment scan that indicated possible business growth.

Step 3: Problem Variety – Solution Process Analysis

Problem Variety □ *Solution Process* □	*High*	*Low*
Unanalyzable	(4) Construct	(2) Judgment
Analyzable	(3) Program	(1) Routine

Figure 5. Characteristics of Decision-Making Process
[Adapted from Andersson and Sandlund (2010)]

Andersson and Sandlund (2010) have characterized the decision-making process based on problem variety and solution process as indicated in Figure 5. Decision-making to solve problems at the operational level, where problem structuredness is high and problem variety is low, are represented in Quadrant 1. Quadrant 2 indicates problems that can be easy to recognize but have a rather difficult solution process. These problems are not easy to analyze, and the solution is based on judgment of the decision maker. There are other types of problems where the solution process can be broken into subprocesses and analyzed. Such problems are represented in

Quadrant 3. In addition to these three types of problems, we also encounter problems that exhibit a high degree of variety and are not easy to analyze. These are grouped in Quadrant 4.

Step 4: Integrated Approach

The results of the analysis done in the three previous steps are integrated in this step. Strategic decisions that are required to be taken in small businesses are viewed through the three different lenses as indicated in the earlier steps and then, optimal decisions are taken.

CONCLUSION

Small businesses can benefit from using techniques made available by emerging information technologies. New technologies are paving the way for new market creation. As a direct result of this, we have seen new small businesses emerging to cater to niche markets as an alternative to impersonal commercial companies. Business process engineering and business data analytics have been used successfully in the corporate world. However, using these techniques for small businesses poses some problems. The basic building blocks of IT implementation consist of digitized versions of interactions among various business processes. In this paper, we have presented a framework that can identify and categorize the different types of business processes/transactions and provide a framework for better decision-making. Restructuring these processes and then automating them in a systematic way as suggested in this paper affords a practical approach to leverage information technology. Monitoring the critical success factors will help in evaluating the success of these measures. Future work in this area focuses on developing a comprehensive framework that will enable entrepreneurs and researchers to point out the potential priority areas that need to be automated first and also yield a realistic estimate of resources needed to achieve such transformation. In addition, such an approach will also help in giving a better insight into process restructuring.

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Why Do Our Engineers Quit - Linking Job Characteristics to Turnover During High Attrition

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Abstract

Organizations across industries face substantial costs from voluntary turnover. While extensive research validated a model linking motivational job characteristics to lowered turnover intentions through enhanced job satisfaction and reduced work exhaustion, additional investigation of its applicability across contexts remains valuable. This quantitative study examined the established motivational model within a technology engineering firm facing elevated attrition. Surveys measuring 118 employees' perceptions of job characteristics, work attitudes, Job satisfaction, and turnover considerations provided the data. Correlation and regression analyses revealed a robust model fit, with job satisfaction and work exhaustion mediating the relationship between motivational job features and turnover intentions as predicted. Work autonomy evidenced the most substantial effects, highlighting its importance for retention management. Findings confirm the broad generalizability of the motivational model in explaining retention processes across diverse organizational contexts. This research advances a cross-contextual understanding of job characteristics shaping turnover while informing targeted interventions to improve retention through job design, job satisfaction, and Work exhaustion. For leaders managing endemic attrition challenges, results promise practical value alongside theoretical contributions.

Keywords*: Employee turnover, Employee retention, Job characteristics, Work attitudes, Job satisfaction, Work exhaustion, Turnover intentions*

Introduction

Engineering-dependent organizations have concerning 8-15% voluntary turnover rates, risking talent losses (Merhar, 2022). Dynamics likely differ between low and high-attrition environments (Harrison et al., 2016). Investigating retention processes amidst endemic exits in an Indian firm promises valuable cross-cultural insights surrounding the consistency of motivational drivers.

Calls exist to elucidate multifaceted linkages influencing retention in technical firms facing crises (Holtom et al., 2008). Assessing the Indian context for retention processes responds to calls for examining cultural contingencies in motivational theories (Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). This study helped address these gaps by testing established models proposing motivational job characteristics to foster retention by enhancing job satisfaction and reducing strain (Humphrey et al., 2007).

Hypotheses, Model, and Context

This study examined whether work attitudes and strain mediate relationships between job characteristics and turnover intentions in India, assessing the cross-cultural generalizability of seminal motivational turnover models (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Five hypotheses were tested:

H1: Job characteristics (skill variety, task significance, autonomy, Job feedback, Job Significance) will positively affect job satisfaction.

H2: Job characteristics will be negatively related to work exhaustion.

H3: Job satisfaction will be negatively related to turnover intention.

