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SWAM formatted the proceedings, but correspondent authors are responsible for the contents and claims.

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# **THE IMPACT OF VOLUNTEERISM ON EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT**

JEFF BARLAND  
College of Business  
University of Dallas  
Irving, Texas 75062

## **INTRODUCTION**

Like many people working in organizations today, I have personally sought out meaningfulness in the workplace. I seek out and pursue opportunities to support my community in the ways that most fit my personal value system. When the organization I work for supports those efforts, and the community charities, I feel much more connected to the business. Employee volunteerism is encouraged at 9 out of 10 US firms with 70% of US firms offering "Matching gifts" to charities that their employees support (Peloza, 2006). Corporate donations hit \$9B in 2001 alone (Peloza, 2006). Volunteerism has been linked to increased employee engagement in many studies showing that the corporate investment in volunteerism through programs, such as paid time off for volunteering, pays off in many different ways for the business (Caligiuri, 2013) (Brockner, 2014) (Slack, 2015). Employee engagement is defined as the "positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption". This desired state of engagement is higher in employees that perceive they are working for a company that is a good corporate citizen. (Caligiuri, Menchin & Jiang, 2013)

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

As we investigate the relationship between corporate volunteerism and employee engagement, it behooves us to understand the motivation behind employees' interest in volunteering. Whenever we try to understand what drives behavior it becomes evident that human motivation is complex and difficult to understand with clarity. Peloza & Hassay (2016) found that employees have a mix of altruistic motives, as well as egoistic motives, that drives their interest in volunteering. Their exploratory research noted that some employees were motivated by having the opportunity of an audience to showcase their leadership. Another study by Hoeffler, (2010) found that volunteerism in the workplace helps employees satisfy their altruistic needs. An interesting finding of the research was that 53% of the employees surveyed claimed that they chose to work for their organization primarily because of the corporate social responsibility (CSR) programs.

Many studies have focused solely on the impact volunteerism has on the organization without consideration of the impact these programs have on the individual employees. As a matter of fact, 90% of all research done on corporate social responsibility (CSR's) are done at the organizational level (Caligiuri et al., 2013). Caligiuri found that there were significant positive outcomes at the individual level that should also warrant consideration. These positive outcomes include innovation, healthier well-being, employer attractiveness, and better financial

outcomes. This is in addition to the meaningfulness that many employees find when they participate in volunteerism programs supported by their organization.

Other studies have shown that employee meaningfulness is positively related to organizational commitment (Brockner et al., 2014). I personally enjoy meaningfulness when I am able to be altruistic with the support of my company. It really does build loyalty and helps me connect with the business on a personal level. Brockner, (2014) also found that workers tend to appreciate the organization for allowing them to have a rewarding charitable experience and it helps them establish a stronger commitment to the organization. Rupp, (2018) did a recent study on the sustainability of the engagement achieved through volunteer programs. They captured data from 1000 companies in 17 different countries before, during and after the employees participated in a company-sponsored volunteer program. They found that employee engagement was still improved six months after the volunteer activity concluded. As a matter of fact, the employees were found to be happier and healthier, in addition to being more productive.

One of the clear benefits is the expected employee engagement improvement, but there are several others worth noting (Hoeffler, 2010). The organization will also benefit from the positive goodwill generated from the charitable efforts as the people running the charities will think well of the organization. In one report, 72% of executives said that their firm's CCI efforts improved employee retention (Unknown, 2019). Another study found that 60% of all companies offer paid time off for volunteerism and that it was a key to retention and recruitment (Unknown, 2016). The study did note that there is a risk to the firm if the perception is that leadership does not actually support the CCI, or they are not authentically involved, that it could lead to a negative impact on employee engagement.

## **RESEARCH QUESTION**

One of the areas that I am extremely passionate about is giving back through volunteerism. I have had the opportunity to participate and lead volunteerism efforts at several different organizations. In my experience organizations that are very supportive of volunteerism among their employees enjoy more fulfilled and engaged workers. I am proposing to research how organizational support of volunteerism affects employee engagement in US retail companies. I am also interested in seeing if age range plays a role in whether or not volunteerism drives employee engagement.

### **Proposed Research Question(s):**

*RQ1: How does the volunteerism impact employee engagement?*

*H1: Level of volunteerism is related to employee engagement*

*RQ2: How does the level of organizational support of volunteerism impact employee engagement?*

*H2: There is a positive relationship between organizational support of volunteerism and employee engagement*

*RQ3: Does employee age range affect the impact volunteerism has on employee engagement?*

*H3: There is an inverse relationship between volunteerism and employee engagement as employee age ranges get older*

## **Variables**

Independent variable =	Volunteerism
Mediating variable =	Organization Support
Moderating variable =	Employee Age Range
Dependent variable =	Employee Engagement

## **METHODS**

This study will utilize a quantitative study design as data will be collected using surveys to best develop findings that can be effectively applied in an organization. The quantitative study will leverage data to develop empirical measures and statistics to test our hypothesis. Using a quantitative analysis method will allow us to make better conclusions regarding our variables and how they relate to each other. The study will also be confirmatory and will utilize statistical analysis of the data to provide evidence either supporting the hypothesized correlated relationships, or not. One of the weaknesses of choosing the quantitative method is it will only allow us to measure the modeled constructs and doesn't allow for additional innovation on the theory.

This research will also take a deductive approach since it is furthering a functionalist approach called "Functionalist Theory". This theory is highly adopted by researchers evaluating why people volunteer and the motivation driving that behavior. The theory considers the reasoning behind why people volunteer from a positive and negative aspect, such as self-esteem and social relationships (Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995). There have been a substantial number of studies done to better understand how employees are motivated to volunteer. This study will help further the understanding of volunteerism triggers and drivers, as well as their influence on employee engagement.

## **Sampling**

**Sampling Plan:** The population of the study is all major US grocery companies with a workforce of more than a thousand associates. No inducements were used to incentivize associates to participate in the survey. We used a Census sample because it is a common method

for associates to use. Walmart does this type of survey frequently and associates are comfortable with the format. The study surveyed 5,000 employees across the top five US grocery chains by sales volume from a randomly selected list of potential employees. The employee list consisted of only salaried employees to establish a consistent basis across all companies. We received a response rate of 47%, or 2,350 respondents. The respondents were 54% male and 46% female. 22% were younger than 30 (Age tier 1), 34% were between 30 and 50 (Age tier 2), and 44% were older than 50 years old (Age tier 3). We used the same randomly selected list at each stage of the analysis. HR in each of these companies was contacted and aligned with the studies objectives, goals and methods. The surveys were developed and transmitted online to reduce costs. The survey data can be used as a regional stratified random sample which provided greater precision than a regular non stratified sample. This also allows for the use a smaller sample to further reduce cost (Table 1).

## **DATA COLLECTION**

We used an online survey through Qualtrics, which is an effective way to gather data from US Retail Grocery store employees. Survey Monkey and Qualtrics are both inexpensive effective tools that can be leveraged for this study, but we chose Qualtrics for its superior functionality. We chose a large sample size of the top US Retail Grocery stores to increase and address generalizability. A cover letter was included in the survey to help explain the purpose of the research so they participants could be properly informed. Along with the cover letter and the survey was detailed instructions and assurances of anonymity for all chosen participants. This research utilized existing instruments that have been developed and tested from prior studies which should help ensure instrument validity.

### **Measurements**

Volunteerism was measured using a list of volunteer activities within the organizations surveyed. Several related questions were asked like “In the past year, how much have you volunteered for activities sponsored by your employer?” (Brockner et al., 2014). A five-point scale was used to determine level of volunteerism among participants. We also utilized an instrument from Clarey et al. (1998) that measured participant motivation, Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI). The instrument will use 10 descriptive phrases helping evaluate how the employee’s feel about the volunteer opportunity in their organizations. The scale was found to have a Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  of .82.

Organization Support will be measured by using a five-point likerd instrument asking questions like “How well does your organization support volunteerism?” The survey will use a five-point scale to evaluate how the participants feel about their organizational support of volunteerism. The Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  for this scale was .79.

Employee Age Range will be measured using a simple one-item 3-point scale asking the participants to describe their age range as younger than 30 (Age tier 1), between 30 and 50 (Age tier 2), and older than 50 years old (Age tier 3).

Employee Engagement will be measured using three items based on questions from a scale created by Mowday et al. (1982). This is a three-item scale which has been used in several different studies. The instrument was found to be highly correlated ( $r = .93$ ) to employee engagement. These items used a five-point scale and included questions like “I will put in extra effort to help my company be successful.”

## **Analysis**

The research measured how volunteerism impacts employee engagement in the top US Grocery organizations. We used regression analysis to evaluate and test our hypothesis. The study also measures the influence organizational support and age range has on relationship between volunteerism and employee engagement using online surveys that have Likert scales capturing the data. The online surveys were done using Qualtrics and were not incentivized. The study also used statistical software (R) to calculate the different construct measures alpha and their statistical correlation to each other. Overall, the analysis was both inexpensive and effective using online surveys and we utilized existing instruments whenever they were available to further improve the studies reliability.

## **Limitations**

There are limitations of using the proposed quantitative methods, as we are in this study. One limitation is we will not gain the deep level of information that could be acquired by using a qualitative approach such as how people “feel” about volunteering and their perceptions on organizational support. An example of a limitation of this approach would be the lack of detailed interviews of employees who have volunteered in US Grocery companies that would help us comprehend in greater detail how volunteering, and organizational support of volunteering, impacts their employee engagement. This type of approach could help us take the theory in new and potentially different directions. We recognize this limitation and still feel that a quantitative analysis makes sense for this study as it is easier and more cost effective to conduct.

## **Ethics Statement**

We take the anonymity and confidentiality of our survey participants very seriously. It is important that all respondents feel comfortable that there will be no negative ramifications of their participation in this survey. The research methods will respect these concerns and address them in the following manner:

- Restricting access of all surveys to only the researchers
- Removing all personal identifying information from the surveys
- We will independently code all responses to further ensure the confidentiality of all participants
- We ensured that the survey could be completed by participants outside of the workplace to further reduce any concerns over retaliation.

- An encrypted database will be used that is secure from anyone not on the research team
- We will not make any copies of the data outside of the encrypted database
- The survey design has already been submitted and approved by IRB who confirmed that we abided by all ethical regulations and concerns

### **CONCLUSION**

We found an extensive amount of research conducted on volunteerism and its impact on employee engagement. These studies have shown a positive relationship between volunteerism and employee engagement. A gap in the research has been how organizational support mediates the relationship between volunteerism and employee engagement.

This research furthers our understanding of Functionalist theory by addressing that imbalance in this research and found that organizational support of volunteerism is partially related to employee engagement. Now that we have found that organization support affects employee engagement, we hope to inspire further research on how organization support can be applied to maximize engagement in the workplace.

### **REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM AUTHOR**

# **CONFLICTING MENTAL WORLDVIEWS: PATHS OF ENGAGEMENT**

**WILLIAM DAVID BRICE**

College of Business Administration and Public Policy,  
California State University Dominguez Hills,  
1000 E. Victoria St., Carson CA 90747

**WILL McWHINNEY<sup>†</sup>**

Fielding University

**JAMES KATZENSTEIN**

California State University Dominguez Hills

**JAMES B. WEBBER**

Kensington, NH

## **INTRODUCTION**

This paper is a work of theory investigating how to negotiate diverse views of reality found in irreconcilable cultural, political, and international disputes. This work is a direct extension of theory discussed in “Paths of Change: Strategic Choices for Organizations and Society” (McWhinney, 1997b). However, where the previous work concerned “how to create organizational change”, this paper’s contribution is “how to make meaning, bridge different world-views, and create new collaborative cultures in place of conflict”. The questions include: How do managers organize diverse ideas into discourses, and group diverse and divisive coworkers into teams? The goal becomes setting new rules of discourse and finding useful language for settling disputes when the warring parties come from diverse beliefs about reality?

The belief patterns discussed here are as fundamental as Hofstede’s (2001) cultural dimensions. Research concerning culture-based taboos has shown how strong and fundamental these types of conflicting attitudes can be; as well as how they are linked to specific groups in society (Brice, et al., 2017). Furthermore, in the context of overwhelming social polarization, especially in Western societies, it is argued here that we must negotiate across these basic realities when entering a dialogue and facing differences; recognizing the games that are played among participants to attain goals defined in terms of their diverse realities.

Discussing a topic without knowing sources of differences typically ends in a power struggle that shuts down dialogue. This paper examines the forming of coherent discourses and describes the rules of arenas where discourses are conducted, arenas labeled platforms of discourse. The platforms serve as underpinnings for all discourse and are arenas of conflict. Discourse begins in disparity; the work on a platform is to enable mutual discourse. Thus, the

major focuses of this paper are on characterizing the platforms and working with conflicts that are inherent in the existence of different sources of reality.

## THE APPEARANCE OF REALITY

The appearance of reality follows on engagements between people using different sources of reality. Initially the realizations are weak speculations that need to be reinforced until they become established patterns, or rules of engagement. The definitional assumption is that rules, and thus grammars, operate on a single platform, involving only two sources of reality in well-formed propositions. In normal discourse we call on more than one platform thus creating changes in logic and worldviews that call on skills in gaming and conflict management. Rules of grammar are not sufficient. It is asserted here that we use four sources of reality beliefs, requiring the interfacing of pairs of beliefs. There are six pairings and six platforms.

A platform of discourse is based on confrontations among parties with different beliefs in the source of reality: unitary, sensory, social, and mythic. The grammar is expressed in the vocabulary of a particular discourse and conforms to limitations of the reality beliefs on which they formed. A set of rules that does not conform to the reality constructs will produce ill-formed propositions, contradictions, and ambiguities. Each platform is an arena for dialogue between two distinct views of the source of reality.

### Projections shape the platforms

Any expression will appear as a projection on the platform. For example: a sensory observation is transformed by social (emotional) function into a fear response on the evaluative platform; or, a collection of concepts is transformed into a quality by a mythic imposition on the assertive platform. In any expression one or the other reality dominates. On the analytic platform, theory dominates the observation, or the observation drives the theory; on the normative platform, emotions evoke ideas, or ideas capture emotions. Some dialogues are dominated by one reality. Einstein hypothesized qualities based on theorizing, making no reference to empirical observation. A charismatic with devout followers will create a different platform than one used by the participants in a liberal democracy. Generally, the shape of the platform will follow enduring cultural forces.

- The **Analytic** platform is where empirical observations are made to work with theory propositions and the converse. The scientific method is exactly an accommodative process designed to produce a correspondence of theory and data.
- The **Evaluative** platform provides for an accommodation of desire and the sources of satisfaction: a buyer and seller accommodate each other to close a sale, two people agree on how to share a resource, and two lovers exchange affection.
- The **Normative** platform is the ground for settling between issues of principles and of social desirability, of the moral and the ethical, and of administrative law and a sense of fairness.
- The **Assertive** platform is the site of asserting and maintaining principles, laws, theories,

and truth. In a discourse, the participants propose principles and rules to others who will follow the orderly dictums on how principles are to be exercised.

- The **Creative** platform is the engagement between ideation and physical realization, where ideas and materials come together for inventive formation of things and processes.
- The **Generative** platform is a meaning-making place, where ideas are valued, chosen, and plotted into narratives from which a society gains cultures, languages, myths, and sciences.

So long as a discourse is confined to a single platform, the grammar can produce coherence. Problems arise if participants attempt to use more than two reality bases, exceeding the defining power of a platform of discourse, resulting in a mix of rules introducing irresolvable ambiguities which interfere with meaningful exchanges. Multi-platform exchanges tend to be disruptive, argumentative, and unmanageable. However, natural speech includes dialogue from all the platforms. In casual discourse, discordant noise is filtered out. In purposeful discourse, unidentified mixing of platforms can lead to ambiguity.

### **Structure of a Discourse**

Successful discourse involves trade-offs between dialogues leading to agreement and increased knowledge. There is no discourse at the extremes. Tensions are progressively resolved by creating agreements from the most fundamental levels; progressing toward communication of information, ideas, and feelings. The sequence:

- The first stage reflects the way participants deal with reality and the selection of platforms of discourse on which to present their positions.
- The second stage concerns selection of grammars often accomplished by establishing the discipline of the participants.
- The third stage is vocabulary selection of the topic of interest. In academic writing this is performed by referencing other authors' writing; in common conversation it is done by sharing contextual information to get others 'on board' with common meanings.

Only in the face of serious conflict will participants step back to search for common grammar. Luhmann [1995] dissects the role of custom in affairs of the heart, particularly noting the role of silence. Romantic efforts fail if participants adhere strongly to different sources of reality and cannot settle on a platform of discourse. Because participants may not recognize the form of conflict they cannot resolve it. Accepting the other's reality belief may be inconceivable. Even when conflict can be worked, its first appearance is likely to produce a power struggle. Thus, in important engagements, even where the intent of all parties is to arrive at understanding, common dialogical practices are likely to induce conflict and power games.

### **Games as an Expression of the Platforms**

In Lewis Carroll's *Through the Looking Glass*, Alice joined in on the Red Queen's croquet court, "I don't think they play at all fairly.... And they don't seem to have any rules in

particular, at least, if there are, nobody even attends to them." Alice had assumed the conventions of the games she thought she was playing. Her confusion arose because the game was not croquet, but the game of deciding who is to choose the game and its rules. We play similar games in dialogue not knowing the grammar or game rules that have been chosen for us by convention or manipulation. Dialogue is a game played on at least two levels, structural grammar and content. Both must be chosen and understood to effectively communicate.

Platforms of discourse are similar to game boards; the platforms are like checkerboards or athletic fields in that they delimit a range of possibilities based on some meta-rules. In the case of the platforms, these are the rules of cause, or sequencing, of ideas. Six boards of play are described that simulate the platforms of discourse:

On the first board (M-U), labeled assertive, games and rules are formulated for games to be played on the other boards. The purpose of first board games is to get proposed rules accepted. It proceeds by specifying legal moves and the consequence of each resulting play situation. The games of the first board are the creation of theories, legal structures, aesthetics, and grammars in which a player presents its orthodoxy. The first board game is an engagement of power for or against established principle.

The second board (U-Se), the analytic, is the board on which games such as chess are played, fields where athletic contests are held, and laboratories where we test theories. Aspects of war and high finance are also framed as well-defined games. Their purpose is to exhibit expertise within a set of rules and to win. Most of these games are fundamentally competitive yet are valid only so long as the players conform to the rules. Speech and writing are played on this board.

The third board (U-So), the normative, is a stage for politics. These games are played in continuing confrontation between the desires (social) of one party and established position (unitary) of the other. The play is often called gaming the rules. The game is to gain the right to choose what sort of game is to be played. Jean Piaget, the Swiss child psychologist, observed in watching young boys play the game of mumblety-peg, that as they matured, they spent increasing amounts of playtime trying to enforce changes in the rules to gain an advantage. As they mature, they move from mumblety-peg to adolescent testing of their gaming power, then move in adulthood to political games. On this board, coaches, referees, and judges argue over what will be the rules of their games. It is the arena of legislators, spouses, market manipulators, and church cardinals. Most games on this board are what James Carse calls "infinite games" as they have no final winners and losers [Carse 1986]. Each side tries to modify rules to increase its advantage without driving the opponent off the field. Driving the other players out of play is a non-accommodating behavior that voids play on this board; perhaps reverting to first board play.

The fourth board (Se-So), the evaluative, is the site of games of relation between people in a marketplace. The players may be carrying out a courtship or haggling over prices, but the game is played wherever there is discourse among concerns of involved people. The board provides the marketplace in which moves are evaluations of opportunities in setting up

exchanges where goods are assigned social values. In one form, it is about interpersonal relationships and in another it is pure market economic transactions.

The fifth board (M-Se), the creative, is the site for creating and naming sensory images. It creates the game board, the pieces, and rules of play. Mythic images give form to the sensory and plans to the mind; the sensory input stimulates the creation of perceptions. This is the primordial game board, on which engagement itself was created. The creative board is similar to the first board, but the opposition is nature and time.

The sixth board (So-M), the generative, is the site for organizing symbols and metaphors to give meaning to dialogue or a community through creating stories and traditions. In this cooperative form, the game seems little different than the creation of literature. It is a game as the creator continually constructs and violates conventions to enliven a community of interest and develop a culture, and in turn the community endorses or rejects the creations.

The rules of the games played on each board differ, as do linguistic grammars. On each board rules may be simple or complex, and may never be complete.

Rules of a marketplace (fourth board) may be simple but not well-defined and on a creative board (fifth board), the sole rule may be that play may not stop until a novel outcome is found. Play on a given board may be dominated by play in a 'bigger' game. In most of gaming we are playing on two boards concurrently. Players of accommodating games on the second and third boards are dominated by values and opportunities that are 'markers' on the evaluative board (fourth board). Accommodations take place in a market. Professional sports illustrate a double play: to win games to make money, however the focal game can conflict with the market. Gambling on soccer is a legitimate game, but not by the athletes. This analysis argues that we should play one game at a time. Games are most effective when they are played strictly within the game's definition and played consistently within rules designed for a specific platform.

### **Dominations and Hierarchies**

Discourses and games are often conducted using two or more platforms; thus different grammars and rules. Such mixing leads to ambiguity and miscommunication unless their use is structured to establish intentional interrelations. A conversation might be held on a platform that is subordinated to an unacknowledged but dominating platform. For example, a dispute over scientific data (analytic platform) might bog down because it is embedded in a political struggle over distribution of rights to findings the discourse produces. Thus, there is a shadow dialogue being carried out on the normative platform. By recognizing that the conversation is embedded within a second platform, participants can separate conversations and conduct them sequentially and coherently. An initial conversation might take place on the normative platform to resolve ownership problems; then return to the analytic platform to work out measurement issues.

Almost every focal conversation is a sub-text to issues on a 'larger' platform. 'Socially correct behavior' has come to dominate conversations; creating a fear of offending. For example, the use of the male gender with a singular subject has become offensive even though English

makes no provision for a neuter subject. Such limitations are shadow constraints on the platform of discourse; they censor what we think. We are oblivious to the forces that constrain the focal discourse. Many seemingly acceptable dialogues on the focal platform are now disallowed due to unspoken dominating rules; they are now taboo. Without awareness of the dominating platforms, the mixed discourses are unmanageable. Identifying the dominant and subordinate conversations is an important step in clearing away elements that cannot lead to a resolution.

## **CONFLICT MANAGEMENT ON THE PLATFORMS**

It is unlikely that discourse arises in agreement. Rather, good faith in discourse is developed by establishing rules of exchange, which in turn may be based in a shared belief in what is real. Discourse begins in conflict but continues in a cycle of interpretation and reflection that leads toward a base of trust and respect for differences. An approach to managing, if not resolving, conflicts identifies the worldviews of conflict participants and selects the resolution processes that will be most suitable to parties coming from their diverse worldviews. Working from the four-reality model produces a different set of resolution strategies than that which is described in conflict literature. The four realities model first considers reality beliefs to expose intrinsic conflicts among participants.

Tamara Bliss [1996] investigated how non-profit groups attacked corporate positions on issues of environment, human rights, and inequalities. She found that non-profit groups used greatly differing paths of resolution. The differences could be explained by the group's dominant worldviews and choice of platforms. For example, groups coming from a generative base used relational tactics such as boycotts to set public opinion against corporations. Corporations often had legal resources that led them by habit and skill to attempt to arbitrate solutions on the normative platform. Clearly these institutions did not attempt to find a common ground (platform) for resolution. An exception was with environmental groups, often led by scientists, who tended to appeal to pragmatists inside corporations using empirical arguments. This tactic led to mutually attractive solutions as would follow from the disputants' use of a common platform.

Interestingly, the most terrible conflicts in history appear to have been between ideological groups based on the unitary source of reality. The scheme does not explicitly deal with conflicts on a single platform. However, it does suggest that when groups are attached to a single form of belief they have an insufficient base for reality and subsequently fear their belief may be unsustainable in confrontation with an alternative. It might be that the most threatening condition is to face another culture that also believes it has the Truth.

National culture always embodies many Truths which differ from those of other cultures. Geert Hofstede's work identifying dimensions of national culture (using values) illustrates this in a large-scale way [Hofstede, 2001]. With his approach of culture dimension scores, a concept of cultural distance can be discussed. The widely differing Truths embodied in culturally distant societies mirror those discussed here. Professional classes within the same country have also been found to differ on cultural values and beliefs [Brice and Richardson, 2009]. Differing cultural values and beliefs have also been found

to lead to differing business behavior and performance [Brice and Jones, 2013; Brice, 2012]. Populations within the same country have been found to enthusiastically accept or adamantly reject imported products that seemed to violate cultural norms for one group but fit the cultural norms for another [Brice, et al., 2017]. There seemed to be no basis for compromise (with the product or its marketing) with these differing cultural groups as they proceed from differing cultural values, beliefs as well as differing reality platforms.

Conflicts that have driven Western history, and current social polarization, are seemingly irresolvable with no basis for compromise. Sometimes these conflicts are avoided by keeping parties separated, keeping "church from state" and colleges of humanities distant from technological institutes. In the case of sacred-secular issues, the sole resolution is annihilation of one party and its beliefs, as seen in innumerable efforts at genocide. These conflicts are visible in nations torn by wars between theocratic and social-democratic political forces. There is no platform to which the disputants can retreat from conflict. This analysis posits that successful resolution can be gained by negotiating the parties differing grammars prior to discussing issues related to differing reality mindsets.

## **CONCLUSIONS**

In the past century there have been a number of major conflicts that were said, beforehand, to be impossible as war was not in any country's economic interests. However, diplomacy to prevent the outbreak of hostilities invariably failed as the parties proceeded from different realities. There again seems to be great conflict in the offing, and it is again said that large-scale war cannot happen, as it is not in any country's economic interest. A closer look at the parties' differing truth realities shows us a different picture however. It can be seen that the major powers are conversing with differing grammars; mutual incomprehension of their differing realities is moving the world closer to conflict.

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# **INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY ARCHITECTURE FOR SMALL BUSINESSES**

Mysore Ramaswamy  
College of Business  
Southern University and A&M College  
Baton Rouge, LA 70813

## **ABSTRACT**

Information technology (IT) has a critical role to play in the success of small businesses. It provides ready to use, end-to-end solutions and allow small businesses to focus on their core business. This paper proposes a framework that helps in choosing the appropriate IT architecture.

## **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 allow 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 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 demands of customers, actions of competitors, and changes in economic conditions (Rashaniphon, 2011).

This paper is organized as follows. First, we briefly describe the current scenario pertaining to small businesses and the importance of IT for those businesses. IT Strategies and business process reengineering as applied to small businesses are discussed next. Then we propose a framework that will help adopt the appropriate IT strategy for small enterprises. Concluding remarks form the last section.

## SMALL 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 required extensive investment in technological assets and a 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.

According to Kirchoff's typology (Kim, 2004), small firms can be classified based on two dimensions: innovation and growth. 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. 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 to transition to the new mobile apps (Passerini, 2012).

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 as they are generally 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, type of specific products or market patterns without considering their real need (Grandon, 2004). Technology is constantly evolving which raises two issues. On the one hand the 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, the 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 IT is used to support business processes.

## **SMALL BUSINESSES AND INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY**

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 relationship with customers. A majority of 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 among 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, customer dominance is compared with strategic focus. This framework provides four different strategies to 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.

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 stay 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.

## **BUSINESS PROCESS REENGINEERING**

Business process reengineering (BPR) began as a private sector technique to help organizations to fundamentally rethink how they do their work in order to dramatically improve customer service, cut operational costs, and become more competitive (Bogdanoiu, 2014; Dowson, 2015). A key stimulus for reengineering has been the continuing development and deployment of sophisticated information systems and networks. BPR involves changes in structures and in processes within the business environment.

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. The entire technological, human, and organizational dimensions may be changed in BPR. Information technology plays a major role in business process reengineering as it provides office automation, it allows the business to be conducted in different locations, provides flexibility in manufacturing, permits quicker delivery to customers and supports rapid and paperless transactions (Bogdanoiu, 2014; Wu, 2005).

The BPR technique implements organizational change based on rapid change, employee empowerment, and training and support by information technology. In order 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.

Applying BPR techniques to small businesses differ substantially from the way large enterprises deal with this issue. BPR concept requires an organization to have a strategy and then set business objective to achieve that strategy. In order to achieve the objective effectively, organization can apply BPR concepts to put the right processes in place (Rashaniphon, 2011; Wailgum, 2009). However, in the case of many small businesses, this classical approach may not be workable. Most of the successful people in small businesses are hands on persons and most likely they do not even bother about the word ‘strategy’, especially in the business environment of developing countries. It is more effective to try out hands on approach to make changes quickly. They are only looking for short term objectives.

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.

Small businesses can leverage techniques and tools that have become increasingly available as open source software such as ‘Alfresco’ software for content management (Passerini, 2012). Along with the traditional knowledge management processes that include acquisition/creation, storage and retrieval, dissemination and application, small businesses benefit from various size-based advantages. For example, in the area of knowledge storage and retrieval, the proximity of project teams to the company owner enables quicker and more frequent transactions compared to large organizations.

## **FRAMEWORK FOR ADOPTION OF APPROPRIATE IT STRATEGY**

Although technology can create new or modified business practices at a rapid rate, successful adoption of new best practices must stand up to market forces. Technology and the marketplace are continually reshaping business activities and as a consequence, business strategies. An organization must continually work towards an alignment that fits into the organization’s business strategy and IT strategy. This alignment should improve the likelihood that new initiatives are explicitly linked to areas that are critical to successful business performance, provide a source of competitive advantage. The role of IT should be that of a strategic enabler for competitive success, rather than just an operational supporter.

In the first stage, existing business processes are examined. The number of processes is indeed very large as this pertains to upstream and downstream of the supply chain as well as operations related to the specific business. The gamut of these processes/interactions is also very diverse. The analysis is conducted along the three dimensions of complexity, criticality and cost. Socio-technical factors are considered in the second stage. Not only will this help towards transparency, but it will also make acceptance by constituents easier. Socio-technical factors pertain to exacerbated accountability dysfunctions that can occur as a consequence of automation. According to Bovens (2005) the major categories of dysfunctions are: Rule-obsession, and Proceduralism. Before manual procedures are automated, it has to be ensured that there are no problems due to such dysfunctions.