H4: Work exhaustion will be positively related to turnover intention.

H5a: The relationship between job characteristics and turnover intention will be mediated by job satisfaction.

H5b: The relationship between job characteristics and turnover intention will be mediated by work exhaustion.

The conceptual model depicts the mediating pathways where motivational characteristics indirectly influence retention intentions through enhanced satisfaction and lowered exhaustion. The sample comprised 118 engineering professionals at an Indian semiconductor firm facing above-average attrition, enabling cultural and contextual turnover model assessment. Surveys used established multi-item measures of job characteristics, work attitudes, exhaustion, and turnover intentions on 7-point Likert scales. Correlational and regression analyses evaluated hypothesized relationships.

Analysis and Results

All hypothesized linkages demonstrated significance (see Figure 1). Job characteristics positively predicted job satisfaction ($\beta = .51$, $p < .001$), supporting H1. Job characteristics negatively affected work exhaustion ($\beta = -.33$, $p < .01$), supporting H2. Job satisfaction strongly reduced turnover intention ($\beta = -.52$, $p < .001$), supporting H3. Work exhaustion increased turnover intention ($\beta = .23$, $p < .01$), supporting H4.

Mediation modeling using Hayes' (2022) PROCESS macro confirmed hypotheses 5a-b that job satisfaction and work exhaustion mediated the relationship between job characteristics and turnover intention.

Specifically, when examining the intermediary role of job satisfaction, the direct effect of job characteristics on turnover intention became non-significant ($\beta = .1640$, $p = .2675$), while the indirect effect through satisfaction was significant (Effect = -.5953).

Likewise, with work exhaustion as a mediator, the previously significant direct link between characteristics and intention ($\beta = -.4314$, $p = .0073$) turned non-significant ($\beta = -.2703$, $p = .0814$), but a meaningful indirect effect emerged (Effect = -.1611).

Overall, the motivational job traits influenced turnover intention through satisfaction and exhaustion rather than directly, affirming full mediation. The original total effect of characteristics on intentions reduced substantially with the mediators in the model.

This supports conclusions that the turnover framework operates through psychological transmission mechanisms, specifically enhanced attitudes and reduced strain, extending past direct effects-only understanding.

Discussion

The findings validate the generalizable motivational turnover model in an Indian engineering context. Results substantiate multifaceted processes connecting critical job

perceptions to retention through attitudes and strain amidst endemic attrition. Autonomy's prominence reinforces its particular importance for retention initiatives in scientific roles. Though cautiously interpreted given limitations, this timely cross-cultural study enriches understanding of motivational model consistency across geographic contexts while informing targeted interventions to curb talent crises.