Rule-obsession or Output-obsession refers to the focus on outcomes over process. ‘Proceduralism’ refers to increased emphasis on procedures to avoid responsibility and accountability. Strict adherence to procedures can render the bureaucracy to lose the ability to balance procedures with corporate values. Relying heavily on encoded computer procedures can undermine the effectiveness of organizations.

Processes are restructured in the third stage. Automating legacy procedures that afforded plenty of opportunities for inefficiency will not yield results. At this stage, the results of data analytics are used to modify processes (Mills, 2015; Passerini, 2012). The main objective of restructuring various processes before transforming them into digital interactions is to improve the effectiveness as a system. When automated processes result in disintermediation, it is

necessary that the relevant entities are on board with new procedures. After completion of the restructuring stage, we are ready for implementing in the fourth and final stage.

The degree of automation can vary across a wide range. Smith (2010) states a scale of nine degrees of automation starting from the first level where the computer offers no assistance to the ninth level where the computer decides everything. In between these extremes, there are several levels where a varying degree human-computer interaction occurs. The appropriate level of IT intervention depends on the particular interaction that has to be automated.

This framework also provides a means of evaluating extensive (if not comprehensive) series of business process transactions. Depending upon the value of the parameters of the given transaction, we are able to make inferences on the potential of that transaction for potential of IT intervention. This naturally opens up a wide arena of analysis, particularly for others who wish to specialize and focus specifically on the dynamics and characteristics of specific interactions where IT intervention is useful. This approach is effective since it focuses on specific critical processes of small businesses and renders overall improvement.

## **RESEARCH FINDINGS**

In this section, we summarize the results of two business surveys conducted by the U.S. Chamber of Commerce in January 2018. The first survey consisted of a national poll of 1,000 small businesses and 50 state-level polls of 100 small businesses. The second survey was a national consumer poll of more than 5,000 adults on the perceived benefits of digital platforms. Examining the use of digital platforms as a whole in the United States, the national survey finds that the use of digital platforms by small enterprises is ubiquitous:

- 84% of small enterprises are using at least one major digital platform to provide information to customers;
- 80% are using at least one major platform to show products and services, as well as to advertise;
- 79% are using digital tools to communicate with customers and suppliers, and
- 75% are using tech platforms for sales.

The national survey also revealed the importance of digital skills to managers in small businesses when hiring:

- 62% of small businesses surveyed stated that digital and social media skills are an important factor when hiring; a higher proportion reported this as a more important consideration than where a candidate attended school.

Even in a country with nearly universal Internet access, American businesses still view the cost of Internet services as a constraint to building an online presence: 55% reported that the

cost of Internet and connectivity is a challenge. On the skills side, 57% of small businesses surveyed said that lack of familiarity with the digital tools available is a challenge. This finding suggests that even if a business obtains Internet access, it can be hard to know which tools to use. Recruiting skilled employees is a challenge for 61% of small businesses surveyed by the U.S. Chamber of Commerce in January 2018. Even when owners are able to successfully launch their businesses, they still have difficulty finding employees to expand operations.

One advantage to digitization is the ability to buy and sell across borders at a low cost. Of the small businesses surveyed, 27% reported selling goods or services to another country, a substantially higher proportion than the national proportion of U.S. firms that export. Yet, many small businesses are reluctant to trade internationally. When asked whether they think export activity is an important business activity, less than half of respondents stated that they believe that it is important to sell to other countries. Looking only at businesses that do not report exports, 43% said that they do not think there is demand for their goods and services in other countries, and 40% said that international exporting is too expensive.

## **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 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. 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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# **ENTREPRENEURIAL IATROGENESIS: AN EXPLORATIVE VIEW**

OSCAR JAVIER MONTIEL MENDEZ  
Universidad Autonoma de Ciudad Juarez (UACJ)  
Plutarco Elias Calles 1210  
Ciudad Juarez, Chih., Mexico

## **ABSTRACT**

As Baumol (1990) stated, the process of entrepreneurship can be productive or destructive. Different positions have been investigated on this, but none inquire about the Iatrogenesis effects that can result. After an extensive literature review, a conceptualization of Entrepreneurial Iatrogenesis, a novel view, was made. The paper has implications for public policies, educational institutions, and entrepreneurial families.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Various positions have been put forth (Jones & Spicer, 2009) to address or explain behaviors that, under certain contexts, entrepreneurs may commit and, without proper control or management, may be detrimental both to the entrepreneurial project (the nascent or established company) and for himself or his various interest groups or stakeholders called workers, family, or community.

Entrepreneurship literature considers two vertices or two sides of the coin. The white or glossy side has been studied by several authors and highlights the wealth of elements required or suggested to achieve entrepreneurial success or effectiveness; the production of measurable innovation (Baumol, 1990, 2010). Together they contribute to development, job creation, innovation, and knowledge transfer, as well as growth in economies.

Kets De Vries (1985), and from his experience, begins a description of various problems that arise when one company acquires another and where the first decides to keep or incorporate the founder (entrepreneur) in operations. He recommends taking certain precautions before making this step, and due to certain complex and chaotic behaviors that can result. The author acknowledges not only seeing the negative side that can originate from these behaviors but, treated constructively, might be construed as an advantage.

Other problems involving personality or “character” (mental abilities, moral or values-based capabilities) are noted by McMullan (1996). He provides detail of his own experiences as an entrepreneur, where anxiety and pressure to make sales and not defraud investors or friends, can require a large toll on personal lives (in line with Schjoedt, 2013, and Ufuk & Ozgen, 2001).

Wright & Zahra (2011) took up the issue and called for an inquiry and consideration of the dysfunctional effects that entrepreneurship may have on society. Lately, there is a nascent interest in Iatrogenesis, applying this concept to organizational theory (Meckler & Boal, 2020), but applying it with a strong focus on the decision-making process.

## ENTREPRENEURIAL IATROGENESIS

Illich (1976) introduces in the social sciences the term Iatrogenesis, those negative effects that the exercise and institutionalization of modern medicine produce on people and society. He classifies it into three different types, clearly distinguishable by the nature of the effects and the causal levels involved: Clinical, Social, and Cultural.

It is a term from the Greek *iatros* (doctor), which describes all the negative changes in the state of patients generated by the action of doctors. Therefore, it refers to all those consequences, unintended, caused by the behavior of doctors, or health personnel in general, in their intention to diagnose and cure or rehabilitate a condition.

Illich suggests that a crisis of confidence looms in modern medicine, suggesting that organized people are required for political action that challenges the power based on the *status quo* of the health professions, determined to further expand their monopoly, especially in Western societies, and that it has expanded without restraint and has restricted our freedom concerning our own body, thus causing a series of negative effects not only on individuals but also on society and culture.

Regarding entrepreneurship, it is suggested that a crisis of trust and empathy looms over us towards owning our own business, since in universities the graduate is generally biased to work for someone else. Likewise, this strong influence, a *status quo* sold by government institutions, restricting our freedom concerning our interest, creativity, and innovation, by assuming entrepreneurship only as business creation and not as a professional vision (intrapreneurship) or life, thereby causing a series of negative effects not only on individuals but also on society and culture.

Illich suggests that iatrogenesis cannot be understood unless it is viewed as the specific medical manifestation of counterproductivity. A negative social indicator of a diseconomy that remains locked in the system that produces it is an undesired effect of the growth of institutional production inherent in the system itself that originated the specific value. For example, the generated costs on society, when you sell the dream of being an entrepreneur, independent, and reality shows an ecosystem that not this prepared with the tools necessary to encourage, facilitate starting, let alone follow them to these new startups, and when it does not happen, it generates company closures and high personal costs, both financial and psychological, as well as social).

Entrepreneurial Iatrogenesis can be defined as the undesirable and unintended genesis of qualitatively and quantitative different issues that arise extreme conflicts (Moscovici & Doise, 1994) due to miscalculations generated by the entrepreneurial personality, misguided intervention strategies due to changes in the entrepreneur's values or behaviors, or misinterpretation of significant context data related to its business, that can seriously compromise the viability of the entrepreneurial project or mispurpose of what entrepreneurship is about (institutional vision)

## **Cultural Entrepreneurial Iatrogenesis**

According to Illich (1976), the culture iatrogenesis occurs when people accept the manipulation of the planned health from a mechanical model, a conspiracy to produce a "better health" as a commodity. Thus, applied to entrepreneurship, the cultural iatrogenesis of entrepreneurship would occur when the population accepts the manipulation of the creation of companies based on an ethnocentric model when it is conspired to produce something called "entrepreneurs" as if it were an article of consumption. An expropriation of their cultural beliefs regarding health, disease, pain, and death. Medicine as a dominant moral enterprise.

In entrepreneurship, the creation of companies is advertised as that product of an industrial expansion where constant and incessant growth is the maximum value. The panacea of a war against all suffering and poverty. The measure of success.

## **Clinical Iatrogenesis**

Referring to the negative effects such as complications or illnesses, produced by the clinical intervention of the doctor on the patient, in entrepreneurship are those psychological problems (personality disorders, failure, self-esteem) that an entrepreneur reaches or may have as a result of his business intervention, and for seeking to transcend. The placebo or nocebo effect, the influence of entrepreneurship will have on the individual.

## **Social Iatrogenesis**

Illich does not hesitate to point out that medicine is a moral undertaking, which gives content to good and evil and, like law and religion, defines what is normal, proper, or desirable. Decide what is a symptom and who is sick. Therefore, he says that the doctor is a moral entrepreneur.

The social iatrogenesis alludes to how medicine produces a society that encourages people to consume more and more medicine. Its practice fosters the ailments of the people reinforcing the result of a sick society. Medical damage to individual health is produced by a socio-political mode of transmission, all health injuries due to socioeconomic transformations that have been made attractive, possible, or necessary by the institutional form that health care has acquired, multiplying the dependence, new and painful needs, lowering levels of tolerance to discomfort or pain.

These transformations that entrepreneurship originates in the individual are not a minor thing, problems of both success (ego, arrogance) and failure (self-esteem, frustration, problems with their close circle of friends or family). A medicalization of entrepreneurship and of (supposedly) must be its last end. Grow incessantly. A company, not as a vision of professional or personal life.

## CONCLUSIONS

The analysis of literature showed a relatively small amount of work on the subject; and on the other hand, no knowledge of any other paper captures and structures the different positions under the entrepreneurial iatrogenesis has been found. The present paper has the goal to fill that gap, an original view.

The present paper proposes a conceptual model that suggests having the potential to state an initial point to systematize under a common notion of diverse findings on entrepreneurship, with diverse theoretical, analytical, and empirical implications.

All the elements of the so call entrepreneurial ecosystem might look closely at the dysfunctional effects that these activities can entail when trying to create value on social, economic, regulatory, technological, and natural environments, precisely to keep the economic and social value from eroding.

It is suggested that future research should use a systemic approach, which appears to be the most appropriate way to start questioning and exploring the different entrepreneurial contexts that will allow for a precise definition of the entrepreneurial iatrogenesis, and the various faces or sides it might have. Also, the context dimension requires more development related to their dysfunctional effects, and it would be interesting in-depth research on how specifically the entrepreneur side dimensions would potentially match or interact with the context side dimensions, and therefore provoke a possible iatrogenesis, public policies that can be built so business incubation entities such as universities, and diverse federal, state and local entrepreneurship programs and entrepreneurs as well can become more aware and prevent it to appear in any stage of the entrepreneurship process.

The use of a macro-level perspective for discussing the ideological basis for entrepreneurship in capitalist economies, and with a focus on how past definitions of entrepreneurs served the ideology of capitalism, shows how shifts in definitions of entrepreneurship reflect the nature of markets as well as efforts to humanize capitalism.

A call is made to research this proposal on other areas, such as venture creation, innovation, and creativity, and especially to the family business.

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# **COPING WITH ECONOMIC JOLTS THROUGH ENTREPRENEURIAL RESILIENCY**

LAURAN FULLER  
Gupta College of Business  
University of Dallas  
Dallas, TX

## **INTRODUCTION**

In the midst of the COVID-19 pandemic of 2020, entrepreneurs are rapidly adjusting strategies as local governance produce a roller coaster of mandates. How these organizations choose to respond is vital to the survival of the organization. Entrepreneurs can choose to stay the course and roll with the punches, or respond with creativity and change. Such mobilization is a reflection of entrepreneurial resiliency. Entrepreneurial resiliency shapes the organizational strategy needed to rebound from environmental jolts, such as COVID-19 shutdowns.

Various factors play into how entrepreneurs respond to environmental jolts including emotional elements, such as positivity. Positive emotions are the dominant contributor to psychological resiliency (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004; Tugade, Fredrickson, & Feldman Barrett, 2004; Chadwick and Raver, 2020). Positive emotions are thought to open an individual's thinking to widen assessments of the environment and proactively develop and improve the business accordingly. This builds on the broaden-and-build theory developed by Fredrickson (2001) which focuses on the importance of positive emotions. These positive emotions are able to develop psychological resiliency (Chadwick and Raver, 2020).

Current literature promotes the relationship between positive emotions and resiliency, however in the entrepreneurship field, this has only been applied new start-ups (Chadwick and Ravens, 2020). The entrepreneurial field has only recently embraced the broaden-and-build theory and its applications. Chadwick and Ravens (2020), specifically called for further research pertaining to the foundations of business survival through psychological cognition of entrepreneurs. The concept of psychological resources has been greatly overlooked and left a significant gap in the literature.

We specifically explore the positive emotion and entrepreneur resiliency relationship with the moderating effects of COVID-19 because resiliency may prompt positive outcomes for entrepreneurs in the event of future environmental jolts. A mixed methods study focused on surveys in conjunction with in-depth interviews with entrepreneurs of small businesses will shed light on the adaption to the environmental jolt. This will contribute to the current literature by illuminating if the broaden-and build theory can be applied to, and hold true for other types of resiliency, such as entrepreneurial resiliency. Therefore the research question is, how does entrepreneurial resiliency help entrepreneurs cope with the challenges of COVID-19 shutdowns? This is important because at the level of uncertainty the current economy is

experiencing, entrepreneurs can benefit from building resiliency that could aid in withstanding future unrest in the external environment.

In order to address the literature gap, the current research has been organized to offer an overview of the concepts of entrepreneurial resilience, positive emotions, economic jolts, and the broaden and build theory. The methods section follows, including a preface of the sample, data collection, and data analysis in order to test the connection between positive emotions and entrepreneurial resiliency. Finally, the limitations and ethics will be discussed, rounded out by a short discussion of the proposed research. This study will contribute to the literature by linking the broaden and build theory to entrepreneurial resiliency, applying it to existing entrepreneurial businesses (not start-ups), and create a discussion on the depth of positivity necessary for resiliency.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **Entrepreneurial Resilience**

Entrepreneurial resiliency is the capability of entrepreneurs to maneuver through various resources in a manner that preserves success and resources for continued use (Hedner, Abouzeedan and Klofsten, 2011). According to Lee and Wang (2017), various factors play into entrepreneurial resilience including intrapersonal factors, interpersonal factors, and contextual factors. Within these factors self-efficacy is the highest reported determinant and flexibility is noted as being “particularly effective in the face of threats” (Lee and Wang, 2017, p. 527). Furthermore, resiliency is also affected by enablers and inhibitors that must offset the dynamic interactions at play (Lee and Wang, 2017). As complex as the trait of resiliency may be, in this study we will focus on psychological resilience as an entrepreneurial resource.

Highlighting the psychological view of resilience within entrepreneurs, Chadwick and Raver (2020) argue that positive emotions form the foundation of entrepreneurial resiliency. One of the first studies linking resilience with positive emotions was Tugade & Fredrickson (2004), stating that “resilient individuals have optimistic, zestful, and energetic approaches to life, are curious and open to new experiences, and are characterized by high positive emotionality” (pg. 320). The focus is building personal resources through the development of psychological resilience formed through positive emotions. Ultimately, entrepreneurial resiliency is “learning how to balance multiple competing forces and leveraging them to their benefits” while handling challenges (Lee and Wang, 2017, pg. 532).

### **Positive Emotions**

Emotions are considered “multicomponent response tendencies that unfold over relatively short time spans,” (Fredrickson, 2001, p. 218) simply put emotions are a general class of affective phenomena. Positive emotions thus being moments void of negative emotions such as anxiety, sadness, anger, and despair that can range from high activation of joy or low activation of contentment (Fredrickson, 2001). Fredrickson (2001), perceives positive emotions as fleeting pleasure that takes place through immediate responses to meaningful occurrences.

Positive emotions are shown to produce positive outcomes through enhanced coping mechanisms (Tugade and Fredrickson, 2004). According to Fredrickson (2001), “positive emotions broaden the scopes of attention and cognition, enabling flexible and creative thinking, they should also augment people's enduring coping resources” (pg. 223). Three variations of coping have been identified that increase positive emotions in the mist of crises: positive reappraisal, problem-focused coping, and the infusion of ordinary events with positive meaning (Folkman and Moskowitz, 2000; Fredrickson, 2001). For an entrepreneur, positive emotionality means that “cognitive appraisals of their circumstances must reflect a belief that it is desirable and feasible to overcome obstacles” (Chadwick and Raver, 2020, p. 236). This positivity spurs an entrepreneur to be proactive in their business adjusting and innovating in order to adapt to the changing environment (Chadwick and Raver, 2020).

### **Environmental Jolt**

An environmental jolt, which Meyer (1982) defines as “transient perturbations whose occurrences are difficult to foresee and whose impacts on organizations are disruptive and potentially inimical,” (p. 515) are known for drastically changing the existing industry dynamic (Toa, Jiang, and Santoro 2015). Environmental jolts can be considered a crisis, in which a new set of opportunities arise and organizations that recognize this will greatly benefit (Bruton, Ahlstrom, and Wan, 2003). "The Chinese symbol for crisis combines two simpler symbols, the symbol for danger and the one for opportunity. Crises are times of danger, but they are also times of opportunity" (Starbuck, Greve, and Hedberg, 1978, p. 135). In order to take advantage of an environmental jolt, entrepreneurs must recognize the changing opportunities and alter strategies as needed (Wan and Yiu, 2009). An organization's fit between the strategy and environment determines success, which can hinge on the flexibility of the strategy in response to environmental jolts (Toa, Jiang, and Santoro 2015). Such flexibility and creativity are thought to be outcomes of the broaden-and-build theory (Conway, Tugade, Catalino, and Fredrickson, 2013) in which entrepreneurs can utilize for business success in the face of the economic jolt of COVID-19.

### **BROADEN AND BUILD THEORY**

The broaden-and-build theory was conceptualized by Fredrickson (1998, 2001) to encompass the idea that positive emotions can open an individual up to new perspectives and notions that could then lay the foundation for growth. This theory contests that this ability of broaden-and-build through positive emotions fosters psychological resilience (Fredrickson, 2001). Chadwick and Raver (2020) incorporated the broaden and build theory and positive emotions by “asserting that entrepreneurs who draw upon their psychological resilience as a personal resource will (a) broaden their cognitive appraisals such that stressors are seen as challenges that can be overcome, (b) build their business more proactively, and thus (c) stay in business over time” (pg. 234). Thus, the broaden and build theory explains how broadening the thought-action tendencies and building self expansion creates personal resources that induce resiliency.

Infusing every day events with positive emotions allows individuals to cope with the stress of change and view obstacles as surmountable. The broaden-and-build theory suggests that positive emotions “impact cognitive change is a broadened and expansive scope of attention” (Conway, Tugade, Catalino, and Fredrickson, 2013, pg. 2). This allows individuals to widen their perspective and attention to comprehend options that require creativity and flexibility. Positive emotions broaden “thought-action” propensities and increase problem-solving capabilities (Conway et al., 2013). Amazingly, these processes may actually lead to lasting effects on the brain, training it to handle new activity and think abstractly (Luthans, Vogelgesand, and Lester, 2006; Conway et al., 2013). Such motivation can cause individuals to engage with the environment through exploration (Fredrickson, 2001). Therefore, positive emotions aid in broadening an individual’s perspective.

Within the field of positive organizational behaviors, resiliency is determined to be a state-like construct in which can be developed. Fredrickson (2001) goes as far as to label this as a personal resource, something that can be harnessed and utilized. The broaden-and build theory characterizes these individuals as emotionally intelligent and proactively improve the organization through intuition (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004; Chadwick and Raver, 2020). This ultimately builds psychological resources, beyond the typical physical, intellectual, and social resources typically studied. This resource can foster the growth of coping resources and enable efficiency moving forward, enabling success. The resiliency built through positive emotions therefore builds the personal resources to cope with stressful events.

## **Hypothesis 1**

Positive emotions have clearly been link to psychological resiliency, but entrepreneurial resiliency is quite unique. Research has shown positive emotions as a key ingredient that may reinforce or strengthen resiliency (Luthans, Vogelgesang, and Lester, 2006). This psychological resilience is enhanced by accepting change and viewing crises as hurdles, not road blocks (Hedner et al. 2011). Such perspective can be traced back to a positive outlook that allows entrepreneurs to respond to the environment in a way that advances well-being and shields against being sued by looming risk factors (Hedner et al. 2011). Linking positive emotions to entrepreneurial resiliency is an important first step in which further research can be built.

Applying the broaden-and-build theory to entrepreneurial resiliency will show how the theory lends itself to specific types of resilience, in which can be utilized in various fields. Confirming the relationship between positive emotions and entrepreneurial resiliency will form the foundation for further applications of the broaden-and-build theory within entrepreneurship. This would allow the expansion of research on personal resources within entrepreneurship. Hence, it is believed that the higher the level of positive emotions exhibited, or more positive moments experienced, by an entrepreneur, the higher the level of entrepreneurial resiliency.

*Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between positive emotions and entrepreneurial resiliency.*

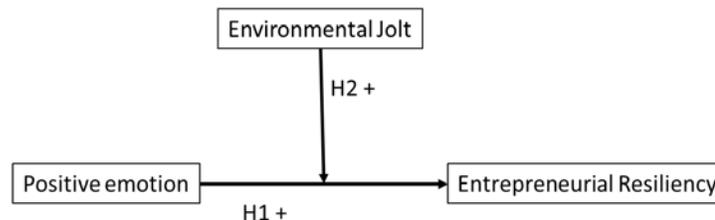
## Hypothesis 2

During periods of economic jolts, such as the COVID-19 pandemic of 2020, high levels of entrepreneurial resiliency are necessary for small businesses to withstand such a shock. In this study we seek to specifically apply the relationship of positive emotions to entrepreneurial resiliency particularly during challenging time frames. If the broaden-and-build theory is of particular use during stressful situations, the COVID-19 pandemic is a prime target. Although resiliency has shown to be strengthened during uncertain times (Lengnick-Hall and Beck, 2009), the effects of positive emotions have not been analyzed in this sphere. Studying how entrepreneurs cope with such a trying event could prove detrimental for establishing resiliency in future jolts.

If resiliency increases with uncertainty, it is logical that this upswing could be a trickle down effect from the antecedents, in this case positive emotions. Determining the source of the uptick could be groundbreaking across psychological resiliency. Placing an environmental jolt as a moderator in the model would illuminate how highly stressful circumstances can utilize positive emotions to increase resiliency. With increased positive emotions entrepreneurs refuse to view crises as insurmountable, which is heightened during uncertain times that is being extended to economic jolts, such as the COVID-19 pandemic.

*Hypothesis 2: The relationship between positive emotions and entrepreneurial resiliency will be stronger during periods of environmental jolts.*

Figure 1



## METHODS

In order to provide a thorough examination of entrepreneur resiliency and the antecedent of positive emotions, the research question calls for a mixed methods study. To fully develop the exploration of positive emotions, both surveys and in-depth interviews will be utilized. The research question looks to affirm the connection between positive emotions and entrepreneurial resiliency, specifically in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic. In order to measure these relationships an analysis of quantitative data is needed, and to both validate and expound upon

the survey through depth of emotion, qualitative data is necessary. The expansion of the effects of a positive mindset versus a negative, or fearful, mentality will offer more insight into the depth of emotions on resiliency. Examining the depth through frequency and innate reactions will show how deep the connection between positive emotions and resiliency is. The data will allow a glimpse into the noted relationship that will also require the remainder of the design to be constructed to align accordingly.

A self-report survey will be used and will include validated measures for positive emotions and psychological resilience. Fredrickson's adaptation of the Differential Emotions Scale (DES) scale, that includes eight additional discrete positive emotions, mDES (Fredrickson, Tugade, Waugh, and Larkin, 2003), will be used to measure positive emotions. The Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC; Connor and Davidson, 2003) will be used to measure one's ability to cope with and recover from stress. The in-depth interviews will be guided by a structured questionnaire to direct the interview to discuss the collection of moments that determine the frequency and duration of positive emotions and markers of resiliency.

## **DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

Upon completion of this research, I anticipate to find a strong correlation between positive emotions and entrepreneurial resiliency. This finding will urge entrepreneurs to value psychological resources along with physical, intellectual, and social resources. The relationship between positive emotions and resiliency gives way to personal development that could potentially have a direct effect upon small businesses. The effects of resiliency could lead to more than simply coping with environmental jolts but also helping to "balance multiple competing forces and leveraging them to their benefits" (*Lee and Wang, 2017, pg. 532*).

## **CONCLUSION**

According to Tugade and Fredrickson (2004), positive emotionality is an essential component of psychological resilience. This positive emotionality contributes to entrepreneurial resiliency as presented by the broaden-and-build theory. Positive emotions such as joy, interest, contentment, pride, and love are characterized in the broaden-and-build theory by Fredrickson (2001). These emotions are shown to build an entrepreneur's personal resources that will "(a) broaden their cognitive appraisals such that stressors are seen as challenges that can be overcome, (b) build their business more proactively, and thus (c) stay in business over time" (Chadwick and Raver, 2020, p. 234). This could also serve as a guiding theory for developing entrepreneurial resilience as called for by Lee and Wang (2017). Building on this connection will allow future research on the effects of personal resources in entrepreneurship and outcomes of entrepreneurial resiliency. Further research may also include a more in depth qualitative study into the strength of positive emotions in connection to resiliency.

## **REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHOR**

# **AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VOICE, TRUST AND EMPLOYEE READINESS TO CHANGE**

SONIA J. GONZALEZ  
Wayland Baptist University  
Plainview, Texas

SAMANTHA R. MURRAY  
Wayland Baptist University

JANET S. JONES  
Wayland Baptist University

## **INTRODUCTION**

There is a plethora of research available concerning change, yet organizations often are not successful at implementing organizational change (Mardhatillah et al., 2017). In order to implement successful change, organizational members need to possess a readiness for change. Change readiness is defined as an employee readiness to support and invest in change which he believes is worthy (Armenakis et al., 1993). Thus, individuals would need to have a positive feeling toward change initiatives, which might lead to cognitive readiness for change and behavioral change (Pierce et al., 1989). Two variables that might affect readiness to change include voice and trust. The purpose of this quantitative research is to investigate the impact voice and trust have on organizational members' readiness to change. Specifically, this research will empirically test the relationships that may exist between voice and readiness to change, between trust and readiness to change, and between voice and trust.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

Organizational change cannot be avoided, especially during such an uncertain environment. Thus, it is important to understand how to increase employee change readiness. Specifically, voice and trust will be discussed as possible variables that might correlate with change readiness.

### **Organizational Change**

Organizational change involves specific actions taken by the organization to transform internal structure in response to working conditions and the need to survive and progress in a dynamic setting (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999). Accomplishing change is necessary to bring to fruition the desired transformation while improving the future direction of the organization (Rodat, 2018). Unfortunately, only about 50% of organizational change is successful (Etschmaier, 2010). Successful organizational change is dependent upon organizational members

accepting change and implementing the change correctly. Therefore, employees must have a significant degree of change readiness.

### **Change Readiness**

Researchers have devoted considerable effort to understand the factors that may increase the likelihood of the successful implementation of change. It has been speculated that change initiatives fail because those leading change have underestimated the influential role organizational members' attitudes play in determining change outcomes (Choi, 2011). Therefore, the success of any organizational change is contingent on the acceptance and establishment of the changes being implemented (Barnett & Carroll, 1995). One variable that measures the willingness to accept change that has recently gained attention in the literature is change readiness.

Employees need to demonstrate significant readiness for change for organizational change to be successful. Employee readiness for change is defined by the employee's positive feelings, positive thinking, and positive attitude toward change initiatives (Pierce et al., 1989). Organizations should be aware of the commitment level of employees to any change, because if there is not a significant commitment level present, it is possible that change might fail (Mardhatillah et al., 2017). Choi (2011) discusses the organizational member's attitude, commitment and readiness to change and argues that when employees observe the organization fully supporting changes, their attitudes improve as well.

Communicating desired organizational changes is necessary for successful implementation of such changes. The more information provided to organizational members concerning change, the more likely they are to feel good about the change (Cunningham et al., 2002). In order to have a readiness for change, employees need to understand the benefits of change to them personally (Cole et al., 2006). Therefore, communicating impending change is necessary for organizational members to understand the significance to both organizational successes, as well as individual success (Choi, 2011).

A key element in improving employee readiness within the organization is for employees to be a part of identifying the change, which provides a sense of control over the changes that directly impact their work (Davis, 2013). Including and engaging people at all levels of an organization provides an exceptional element to change because contributions are unique to the various knowledge and experiences of the people within the organization. When organizational members are provided an opportunity to have an active approach in problem solving and designing organizational change, self-efficacy and readiness for change both increase.

### **Voice**

A voice is an expression of one's values and manner of thinking and has the ability to generate a ripple of effects producing innovative ideas and building an environment to share the ideas (Gilman et al., 2015). The employee voice might have significant outcomes for both the organization and the individual. For example, organizations could possibly benefit from a culture of voice by participative decision making and participative learning (Burriss et al., 2013)

which give people a voice (Conway et al., 2014). However, other research reveals that participative environments do not increase productivity but do increase morale (Powell & Schlachter, 1971) and increase relationships (Morrison et al., 2011). Additionally, expressing a voice might benefit individually by increasing felt control (Morrison et al., 2015) increasing job attitudes (Fast, Burris & Bartel, 2014), decreasing stress (Morrison et al., 2015) and increasing performance (Burris et al., 2013). Likewise, several contextual variables are affected by the presence of voice. For example, perceived power influences the degree of voice expressed. The less perceived power the more silence there will be from employees (Morrison et al., 2015; Frazier & Fainshmidt, 2012). The higher the individual self-esteem the more likely the individual will express opinions (LePine & Dyne, 1998).