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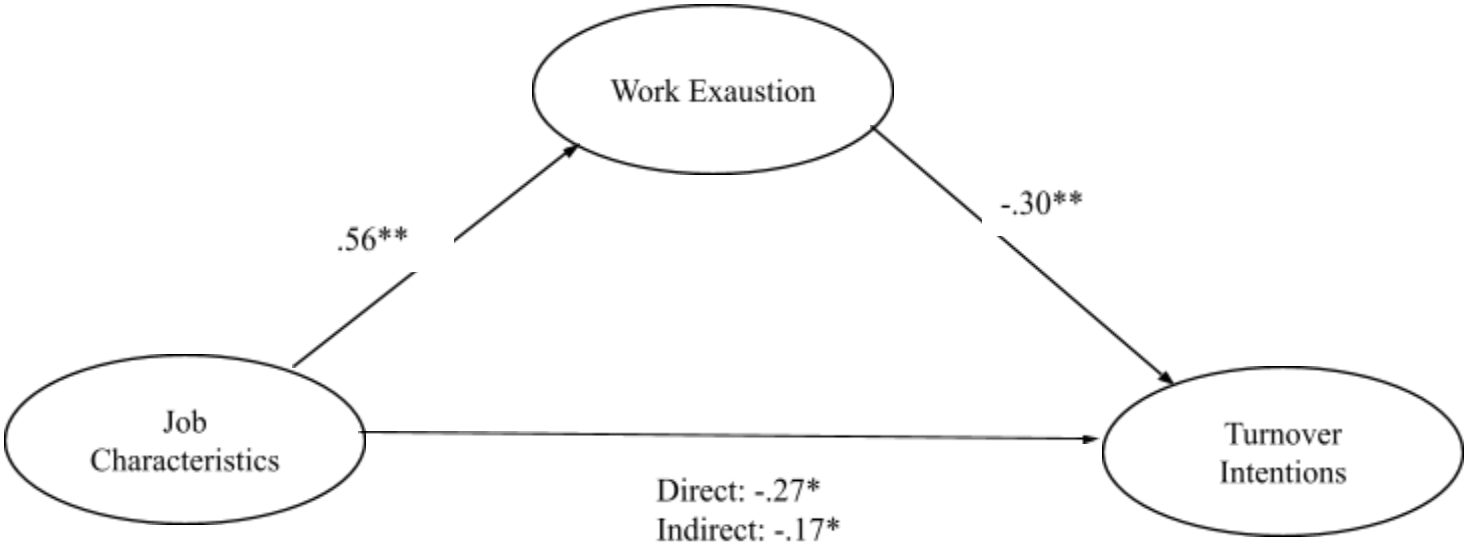
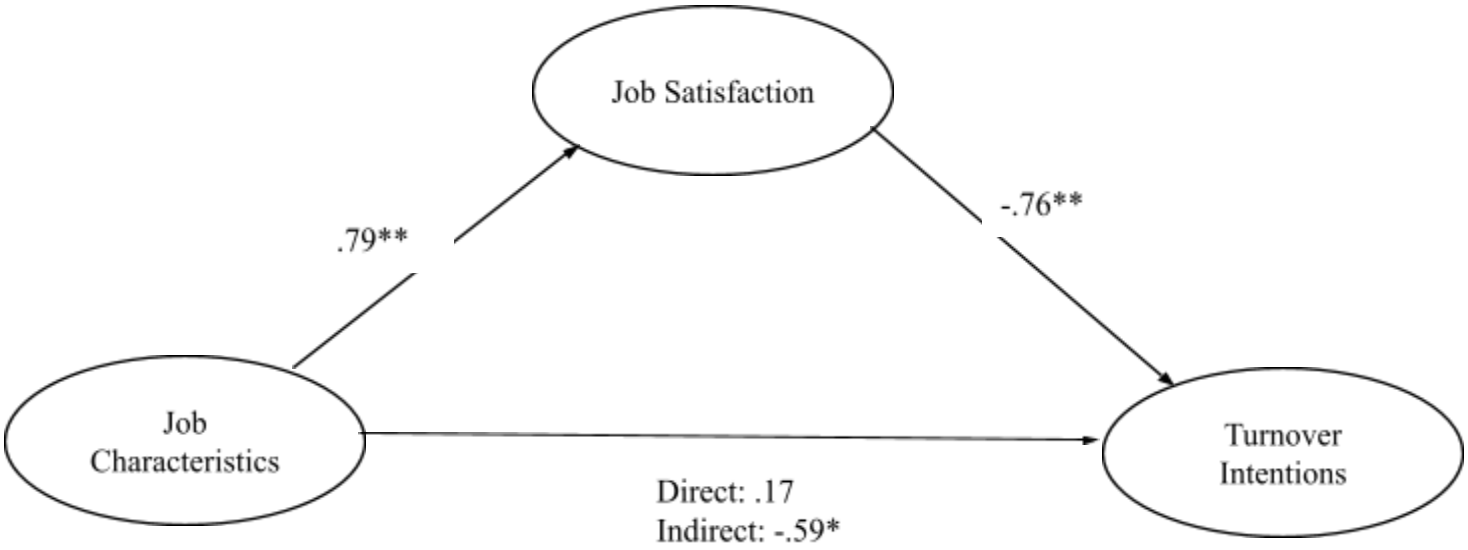
Figure 1
Hypothesized Models



Note. **Value is significant at p < .001. *Value is significant at *p* < .05. Standardized coefficients are reported.



Note. **Value is significant at p < .001. *Value is significant at *p* < .05. Standardized coefficients are reported.

The Effects of Working from Home on Parent Child Relationship

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Abstract

The sudden shift to remote work during the COVID-19 pandemic intensified work-family integration challenges for employed parents facing concurrent professional and childcare responsibilities. With virtual work arrangements persisting, employed parents continue navigating these demands. This phenomenological study aimed to elucidate employed parents' lived experiences balancing remote work while caring for children. In-depth interviews conducted with 15 working mothers and fathers teleworking over six months while parenting children under 15 revealed key strategies like promoting child independence and spousal coordination. Findings indicated that while increased parent-child time enables bonding if consciously fostered, constant multitasking hinders quality interactions amidst unceasing demands. Parents needed accommodations like schedule flexibility and cultural support. However, excessive work hours and connectivity still strained family relationships. Results provide timely insights to inform updated organizational policies and training supporting parenting employees as virtual work endures. With appropriate support, telework can nurture resilient parent-child relationships despite intensified work-family integration challenges.