*Importance of Voice in Defining Change.* The ultimate purpose of voice is to eliminate employee dissatisfaction and to improve business performance (Mowbray et al., 2015). Communication is key to implementing successful organizational change. Creating a voice climate will influence change acceptance because it allows for supportive voicers to voluntarily speak and endorse or defend organizational procedures or work processes because they are comfortable with effectiveness of the change. When using voice as a tool to promote successful organizational change, voice serves two vital purposes. First, allowing employees to have a voice in organizational matters expands ideas and creativity and increases the overall organizational knowledge. Second, allowing for a voice in organizations improves the attitude toward change itself.

*Listening to Voice.* In order for a voice to be effective it must be heard by those in authority leading changes (Burris et al., 2013). When voices are not listened to it sends a message that the ideas expressed or the organizational member is not valued (Detert et al., 2013; Lloyd et al., 2015). Organizational leadership is primarily responsible for cultivating a climate that is conducive to valuing employees' voices (Morrison et al., 2011). If employees feel their leadership is not receptive, the consideration of speaking up becomes risky and futile to their employment or ability to advance in the workforce (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Unfortunately, when employees deliberately do not voice potentially important suggestions or concerns from those who may be able to act on that information, it can have serious implications in hindering organizational change and severe circumstances to organizational performance (Morrison et al., 2015). Research has shown that employees have a fear of voicing issues and problems at work which contributes to a host of detrimental outcomes including weak performance, low employee moral, and a stagnant organization (Morrison et al., 2015). Therefore, when change is implemented without listening to employees' voice it produces a rippled effect of decreased value and decreased control in the work environment, thus impacting the employees' trust.

## **Trust**

“Trust is a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intention or behavior of another” (Rousseau et al., 1998, p. 395). An atmosphere of mistrust augments isolation alienation, self-interest, and self-preservation. Consequently, mistrust limits action and undermines cooperation and organized action. Trust is increasingly being viewed as being essential to organizational success (Caldwell, 2012). Studies have shown that employees evaluate trust on four key qualities which are integrity, competence, consistency/fairness, and openness (Clark & Payne, 1997). Additionally, trust is the perception of

an employee related to organizational support, and the belief that the leader will tell the truth and keep his promises (Mishra & Morrissey, 1990). Organizational trust increases when employees believe that organizational commitments and behaviors are consistent when environmental uncertainty increases (Demircan & Ceylan, 2003). Two dimensions of trust have been identified in the literature which are cognitive trust and affective trust (Lewis, 1999). Cognitive trust means that trustable behaviors should be consistent with personal ideals (Tuzun, 2006). Whereas cognitive trust is more logical and based on information, affective trust is composed of emotional bonds between people (Lewis, 1999) and these emotional bonds that link people provide the basis for trust (McAllister, 1995). Affective trust increases as individuals make emotional investments in trust relations, express concern and care for other people and consider these feelings are reciprocated (McAllister, 1995).

Chughai et al. (2015) suggest trust in the organization is widely acknowledged as a foundational ingredient of organizational change and effectiveness. The faith between employees and leadership (i.e., trust) is an important attitudinal factor that can have an influence on change readiness (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006). Trust in organizational leaders can act as a catalyst for an employee's positive attitudes toward organizational change (Shah, 2014; Samaranayake & Takemura, 2017). The stronger the trust relationship, the more success of desirable outcomes to changes, such as employees being more inclined to exchange ideas and knowledge to improve organizational performance (Renzel, 2008).

However, if organizations do not seek to hear the voice of organizational members and see them as only followers, this lack of recognition of employee experience and depth of knowledge may damage trust between employer and employee. As a result, employees may reject the change. This could lead to failure of the proposed change and such failure would result from the lack of trust and cooperation between organizational members (Soparnot, 2011). Ultimately, allowing the organizational members to have a voice in identifying what needs to be changed and actively partake in organizational change sustains and strengthens trust and provides work engagement which contributes to achievement of the desired organizational changes.

### **The Relationships between Voice, Trust and Change Readiness**

Current models of organizational change seek to not only determine the reasons why change occurs, but also the consequences of change. However, little research investigates how to increase the success of organizational change based on a process. This research will specifically concentrate on how having a voice climate will affect trust between leaders and employees which will increase the likelihood of change readiness.

Employee involvement and communication have been noted to have a positive effect on change readiness and trust (Kodish, 2017). Communication that contains more information is directly correlated with trust (Gilbert & Tang, 1998). Additionally, trust is increased when communication allows for an individual to express concern, participate in open communication, share feelings, share critical information (Korsgaard et al., 2002). Therefore, promoting voice within organizations will likely lead to an increase in trust and change readiness.

## HYPOTHESES

Based on research related to organizational members' voice, trust and readiness to change, this paper proposes the following research hypotheses:

*Hypothesis 1: An organizational member's perceived voice will be positively correlated with the organizational member's readiness to change.*

*Hypotheses 2: An organizational member's trust will be positively correlated with the organizational member's readiness to change.*

*Hypotheses 3: An organizational member's perceived voice will be positively correlated with the employee's trust of organization management.*

## METHODOLOGY

### Population and Sample

The population for this study consisted of active first responders (i.e., law enforcement officers, firefighters, emergency medical technicians and emergency operation center employees) in the city of Fort Worth, Texas. The population included 1700 police officers, 900 firefighters, and 800 emergency medical technicians (EMT's) and members of the Emergency Operations Center (EOC), for a total of 3400 city employees.

### Research Instrument

The research instrument used in this study is comprised of six sections that measure solicitation of voice, voice behavior, trust in peers and management, change readiness, and organizational trust. The survey consists of a total of 37 questions. The first section of the questionnaire collects data to measure the perceived solicitation of voice. This section is comprised of four questions. The survey questions are based on a 5-point Likert scale with answers ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Always) (Fast et al., 2014). The second section of the questionnaire collects data to assess the employee's voice behavior. This was used to determine if the first responder offers or expresses input to management. This section is comprised of three questions and is based on a 5-point Likert scale with answers ranging from 1 (Almost never) to 5 (Almost always) (Fast et al., 2014). The third section of the questionnaire collects data concerning trust in peers and management, which was used to determine if trust is present among peers and management. The five questions are in a 5-point Likert scale ranging (1: strongly disagree to 5: strongly agree) (Samaranayake & Toshihiko, 2017). The fourth section of the questionnaire collects data to measure employee readiness. The nine questions are in a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5, (1: strongly disagree to 5: do not agree at all) (Samaranayake & Toshihiko, 2017). The fifth section of the questionnaire measures organizational trust and consists of twelve questions, each rated on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree) (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996). The sixth section of the questionnaire collects biographical data, such as gender, age, race, marital status, occupation, years of experience as a first responder, and the highest level of education obtained.

## Data Collection Process

The password-protected document that included the cover letter, research instrument, and consent form was distributed via SurveyMonkey to the entire population of first responders (i.e., law enforcement officers, firefighters, emergency medical technicians and emergency operation center employees) in the city of Fort Worth, Texas. A total of 139 emergency responders voluntarily completed the research survey. The cut off for responses was two weeks.

## RESULTS

Spearman's Rho was run on the data to test the hypothesized relationships. The results of this study showed that only hypothesis 3 was statistically supported. Both hypotheses 1 and 2 were not statistically supported. Hypothesis 1 stated that an organizational member's perceived voice will be positively correlated with the organizational member's readiness to change. Results show there is no statistically significant correlation between voice and readiness,  $r_s(137) = .039$ ,  $p = .65$ . Therefore, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected and no relationship was found between an organizational member's voice and an organizational member's readiness to change. Hypothesis 2 stated that an organizational member's trust will be positively correlated with the organizational member's readiness to change. There was no statistically significant correlation between voice and readiness to change,  $r_s(137) = .154$ ,  $p = .070$ . The relationship between trust and readiness to change for first responders was not statistically significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected and there is no relationship found between an organizational member's trust and an organizational member's readiness to change. Hypothesis 3 stated that an organizational member's perceived voice will be positively correlated with the employee's trust of organization management. There was a statistically significant moderate, positive correlation between trust and voice,  $r_s(137) = .477$ ,  $p < .000$ . Because there is a statistically significant relationship between trust and voice for first responders, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted. Therefore, there is a relationship between an organizational member's voice and an organizational member's trust of the organization.

## DISCUSSION

People work in a changing and unpredictable environment which demands resilience and adaptability to change. A willingness to change is essential, particularly during times of transformation. Previous research stated that by communicating with others and building a relationship, uneasiness is eliminated and common knowledge and predictability are increased, which therefore increases trust (Shapiro et al., 1992). Including and listening to the employee voice would be valuable in developing change readiness. Likewise, it is essential for organizational members to place trust in organizational leaders because they are mutually dependent on each other's actions and effectiveness. (Sweeney et al., 2009). How organizational change is conducted greatly affects relationships and the level of trust. The stronger the trust relationship the more successful the desirable outcomes to changes, such as the employee's willingness to voice knowledge to improve organizational performance (Renzel, 2008).

The Fort Worth first responders were the sample for this study (i.e., fire fighters, police department, emergency operation response team, and emergency medical technicians). A total of 139 first responders voluntarily completed the on-line survey, which was available through SurveyMonkey. The results of this study revealed support for one of the three hypotheses. Specifically, only the relationship between organizational voice and trust showed a positive, moderate correlation. Further, the results showed no correlation between voice and readiness to change or trust and readiness to change.

Several limitations exist including the fact that the percent of respondents were low. Also, all respondents came from the same city, which might have affected the results. Also, a great percentage of the respondents were men. Future research might investigate these relationships further with a different population.

#### **REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS**

# **MIXED SIGNALS: A SHARED LEADERSHIP PERSPECTIVE ON THE CONSEQUENCES OF AN INCONSISTENT FORMAL LEADER**

PETER ANZOLLITTO

Brint Ryan College of Business  
University of North Texas, TX

DANIELLE COOPER

Brint Ryan College of Business  
University of North Texas, TX

VIRGINIE LOPEZ-KIDWELL

Brint Ryan College of Business  
University of North Texas, TX

ELISABETH STRUCKELL

Cameron School of Business  
University of North Carolina at Wilmington, NC

## **ABSTRACT**

We introduce the construct of inconsistent leadership sharing (ILS) to capture the extent to which a formal leader sends inconsistent verbal and behavioral messages (e.g., claims and grants of leadership) to individual team members regarding their role in a team's leadership. Building on adaptive leadership theory through uncertainty management theory, we predict a negative relationship between ILS and team performance that is serially mediated by shared leadership and team efficacy. Specifically, higher ILS from the formal leader will lead to less shared leadership as assessed by a team, which in turn leads to lower team self-efficacy and, ultimately, to lower team performance. We developed a measure of ILS, validated it through a multi-phase process, and conducted a study of 63 teams to test the proposed model. Results indicate that ILS significantly and negatively influences team performance through the serial mediation of shared leadership and team efficacy. Theoretical and managerial implications are discussed.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Organizations increasingly use teams to maximize a host of benefits (Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, & Gilson, 2008), not the least of which is harnessing the power of shared leadership (Wang, Waldman, & Zhang, 2014). Shared leadership is a mutual influence process among team members in which multiple individuals contribute to the leadership of the team (Zhu, Liao, Yam, & Johnson, 2018). As evidence highlighting the strong link between shared leadership and performance continues to accumulate (D'Innocenzo, Mathieu, & Kukenberger, 2016), practitioners increasingly incorporate it into work design (Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2010). In corporations, governments, and educational institutions, hierarchical structures are giving way to those that are leaner, flatter and more agile, a change characterized by stable and parsimonious

executive teams and a network of empowered cross-functional teams (Aghina et al., 2018; Deloitte, 2019). In the past three years, eighty-three percent of S&P 500 executives surveyed by McKinsey & Company reported such organizational redesign, hypothetically fostering shared leadership (Visser & Di Leo, 2018). Yet, many teams are still directed by a single assigned formal leader who is often seen as crucial to fostering team success (Morgeson et al., 2010). Despite the substantial extant research on teams and shared leadership (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Serban & Roberts, 2016), the way formal leaders influence a group's shared leadership processes is not well understood (Hernandez, Eberly, Avolio, & Johnson, 2011). Thus, we examine the role of formal leaders in fostering or hindering shared leadership in teams, answering calls to gain a better understanding of the role of a formal leader in the shared leadership process (Hernandez et al., 2011).

The role of formal leaders has evolved over the past decade to meet structural organizational shifts influenced by an emphasis on shared leadership (Cuddy, Glick, & Beninger, 2011). Many formal leaders may be ill-equipped to meet the competing demands of work expectations influenced by the prevalence of a shared leadership mindset. Organizations expect formal leaders to demonstrate competence and efficacy, influence their environment, and deliver results, all while including subordinates in the leadership process (Cuddy et al., 2011). Thus, formal leaders face a tension between competing pressures to effectively include other team members in the leadership process while also asserting themselves as effective leaders. For example, a formal sales team's leader may wish to invite a knowledgeable team member to lead on issues with a particular product group, but may be concerned that this action will be interpreted as the leader's inability to manage those problems. A similar balancing act has been observed in the context of leader status and empowerment. High status leaders often struggle with team empowerment due to the inherent identity threat of transferring responsibilities to others (Stewart, Astrove, Reeves, Crawford, & Solimeo, 2017). For many team leaders, regardless of their level of experience, sharing leadership is a complex endeavor that they are frequently under-prepared to attempt (Friedrich, Griffith, & Mumford, 2016).

When leaders are faced with competing pressures, they often respond with inconsistent behaviors as they attempt to satisfy multiple demands (Simons, 2002). The formal leader attempting to share leadership and achieve good results while demonstrating their own leadership ability is no exception. For example, a sales team leader may invite a team member to lead, take over while that person is giving directives to the team two weeks later, then expect the same person to make the final decision on a client issue the following month. Such mixed signals are likely to be perceived as inconsistent leadership sharing by the teammate invited to lead as well as the rest of the sales team witnessing the interaction. Given the competing pressure of sharing leadership and asserting their own leadership role, we propose the construct of *inconsistent leadership sharing* (ILS) to capture how a formal leader may, over time, send inconsistent verbal and behavioral messages (e.g., claims and grants of leadership) to individual team members regarding that person's role in the team's leadership. We define ILS as the degree to which followers perceive inconsistency in a formal leader's verbal and behavioral messages regarding individual followers' leadership roles. The purpose of this paper is to explore the impact of ILS from a formal leader on the development of shared leadership in a team and, consequently, team performance. We propose that the inability of team members to distinguish a larger consistent

pattern of leadership sharing due to inconsistency in messages from the formal leader decreases the shared leadership in a team.

To ground our perspective, we build from adaptive leadership theory, which describes the social process between individuals as they establish their respective leader and follower roles through identity work (DeRue & Ashford 2010, DeRue 2011). This theory explains how individuals reach a common understanding about a team's shared leadership structure. According to adaptive leadership theory, this common understanding develops as individuals accept or reject leadership/followership from others (grants) and assert their own leadership/followership (claims). We extend their work in three ways. First, we suggest that the simultaneous need to encourage leadership among leaders' teams while asserting their own authority can manifest as inconsistent leadership sharing over time. In the language of adaptive leadership theory, this means that leaders are inconsistent in their granting and claiming of leadership to individual team members. We suggest that when formal leaders display ILS, it is detrimental to team members coming to view themselves and other team members as leaders. Second, we extend adaptive leadership theory by examining the formal leader's unique influence on the development of the shared team leadership structure. Adaptive leadership theory has focused on the social process of establishing leader and follower roles in equal-status dyads (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). We argue that, due to the formal leader's unique role in the team, their influence on the development of shared leadership extends to the whole team and can be understood as a team level phenomenon. While leadership claiming and granting often occur within formal leader-team member dyads, other team members witness or hear of these interactions from other team members, which consequently inform their self-views as leaders and their interactions with other group members. In this way, formal leaders not only influence the development of shared leadership through their direct exchanges with team members, but also affect claiming and granting between other team members through the authority associated with their position. For example, if our sales team leader overrides the directions of the team member she invited to help lead, other team members witness this and may also adapt their behavior such that they cease to grant leadership to that team member. Third, we propose that formal leaders' behavioral tendencies predictably influence shared leadership processes in teams.

We draw from uncertainty management theory to better understand the detrimental effects of ILS. Studies across disciplines support the need for leadership consistency in parenting (Trumpeter, Watson, O'Leary, & Weathington, 2008), education (Taylor, 2018), and business (Kriz, 2016). Utilizing uncertainty management theory, recent research introduced the concept of justice variability, which captures differences across supervisors in the consistency of their fair treatment of employees, and found that inconsistent fairness from a supervisor to an individual employee increased stress (Matta, Scott, Colquitt, Koopman, & Passantino, 2017). Uncertainty management theory suggests that employees desire to understand their environment as well as their place within it and inconsistency generates employee stress and lack of a sense of control (Lind & van den Bos, 2002). Similarly, we posit that ILS creates uncertainty surrounding the leadership process, which reduces team efficacy and the group's shared confidence in their ability to perform tasks well (Edmondson, 1999; Bandura, 1997). The reduction in efficacy ultimately influences performance negatively (see Figure 1 for conceptual model).

Our results identify a previously undiscussed way leaders can decrease their teams' performance: inconsistency in leadership sharing. By being inconsistent, our study indicates that leaders decrease the team's shared leadership, which negatively influences efficacy and performance. By conceptualizing and capturing this leader behavior, we answer calls to establish a better understanding of the role of the formal team leader within a team attempting to implement shared leadership (Hernandez et al., 2011; Zhu et al., 2018). Furthermore, we expand scholarly understanding regarding catalysts and impediments to the development of shared leadership in teams (Mathieu et al., 2008; Wang, Waldman, & Zhang, 2014). We also extend adaptive leadership theory (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; DeRue, 2011) by establishing the influence of ILS in the development of leader perceptions in a team. By integrating the adaptive leadership framework with uncertainty management theory, we gain a deeper understanding of the role formal leaders play in fostering shared leadership in a team. In sum, we seek to develop the ILS construct, validate its measurement scale through a multi-phase process, and establish criterion validity with a study of 63 teams.

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# **CHANGE CONCEPTS DURING THE LEADERSHIP TRANSITION IN A BLACK CHURCH: A CASE STUDY**

LIONEL SWEENEY  
Judson University  
Elgin, IL 60123

PETER SORENSEN  
Benedictine University

THERESE YAEGER  
Benedictine University

## **ABSTRACT**

This paper presents a case study involving the application of Organization Development applied to a story of leadership transition at a large Black Church. The church is a 156-year-old congregation, originally incorporated with 121 slaves. The current Pastor decided to retire after 20 years of service. Only two decades ago, when the current pastor arrived, the Church consisted of approximately 200 members, 13 ministries, and an operating budget of roughly \$300,000. Today this Church consists of approximately 2,400 individuals, 31 ministries and leaders, deacons, trustees, Sunday school staff, choir members, Christian Board, and Associate Ministers. It is one of the largest and fastest-growing Black Churches in the suburbs of a large metropolitan city, and the Church is known as the leader in Black communities.

This paper reports on the processes applied in this change effort. It includes the processes used over a two-year period. This case study reports on the specifics of the OD processes employed and reports on the use of these interventions at the individual level (interviews), group level (committee meetings and groups), and organization level (focus groups and communication meetings).

As a case study, we will first provide the background on the congregation and organization of the Church, the major individuals: The Pastor, the Pastor-elect, and the consultant, along with relevant Church groups. Secondly, the case presents the results of an assessment of the experience of the application of various OD processes, including the Use-of self, Dialogic OD, and Appreciative Inquiry. Finally, data is presented from survey responses from the congregation, committees, the pastors, and the consultant. Particular attention is given to an examination of the role of Use of Self, Appreciative Inquiry and Dialogic OD in exploring the significant and powerful existing Church culture and how that culture was both sustained, protected, and changed. In addition, data is shared pertaining to the experience of the consultant, and how he experienced the change process.

## **OVERVIEW - THE CHURCH STRUCTURE**

The Church Constitution is defined and used to structure the operations of the Church. Any changes or modifications are voted on by the church body before implementation. Working with the Pastor, the Deacons, Trustees, and Christian Board oversees the daily operations and finances of the Church. Additionally, ministries or task force committees are defined and assigned by the Pastor, per the Church Constitution.

This change effort was initiated when the OD consultant met with the Pastor and proposed the development of the transition strategy and plan concept. The consultant's proposal was taken under advisement by the Pastor, and they agreed to scheduled meetings weekly to define and design such a strategy. Outcomes of the meeting after six months, yielded a detailed strategy and plan. After a presentation to the Church's "Transition Committee" that consisted of members from the Church leadership teams of Deacons, Trustees, and Christian Board leaders, the consultant's proposal was approved by the Transition Committee members to focus on organizational design and transition. The timeline for this change effort involved three phases:

- Phase I - focused on the cognitive construction of the change transition with the Pastor.
- Phase II - is the alignment of a Transformation Committee to validate and implement the change management for the transition.
- Phase III - expansion of the Transformation Committee to include persons (voted on by the congregation) from the organization to define, implement, and measure the change design.

Within each of the phases, data was collected, and outcomes and findings were shared with the Pastor.

## **CASE STUDY – THE OD PROCESS**

Understanding the culture of the organization structure as a part of the fabric in the transition processes was paramount for the success of this change transition. Therefore, in the outcomes, the consultant aligned a faith-based assessment at the front of the process. Once the process was mapped out, it was determined that merely understanding a candidate's operation skills and financial skills were not enough. It was decided that a measurement to assess the candidate's faith was central to the transition process. Understanding a person's calling, work experiences, and ability to lead the organization were the most important elements in the process. If the person says he is called by God, the evidence should be viewable through his actions and words. To define and review these items, the Transition Committee incorporated into the recruitment process a website for persons interested in the opportunity to view the history of the Church, review the position expectations, list experiences and skills, and complete a faith questionnaire (composed of 21 questions, with 13 focused on faith, Christian leadership, and ministry goals).

The faith questionnaire for potential candidates aligned with the Pastor's requirements for the congregation's expectations to be defined and used for the selection of a new Pastor. Central to the Pastor's transition strategy is to "ensure the Church is engaged throughout the process. God will lead, and we all have a role to play." (personal communication with consultant, October 20, 2018). Ensuring that the candidate's beliefs and values for potentially managing the Church were aligned with the congregation and was part of the request to ensure that "God leads and we follow". Throughout the transition, strategy efforts consistently addressed the congregation in support of God's lead and the congregation followed his direction through faith, prayer (as a part of the culture, meetings started and ended with prayer), and the congregations played a supporting role.

### **Data Management: Input and Validation**

How to ensure that the congregation was engaging in the transition was accomplished by providing communication and gaining input through monthly question-and-answer sessions with the congregation. The design of tactics in the communication strategy was central to aligning the transition strategy throughout the process. Data creation to understand the congregation's expectations and measure the transition impact were critical to the success of the transition. Therefore, different ways to triangulate the information were presented, such as surveys, focus groups, and leadership assessments. Each of these tools provided the means to define and align the thoughts of individuals, groups, and leadership, as the strategic transitions were made. Additionally, analysis of the information allowed for input and validation of efforts with data that included:

- Input from the congregation to understand what is important through general sessions for leveraging insights;
- Meeting agenda with issues generated at the start of the meeting to provide the status of action items;
- Meeting minutes captured to ensure monitoring and completion of action items throughout the transition;
- Surveys that provided insights, beliefs, and values as to specific expectations;
- Leadership assessments that engaged the leadership team and provided acknowledgment as to the change success.

Each of these data management items was consistently undertaken in the transition strategy to provide input from the organization with opportunities to make adjustments when information suggested change. See Table 1.

Each of the transition tactics were in addition to the standing weekly and monthly meetings to define and discuss the elements of the transition strategy. To manage the tasks and communication, a detailed project plan was created to monitor and measure the change. These standing meetings provided opportunities to design and implement items associated with the transition strategy. Teams were created to manage these items during each of the three phases.

## METHODOLOGY

The methodological approach involved mixed methods to align OD techniques to define, dream, design, and implement a transition strategy and plan, to select and hire a new Senior Pastor. Qualitative methods included interviews and focus groups, and quantitative methods of survey data and analysis were applied. Traditionally, the process of leadership transition and selection is handled by the senior Pastor (selected or appointed) or the Pastor with a selection team appointed by the Senior Pastor. Here, the use of Organization Development (OD) was perceived as a positive significant change from the traditional approach. Therefore, the OD consultant was required to work in tandem with the Pastor. This was done by utilizing Buono's (2014) concept of stage presence:

On Stage – On Stage implies working with the client in public (in this case, the Senior Pastor) providing consulting expertise. One must ensure the others see you as the consultant assisting the Pastor and not directing him. The culture of the Black Church would not be open or accepting of the consulting role directing the Pastor.

Off Stage – In this mode, the OD consultant can present his expertise to the Pastor. The consultant must ensure that all OD work is understood by the Pastor and can be communicated to the organization by the Pastor. Anything short of this development and education is a failure. The OD consultant's role is secondary and supports for the Pastor as leader and owner of the transformation.

For a successful outcome, this Stage presence required three key elements involving the Use of Self, which is the use of oneself as a strategic tool using the competencies aligned with:

1. Seeing, which involves the consultant's sensitivity to the social context of the client system. Seeing is the ability to take in the data to understand reality like others in the order see it and discern what is going on at and below the surface.
2. Knowing which involves making sense of what one has taken in. It integrates the use of knowledge, experience, and intuition on understanding a situation and identifying potential actions.
3. Doing is the capacity to execute a full range of behavioral choices. The 'doing' is the knowledge and assessment of a wide range of options, making choices that the data identifies, and using skills.
4. Tact and courage in executing in specific situations.

Each of these competencies is defined further by Jamieson, Barnett & Buono (2016).

## **Incorporating Organization Development Concepts**

OD tools selected for this transformation included Appreciative Inquiry and Dialogic OD. Both were chosen for the ability to focus on generative, and emergent creation of change to define, dream, design, and deliver a transformation strategy for the 156-year-old Church. Specifically, the OD tools provide ways to evaluate the narratives, schema, and patterns in the Church that were culturally defined and driven. Traditionally within the Black Church, information and data are action limited. Traditionally, records and data are not maintained as required for quantitative studies. Here it is the narratives, schema, and patterns that emerge and contain information and data to define the church structure and operations. These tools defined the dialogic approaches needed to regenerate information and data the created the actions that limit the Black Church (Langley & Kahnweiler, 2003; Bushe & Marshak, 2015).

### **DATA COLLECTION: TRIANGULATION AND KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT**

Communication is vital to define and unearth rich qualitative data from numerous subjects. Within the communication structure, the consultant aligned the communications and messages with measurable elements to make sense of the narratives, schema, and patterns to convey the findings. This was accomplished through the use of knowledge management and data analysis techniques. Knowledge management provided the grouping of communications into information and data. Both of these elements are used to present discussions as:

- Information – facts provided by individuals or groups about something or someone. This is gathered through individual conversations, surveys, or focus groups.
- Data – facts and statistics compiled for reference or analysis. This is done by measurement and triangulation of information and alignment through processes.

### **ASSESSMENT**

The final stage of the transition included a multilevel assessment of responses to the process. The assessment included data collected from each of the components of the process. At the institutional level, it included responses from the congregation. At the individual level, data included responses from the Pastor-elect, the current Pastor, and the consultant. Although each of these individual responses is important, in a number of ways it is the consultant's comments which serve as a critical comment on the Use of Self, Appreciative Inquiry, and Dialogic OD.

Responses at all levels were consistently positive, with particular emphasis on the communication of the values of the institution, the history of the church, and the organization's culture. Specific comments were made by the Pastor-elect concerning the complexity of the questionnaire, an interview related to the extent to which the congregation's expectations were defined, expectations based on the shared history and values of the Church, and the extent to which the Pastor-elect shared these values, understood these values, and the culture and the extent of his understanding and commitment. The comments from the Pastor-elect regarding the

questionnaire that served as the basis for the transition interview are captured in the following quote: "I was pleasantly surprised by the complexity and the wording of each question ... this process tested the resolve. It challenged each to articulate their heart for ministry and for the local Church itself."

Comments were also made regarding the transparency of the process and the commitment to the process. The current Pastor described the process as a model for the transition. Members of the congregation commented on the openness of the process with particular emphasis on the value of the involvement and participation of the congregation in the transition process.

### Consultant's Assessment

As an OD consultant in today's world engages with the client, the consultant must understand the traditional action research tools. Still, the consultant must learn how to exist in the era of post dichotomous realities, where dialogue is used as an element to construct a development imperative (McKnight & Jamieson, 2016). It is a requirement that the OD consultant understands how to utilize Appreciative Inquiry to align the generative practices within the organization as a starting place to acquire buy-in, and for the organization to know how their beliefs and values are positioned for the transition. These approaches should focus on the history and values of the organization.

The OD practitioner can then leverage this understanding of the culture through the use of Dialogic OD to illuminate the organization's core beliefs and define emergent opportunities to align new and different technologies and processes to enhance the transition processes and initiatives in support of the organization transition. For this case study, the voice of the OD consultant was a necessary contribution for understanding the success of this leadership change. In essence, OD practitioners today must know how to go beyond the organization's structure to design management practices that align with goal setting, allocation of resources, planning systems that align strategies, and the organization's economic logic (Worley & Mohrman, 2016).

## **DISCUSSION**

The study also reports on change at the individual level, with a) the consultant, b) the departing leader (Pastor), and c) the new leader (Pastor-elect). It applies three relatively new techniques in organization development such as Use of Self, Appreciative Inquiry, and Dialogic OD. Each of the OD methods was chosen for a specific reason and specific role in the intervention. Dialogic OD was chosen as a method for surfacing and creating data related to latent, tacit knowledge that existed as part of the history and culture of the organization but is not explicit. The concept of latent and tacit knowledge became critical in providing in-depth and comprehensive knowledge of an organization, a critical factor in the transition of leadership. Appreciative Inquiry was selected to provide insight into the strengths and potential of the organization, which is another critical factor in the transition of leadership. Use of Self was chosen as a way of increasing the effectiveness of the consultant in the change effort, as this project was considered the most important project of the consultant's 20 years of consulting

experience. The case presents the process used over time involving numerous meetings with the leadership, the departing leader (Pastor), and the new leader (Pastor-elect), meetings with key members of the congregation, the entire congregation, and special committees.