Keywords: *COVID-19, working from home, working from home parents, parent-child relationship, single parent household.*

Introduction

The pandemic intensified work-family conflicts for teleworking parents facing closed schools alongside remote work, straining relationships (Chung et al., 2020). While increased daily interactions enable bonding, persistent role blurring from endless multitasking breeds resentment and turmoil, threatening family resilience (Prime et al., 2020).
This study addressed gaps surrounding impacts on the parent-child relationship itself (Craig & Churchill, 2021). Investigating parents' coping strategies and support needs to nurture connections amidst telework promises timely insights to inform organizational policies as virtual arrangements persist, maintaining relevance despite reopened schools.

Theoretical Grounding

The Conservation of Resources theory explains inter-role tensions arising when demands in one domain deplete resources needed to fulfill obligations in another, causing strain (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). Teleworking parents experienced such family resource losses from work encroachment on caregiving duties. Constant juggling propagated stress and relational disruptions (Carroll et al., 2020).

Methodology

This phenomenological study elicited employed parents who lived remote work-family experiences through 30–60-minute semi-structured videoconference interviews with 15 mothers and fathers across diverse backgrounds. Participants had been teleworking for over six months while raising at least one child under 15 at home. A set of 10 questions were prepared (see Appendix A) and the interviews were analyzed using Delve software to conduct iterative coding aligned with Braun and Clarke's (2006) phased thematic analysis framework encompassing data familiarization, initial code generation, theme development through coding, refinement, and interpretation. Multiple coders, peer debriefing, and member checks bolstered analytical rigor. Thematic analysis uncovered common strategies, obstacles, relationship impacts, and support needs balancing integrated work-caregiving spheres (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Member checks and collaborative coding ensured credible interpretations stayed closely tied to parents' voices.

Key Results

- **Independence Promotion: Parents assigned chores and implemented schedules to occupy kids independently during work. However, some worried this excessive structure strained bonds.**
- **Spousal Coordination:** Couples split supervision and tag-teamed work meetings but faced resentment around unequal divisions. Single parents particularly struggled with constant solo juggling.
- **Strengthening Connections:** Despite multitasking difficulties, consciously structured shared activities like exercising afforded vital quality time and deepened parent-child understanding when vigilant presence was maintained.
- **Role Turbulence:** Endless transitions between professional and caregiving modes bred tensions over redirected play and responsibilities. Kids felt frustrated by their parents' persistent unavailability.
- **Organizational Support:** Flexible scheduling and empathetic leadership helped mitigate work-family conflicts but could not eliminate strains from overwork culture and connectivity pressures.

Additional findings that emerged highlighted employed mothers' disproportionate childcare burdens, with fathers acknowledging relying heavily on spouses shouldering domestic work to enable their uninterrupted work productivity, consistent with pandemic research (Collins et al., 2020). Single mothers endured vulnerability and isolation without partnerships to share care loads and strain. Parents reported more conflicts over the distribution of household duties than pre-pandemic, especially those newly navigating full-time telework with school-aged kids.

Discussion

Parents demonstrated profound adaptability amidst concurrent work-family shocks but required updated structural support. Lasting accommodations enabling reasonable hours and school integration can nurture engagement and family ties (Rudolph et al., 2020). With proper partnering, telework provides enriching opportunities to reinforce parental bonds alongside careers, fostering resilience through disruptions.

Conclusion

This research elucidates parents' complex work-family realities to inform updated organizational paradigms supporting integrated spheres where flexible scheduling, empathy, and

realistic expectations empower thriving caregiver-employees. The renewed perspectives promise dual benefits for families and businesses embracing work-life harmony.

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Appendix A

1. Can you describe some strategies or coping mechanisms that you employ to maintain a healthy parent-child relationship while working from home?
2. How do these strategies or coping mechanisms contribute to promoting positive family dynamics in your household?
3. What specific challenges or disruptions have you experienced in balancing work responsibilities and maintaining a healthy parent-child relationship while working from home?
4. Can you share examples of how you have addressed or overcome these challenges and disruptions in your daily routine?
5. In what ways do you believe these strategies and coping mechanisms have positively influenced your relationship with your child/children?
6. How do you involve your child/children in your work-from-home activities, and how does it impact your parent-child relationship?
7. Can you discuss any adjustments or adaptations you have made to your work schedule or environment to enhance your interaction with your child/children while working from home?
8. How do you prioritize your time and allocate your energy between work responsibilities and engaging with your child/children during the day?
9. Have you noticed any specific changes or improvements in your family dynamics since you started working from home? If yes, can you elaborate on them?
10. What advice or insights would you give to other working parents who are striving to maintain a healthy parent-child relationship while working from home?