Data is reported on how each of these sectors experienced the leadership transition process. Perhaps the most insightful responses are from the individual responses -- the two leaders and the consultant, and how they experienced the intervention. Probably the most significant contribution of the study is not only the application of OD to a clearly significant and major organization in terms of its societal role both in the past and certainly in the future, but of OD methodologies designed to elicit and make explicit the latent, tacit knowledge. Again, knowledge is critical to a meaningful and effective transition in leadership. It is impossible to overstate the importance of latent, tacit knowledge in the transfer of leadership. This importance is illustrated by numerous studies of leadership; for example, the recent paper on the impact of leadership on middle management and the organization (Reidl, 2020).

But even more relevant and telling are the studies that report the transition of leadership from corporate environments to academic organizations -- colleges and universities. Studies illustrate the failure of transitions in leadership, where failures are based on the lack of understanding of the complexities involved in the latent, tacit history, and culture of an organization (Ivory, 2017). It is through this surfacing, making explicit the history and culture of an organization that is critical to understanding the complexities and consequences of new leadership action. This study presents and illustrates the potential role of OD in making that transition in leadership.

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# **EVALUATION STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF A MANAGERIAL COACHING AND SKILLS-ORIENTED PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT PROGRAM ON EMPLOYEE ATTITUDES POST COVID-19 PANDEMIC**

RAKA SANDELL  
University of Dallas, TX

## **ABSTRACT**

The impact of skills augmentation and personalized employee coaching during performance management reviews on individual performance has been inadequately characterized. This study investigates how employee attitudes post recent pandemic crisis regarding organizational climate, training seeking, connectedness to goals and career satisfaction has been impacted by previous performance enhancement related interventions.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Approaches to execute performance review and management have been widely studied for 30 years. Much of the research has focused on the features of performance management processes and annual reviews and their impact on individual performance. Performance management processes that emphasize providing timely, frequent, and specific feedback arounds skill and coaching are fairly novel concepts in practice. Research in this field has not considered the implications of such processes on the resulting changes in attitudes regarding the organizational climate, training seeking, and career advancement satisfaction.

The sponsor of this study implemented a revised skill and coaching based performance review program for its employees that was personalized for an employee's leadership development and largely delivered by their respective managers. An applied question that the company had was whether employee attitudes regarding organizational climate, training seeking, connectedness to goals, and career advancement satisfaction, which typically correlate to firm level outcomes, such as customer satisfaction and financial performance, were different following the implementation of this program. As such, the intent was to analyze employee attitudes over time to understand this dependency.

This study took a different turn and provided an unexpected alternative research opportunity. Immediately following the implementation of the first-round of interventions to a subset of employees, the COVID-19 pandemic hit and operations at the company were disrupted. Like in most corporations, this environmental jolt led to the sponsor's operations being adversely affected which posed major uncertainties for the future. That had obvious implications on how employees perceived their job stability and long-term careers at the company and their ability to carry out their jobs successfully. Drawing upon Sir Winston Churchill's quote "Never let a good crisis go waste", the study pivoted to utilize the unique opportunity to assess if the employee interventions that were previously performed before the crisis had any immediate impact on the nature and magnitude of such employee attitudes post-crisis.

The purpose of this study is to investigate how aforementioned employee attitudes are impacted by the combination of skills and coaching driven interventions related to performance management particularly after a crisis. This study is important because if these attitudes are impacted favorably, then such interventions could be prescribed in the future to overcome employee engagement and career satisfaction issues that typically arise after a crisis.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW OF PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT MODELS**

Despite its importance as the integral centerpiece of HRM systems, research has shown that many employees do not perceive the intended benefits from their performance management processes (Kinicki, Jacobson & Peterson, 2013). For example, less than a third of employees believe that their company's performance management process assists them in improving their performance, and performance management regularly ranks among the lowest topics in employee satisfaction surveys (Pulakos, 2009). Companies are also struggling even more today with employee retention and millennial workforces are vastly more unlikely to persist at one employer for too long unlike previous generations (Aruna, & Anitha, 2015). Westerman and Yamamura (2007) point out that values, preferences and demands of new generations entering the workplace can lead to misunderstandings as well as communicational concerns that influence employee productivity, motivation, and engagement, which in turn result in problems of employee retention and turnover. Companies with such challenges also suffer from overall poor performance (Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011). Given such challenges, organizations have refocused attention on their HRM practices and performance management systems (Buchner, 2007) in particular. This sponsor that has been experiencing similar issues with its largely millennial workforce and as such has been developing modified HRM practices, the centerpiece of which consists of a revised performance management program for its employees that emphasizes skills enrichment and employee coaching.

The selection of a suitable performance management program can also greatly influence the organizational climate. Several such programs have been introduced in literature (Aguinis, 2009; Cardy, 2014; Cascio, 2006; Pulakos, 2009). These studies advocate for systems that provide specific feedback in a frequent and timely fashion which is a key management behavior that leads to enhanced employee performance (Greve, 2010). In addition, these systems need to have an aspect of coaching and skill development. Coaching involves managerial behaviors aimed at improving employee performance (Kinicki, 2013).

The bundle of practice for performance management embraced by the sponsor includes best practices recommended by these studies. An applied question analyzed by this study is: Will the implementation of the program be associated with changes in employee attitudes about the organizational climate, training seeking, and career advancement satisfaction which typically correlate to firm level outcomes, such as customer satisfaction and financial performance?

## **ENVIRONMENTAL JOLT**

After the program's implementation to a subset of employees, the COVID-19 pandemic struck and all operations came to a brief grinding halt. For employees, this became a time of

great uncertainty as the pandemic drastically changed the way they worked and interfaced given the travel bans, remote work, and social distancing norms. Many began to feel disconnected with their colleagues, their workplace, and the company at large. Many of them began to worry about the longer-term prospects of the company and their personal prospects at the company.

Researchers refer to such sudden and unprecedented events as “environmental jolts”, also defined as “transient perturbations whose occurrences are difficult to foresee and whose impacts on organizations are disruptive and potentially inimical” (Meyer 1982). Literature suggests that organizations’ adaptations to environmental jolts are influenced by the strategies they pursue (Miles and Snow, 1978), the structures they adopt (March and Simon, 1958), the ideologies they espouse (Beyer, 1981), and the slack resources they amass (Bourgeois, 1981). Using these constructs, Meyer (1982) proposed a model of how organizations adapt to environmental jolts in a hospital environment. Researchers have studied the impact of these crises on organizations and how they adapt but there is nothing in prior literature that assesses the effects on individual attitudes and if they can be moderated by specific company-sponsored interventions.

This crisis situation provided a rare and unique opportunity to examine this question as the performance management program that emphasized a manager’s coaching influence and skills orientation is indeed an example of a key company-sponsored intervention. Given they were administered only for a subset of the employee base before the pandemic, it provided the sponsor a crucible to test its ameliorating effects on employee attitudes (for that subset) after the crisis. It was effectively an unexpected A/B test to assess if the employees that received the intervention exemplified different attitudes from those that did.

To summarize, this study looks to characterize the moderating influence of performance management programs which included managerial influence on employee attitudes after a significant jolt such as the COVID pandemic. As such, the guiding research question for this study is: *“How are the attitudes of employees who have undergone a specific type of managerial coaching and skills driven performance management intervention different from the employees who have not yet received it after the COVID-19 pandemic?”*

## **METHODOLOGY – FOCUS GROUPS, SAMPLES & DATA ANALYSIS**

The study utilized a qualitative research methodology and was conducted via focus groups and follow up interviews to ascertain the impact on employee attitudes. Focus groups were employed because of the potential for eliciting rich descriptions of the effects of the pandemic was higher in a group setting. The participants were full time employees of the organization and a subset of them had undergone a performance management intervention.

Group sizes were between 3 and 10 participants. A total of 16 focus group sessions were held. Each session lasted an hour and were facilitated by a moderator and the researcher. The focus group sessions were held online via Microsoft Teams given the current shutdown situation. Participants were informed that participation in the sessions was purely voluntary and were assured that there would be no consequences, positive or negative from their participation.

The questions for the focus group pertained to employee attitudes regarding organizational climate, training, career satisfaction, and connectedness to goals. The focus group questions were developed collaboratively by the researcher based on prior literature review on employee attitudes and performance management. These questions were tested for clarity and non-ambiguity with a pilot test group consisting of employees from the organization as well as doctoral students at the University of Dallas.

The focus group included questions like “do you feel that the company is living up to its vision and mission even during the time of the pandemic?” and “share with the group what you think of the organizational culture after the pandemic?” The researchers made use of the analytical memo-ing technique to capture reflections and notes after the end of every interview and focus group session.

The participants were 200 employees of the sponsor who were involved in the day to day operations of the company. The average tenure of the participants of the study was around 2.5 years and the sample comprised 70% female employees. A purposive theoretical sampling technique was used and about 75% of the 200 employees were randomly selected and sent focus group session invitations. Out of the 150 invitations sent, 124 were able to attend the sessions which is a response rate of 82%.

After the completion of 4 focus groups sessions out of the 16 total sessions, the transcription process was started by the researcher and a company employee who acted as the facilitator. The transcription of the data was done using a combination of manual techniques and the Dragon NaturallySpeaking speech recognition software application. An initial meeting was held between the researchers and the facilitator to develop a plan for analysis including the use of Microsoft Excel for the codebook and the data management tool. The main vectors of data coding were based on the theoretical constructs that the company was wanting to evaluate: organizational climate, training orientation, career satisfaction, and connectedness to organizational goals. The researcher and facilitator independently coded the transcribed data and additionally developed an additional inductive code (Managerial support), which became critical to an unexpected study conclusion. The team also compared the individual coding of the initial data for triangulation purposes. Doctoral students from the University of Dallas analyzed data samples and verified the coding scheme. The codebook is available from researcher on request.

The data was coded and organized by event i.e., it separated the employees who had had the performance management intervention and who had not. The three criteria that were used for thematic analysis were Recurrence, Repetition and Forcefulness. After the codebook was developed and set up in Microsoft Excel, the remaining focus group sessions were transcribed and coded by each theme/vector by the researcher and company employee. Every response was categorized into a “High”, “Neutral” and “Low” bucket for each theme. For example, “I feel satisfied and energized. I just think this will pass and we have to get through this as a company.” was coded as Career Satisfaction (CS) High. “The training rolled out has been very good” was coded as a Training climate (TC) High. Then, based on these categories a numerical score was attributed to each participant for each code. The frequency of each code was analyzed using pivot tables in Microsoft Excel and the summary of the results is described in the next section.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The study catalogued entries under employee attitudes towards Organizational Culture (OC), Connectedness to Goals (CG), Career Satisfaction (CS), and Training Climate (TC) and also tagged whether they received a skills-based performance intervention. The analysis revealed some surprising results related to employee attitudes regarding OC, TC, CS, and CG around the impact of skill-based performance management intervention and managerial coaching:

- a) Impact of skill based performance management intervention initiatives: To our surprise, there were just no discernible patterns associated with employee attitudes in any of the four attributes associated with OC, CG, CS or TG regardless of whether they had a skill performance interventions or not. The employees were so overcome with the turbulence introduced by the environmental jolt that regardless of the performance interventions their attitudes were deeply influenced by their own personal circumstances.

This one study would point to the notion that companies cannot inoculate themselves around sustaining strong employee attitudes under the effect of adverse environmental jolts even with strong skill-based performance management initiatives. Given the strong internal enthusiasm that continues to be expressed for this program, this result was fairly counter-intuitive.

- b) Impact of managerial effectiveness and coaching initiatives: During the first focus group the participants mentioned managerial connection, coaching, empathy, and compassion several times. These were reiterated so many times that we added it to the focus group questions and included managerial support on an inductive basis as a code in our codebook.

To our surprise, the study discovered that managerial support actually had a strong positive impact on employees' attitudes regarding organizational climate (OC) and connectedness to organizational goals (CG) – essentially items which are broad perceptions connected to the general organization at large. However, their attitudes towards training (TC) and career satisfaction (CS), which are attitudes connected to themselves as individuals and their personal circumstances were relatively unchanged despite their perceptions of positive managerial support. Regardless of this observation, the emergence of managerial support as a positive driver of two of the four employee attitudes after an environmental jolt was an exciting result.

The below quotes are examples of positive manager perceptions that influence employee attitudes, specifically towards OC and CG in the latter examples. There were no explicit quotes that showed a similar correlation/causality towards TC and CS. *“He has been my lifeline through this. I don’t think I would have made it otherwise”*; *“On day two million six hundred thousand and seventy-seven of shelter in place my amazing manager threw me a birthday party on zoom and now I’m feeling cheery and bright”*; *“Best boss brag...I was so depressed and out of creamer and couldn’t make my morning coffee so ( ) had it delivered...love this company”*; *“Things have been so difficult. I am learning so much from*

*(.). She is so thoughtful and compassionate. The reason that I love what I do so much and strive to make an impact.”*

As can be seen in these quotes, strong overtones of emphasis on the empathy and compassion demonstrated by the managers had a really strong positive effect on employee attitudes towards the organization. Even in employees that were not too enthused about training opportunities or perceived strong career satisfaction, they were meaningfully swayed towards having positive attitudes of their organization if their manager showed strong supportive traits.

In contrast with above, the following are examples of negative manager perceptions that influence employee attitudes. *“In crisis situations the manger is most crucial as the team needs to feel supported. I did not feel that, and a lot of others did not feel that way.”; “My manager wasn’t supportive. You know you really could have answered that. People need reassurance, manager’s job is to keep the team together and motivated and in a place that that the team is functioning and happy. [ ] didn’t do that.”; “We have gone above and beyond and we haven’t even received a thank-you from our manager. I just do not feel valued anymore.”; “The managers are the ones with the personal touch, and they are the ones to deliver the company’s message. I have had no contact with [ ] so I have felt the lack of communication.”*

As can be seen in these quotes, the absence of managerial support and empathy seemed like a strong detractor on employee attitudes even if they have received skill-based performance interventions. During an environmental jolt, when an employee is looking to overcome numerous adversities on their personal and professional fronts and outlook in general, the lack of a supportive manager further accentuates their perceived negativities towards the situation. The lack of basic courtesies around “thank you” and “great job” might be less significant around normal times when outlook around both personal career and company successes might outweigh such seemingly basic pleasantries, but certainly not in the presence of an environmental jolt.

This study would point to the notion that companies can leverage an environment of empathy and compassion driven managerial performance to drive enhanced employee attitudes under the effect of adverse environmental jolts. It also illustrates that the lack of such an overture from managers could severely negatively impact employee attitudes in the company.

## **MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS**

The results provided some unexpected managerial implications for companies to navigate through environmental jolts. One might have expected skills-based performance interventions which generally positively impact employee attitudes under normal times might also be a potent weapon for dealing with sudden adversity. On the contrary, it illustrated that employee attitudes were not actually materially impacted by such interventions.

The study uncovered that manager empathy and compassion has a large bearing on these sentiments and could actually help companies navigate through unexpected adversity from such environmental jolts. The study was not intending to explicitly test this notion initially, but the

qualitative feedback and its characterization revealed this unexpected conclusion. This impacts attitudes that pertain to the broader organization more than attitudes that pertain to the employee.

While one can never really anticipate such jolts, sustaining a strong emphasis on managerial coaching can reap unexpected benefits to overcome adversity, perhaps even more than formal, structured skills-based performance management programs. Armed with this takeaway, companies should prioritize developing stronger practices around managerial training.

## **CONCLUSIONS**

This research began as an effort to capture the impact of advanced skill-based performance management systems on a variety of employee attitudes. The sudden onset of the pandemic provided a rare and unique opportunity to conduct a qualitative study via focus groups and interviews to assess if such interventions could also positively impact employee attitudes post a crisis. This study was perhaps a first of its kind to provide a firsthand account of employee and team attitudes while they overcame unexpected adversity. The study revealed that while skills based interventions might not have impacted employee attitudes under adversity, managerial and organizational support can have an outsized impact to overcome it.

The principal limitation of this study is generalizability. First, this crisis is unprecedented in the modern workplace. Other crises might be more mundane and result from say, leadership transitions or demand or supply side shocks. These results might not be applicable in those instances. Second, the conclusions drawn here might not be applicable across other time periods. Finally, industry structure or worker sentiments might all have a bearing on the outcome of this study. Additional research could entail repeating this study across different time frames and industry / worker types before drawing generalized conclusions on this topic

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# INDUSTRY 4.0 APPLICATIONS FOR IOT-DRIVEN SUSTAINABILITY USE CASES: FIRST WAVES IN HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM

SANJAY NADKARNI

Emirates Academy of Hospitality Management, Dubai

FLORIAN KRIECHBAUMER

Emirates Academy of Hospitality Management, Dubai

NATASA CHRISTODOULIDOU

California State University Dominguez Hills, Carson

## INTRODUCTION

Industry 4.0 Applications for IoT-driven sustainability use cases: First waves in Hospitality Digitalization has become a defining issue for the future of the hospitality industry and in particular in the post Covid-19 era (Shin & Kang, 2020; Gursoy & Chi, 2020). In the past, the digitalization focus has been on profit dynamics through (a) driving revenue, and (b) optimizing the bottom line by increasing operational efficiency. However, it appears that the potential impact on the sustainability of the sector has been comparatively neglected (Jones et al, 2016). Drawing upon theoretical and practical considerations, the purpose of this paper is to lay the groundwork for empirical research in the convergence of Industry 4.0 and sustainability in hospitality, with a focus on the guest room. This is primarily investigated by identifying use cases and prevalent in-room IoT supply side solutions within the context of their impact on sustainability, and opportunities to analyze data harvested from devices deployed in the room during the guest's stay. Moreover, the prospects of deploying Big Data and AI for optimal utilization of resources that lead to achieving Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) is presented, building on IoT's role as a data generator and environmental interface. The findings of this paper provide a practitioner and industry-oriented outlook alongside suggestions for future academic research in this emerging domain.

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# **FAMILY BUSINESS SURVIVAL: HOW BUSINESS OWNER COMMITMENT TYPES PREDICT SUCCESSION INTENTIONS**

JESSICA VANN  
Pristine Commercial Cleaning Service, Inc.  
105 East Broadway  
Sand Springs, OK 74063

JENNIFER L. KISAMORE  
University of Oklahoma-Tulsa

## **ABSTRACT**

The current study replicates and extends research regarding succession planning in small and family businesses by examining owner characteristics and commitment related to succession planning and succession intentions. Specifically, this study examines various types of organizational commitment to determine whether commitment type differentially predicts succession planning and succession intentions. A total of 100 business owners were recruited via network sampling to participate in this study. Participation involved completing an online survey administered via Qualtrics. Results indicated that business owners, like employees, experience different types of organizational commitment. Results suggest ethnic identity of business owners, affective commitment, and normative commitment are related to succession intentions. Results suggest imperative commitment is a unique form of organizational commitment that merits further study. This is the first empirical study to examine the construct of imperative commitment and examine whether different types of organizational commitment are related to succession planning and succession intentions among business owners. Future research should examine whether imperative commitment is unique to business owners or is relevant to all types of employees. Small business consultants and advisors should continue to educate business owners on succession and continuance options. The importance of proactive planning must also be emphasized to increase the probability of successful succession outcomes.

# THE NEW NORMAL IN THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC FOR REMOTE WORKERS

SANDRA BLANKE  
College of Business  
University of Dallas  
Irving, TX 75062

RENITA MURIMI  
University of Dallas, TX

COVID-19 has disrupted the traditional work environment and upended lives around the globe for all kinds of organizations and their employees. In the face of this pandemic, remote work has become the new normal as people have learned to merge together their homes and personal lives with their work environments. Our work seeks to understand this new environment that people cohabit along with their families who are learning and working remotely – all within the shared home environment. Our findings shed a light on the challenges imposed by COVID-19 from the perspective of employees, parents and businesses. For this paper, graduate professors at a single business school institution in the south-central United States surveyed six hundred graduate business students. The survey response rate was approximately 19%. Below, a summary of the top findings related to working from home (WFH) from the survey is presented.

- **WFH status before COVID-19:** Prior to COVID-19, around half of the respondents (48.5%) did not work from home.
- **The home office:** About a fifth of the respondents (19.8%) had three or more members at home, while they were working from home.
- **Employee self-perception of productivity:** Approximately 40% of respondents (41.6%) reported being more productive while working from home, and 36% of respondents reported the same productivity at home and work.
- **Wish list:** The top resource required for employees working from home was a faster Internet connection.
- **Secure networks:** More than half of the respondents (55%) had a VPN to connect to their employer's network.
- **Post- COVID expectation of WFH status:** Employees would prefer to continue working from home. 52% of people would like to continue working from home at least 3-4 days a week, compared to 20% of respondents who were ready to be back in the office.
- **Post-COVID Prediction of WFH status:** A quarter of all respondents predicted that their employers would not allow them to work from home after COVID-19.

The findings of our paper provide timely insights about the challenges and opportunities of remote work induced by a pandemic, and discusses the implications of remote work for cybersecurity and employee productivity.

# **THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPLOYEE ONBOARDING AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT**

Ashton motil  
University of Oklahoma-Tulsa  
4502 E41st Street-1H25  
Tulsa, OK 74135

JENNIFER L. KISAMORE  
University of Oklahoma-Tulsa

## **ABSTRACT**

Employees are an organization's greatest assets. When utilized effectively, an organization's workforce provides a competitive advantage. Scholars and practitioners agree, efficient and effective onboarding practices can lead to higher employee engagement and productivity as well as reduced turnover. This study investigated the relationship between employee onboarding experiences and turnover intention. The study also investigated employee engagement as a mediating factor between onboarding experiences and turnover intention. A network sample of 113 individuals who have completed an onboarding program in the past year participated in the current study. Participants completed an online survey that assessed their perceptions regarding the comprehensiveness of the onboarding program they completed, their level of engagement at work, and their intentions to turnover. Results of the current study show onboarding perceptions are positively related to employee engagement and negatively related to turnover intentions. Results also indicate that employee engagement accounts for 37.7% of the covariance between onboarding perceptions and turnover intentions among new employees. Onboarding programs should be a key part of an organization's human resource management strategy. Thoughtfully designed and executed onboarding initiatives are associated with higher employee engagement and lower turnover intentions. Onboarding programs should be championed by organizational leaders to strengthen engagement and reduce turnover among new employees.

# **IMPACT OF FIRM TRANSPARENCY AND TRUST ON TURNOVER INTENT AND JOB PERFORMANCE**

Chris Becker  
University of Dallas  
1845 East Northgate Drive  
Irving, TX 75062

## **ABSTRACT**

The focus of this study is the relationship between perceived firm transparency and two key employee outcomes, job performance, and employee turnover intent. Additionally, firm trust is proposed as a partial mediator between perceived firm transparency and job performance, and employee turnover intent. Our study fills a gap in the literature by proposing an empirical study of the relationship between firm transparency and key employee outcomes. Expected results are that perceived firm transparency has a direct positive effect on job performance, and a negative effect on employee turnover intent, and that firm trust partially mediates these relationships.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Vertical communication within an organization is key to several outcomes such as firm profits, strategic consensus, and improved strategic implementation. Within the literature consensus and knowledge sharing are key antecedents to successful strategic implementation (Rapert et al. 2008). The focus of our proposed study is to explore why some information is communicated transparently vertically within an organization, and why some information is withheld.

Transparency within organizations appears to be in the eye of the beholder within the literature. There is a common thread within the research which argues that firms can be transparent if they communicate what employees “want and need to know” (Yue et al, 2019, p.5), but who determines what employees need to know? Additionally, feedback is needed from employees in order to determine what they need know (Jiang & Luo, 2018), however without information how can feedback be effective?

Our research will be conducted through the dimension of relational authenticity within the broader authentic leadership theory. Relational authenticity is the open and transparent manner where authentic leaders communicate information (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). While it is understood that not all communication can be shared throughout organization, we propose that information employees need to know is within the control of the leaders, and it is their choice on what to communicate. We also argue that leadership style is most salient in determining the level of transparent communication. Additionally, we propose that transparent communication by leaders impacts employees trust of the firm, intent to leave the firm, and their job performance. Literature leaves us with many questions about the effectiveness of vertical communication within organizations. Is a lack of trust within the organization impacting the presence of authentic traits of leaders?

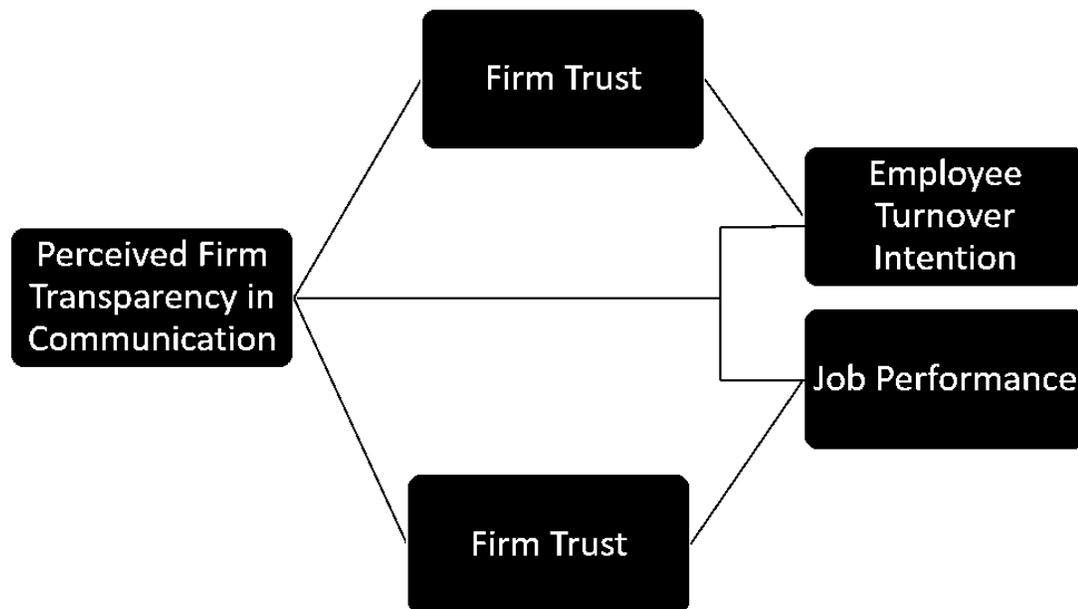
Our study is looking to fill a gap in literature by looking at relationships among perceived firm transparency in communication, firm trust, employee turnover intent, and job performance. We continue with a review of literature that starts with authentic leadership theory, which is the theory that grounds our study. Review of literature continues with an in depth look at these relationships with trust as a partial mediator.

### ***Authentic Leadership Theory***

In our study we are specifically focused on the communication behaviors of leaders. Transparency within the context of this study refers to the authenticity of the leader. Specifically, authentic leaders share information, solicit feedback, have high levels of disclosure and dissemination of information. A characteristic of authentic leaders is that they “openly (transparently) share information throughout the organization in an accurate, timely, balanced, and unequivocal manner” (Men & Stacks, 2014, p.306). Authentic leadership theory is comprised of four dimensions, “self-awareness, internalized moral perspective, balanced information processing, and relational transparency” (Jiang & Luo, 2018, p.152). The dimension of relational transparency is the focus of this study and is discussed below.

*Relational Transparency.* Relational transparency is a factor of authentic leadership theory that specifically addresses transparency in communication, which is described as “presenting one’s authentic self to others” (Walumbwa et al. 2008, p.95). Relational transparent communication is where an open transparent exchange of information is supported by the firm, where leaders listen to employees establishing a two-way dialogue (Men, 2014). It is through this leadership dimension that authentic leaders share information openly and transparently (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Further, relational transparency “promotes trust through disclosures that involve openly sharing information” (Kernis, 2003, p. 7).

*Figure 1*



*Transparent Communication and Employee Turnover Intention.* It is our view that employees pay attention to what a leader says and what a leader does. Without transparent communication this connection is blurred resulting in employee dissatisfaction eventually leading to separation from the firm. Our study looks at this relationship and offers the following proposition.

*Proposition 1: Perceived firm transparency in communication is negatively associated with employee turnover intention.*

*Transparent Communication and Job Performance.* Again, we argue that when employees have clear direction and know what they are supposed to do their performance increases. Clear transparent communication aligns the organization around a shared vision increasing productivity and performance. This study is focused on the relationship between transparent communication and individual job performance and offers the following proposition.

*Proposition 2: Perceived firm transparency in communication is positively associated with job performance.*

## *Trust*

Trust is a complex construct that has several definitions within the literature. In a business context, trust is essential to creating relationships that impact individual as well as firm performance. Trust is defined as “an expectation ... that a subject...will perform future actions aimed at producing positive results for the trustor in situations with perceived risk and vulnerability” (Castaldo et al. 2010, p.665). There is an overwhelming amount of research on trust as it relates to transparent communication. Like most prior studies, our study will use trust as a partial mediator to the relationships between perceived firm transparency in communication and employee turnover intent and job performance.

*Trust and Transparent Communication.* We propose that trust is earned over time and can be lost through poor communication. If a leader is transparent with employees and consistent with communication, trust and respect is earned, therefore we propose:

*Proposition 3: Perceived firm transparency in communication is positively associated with firm trust.*

*Trust and Job Performance.* We argue that employees who trust their firm will commit more of their resources to support the firm’s success, which includes increased productivity and job performance. Our study proposes that trust and job performance have a relationship outside of the type of communication received. Additionally, we study propose that trust is a partial mediator between perceived firm transparency in communication and job performance.

*Proposition 4: Firm trust is positively associated with job performance.*

*Proposition 5: Firm trust partially mediates the relationship between perceived firm transparency in communication and job performance.*

*Trust and Employee Turnover Intention.* Again, it is our view that if an employee does not trust their firm, they are more likely to leave the firm. Our study proposes that there is a direct relationship between trust and employee turnover, and that trust partially mediates the relationship between the level of transparent communication and employee turnover intention.

*Proposition 6: Firm trust is negatively associated with employee turnover intention.*

*Proposition 7: Firm trust partially mediates the relationship between perceived firm transparency in communication and employee turnover intention.*

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# REFLECTIONS OF FACULTY TEACHING ONLINE DURING COVID-19 PANDEMIC

DEVI AKELLA

College of Business, Education & Professional Studies  
Albany State University, GA, USA

KRISHNA PRIYA ROLLA

Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar Marathwada, India

L.SHASHIKUMAR SHARMA

Mizoram University, India

## INTRODUCTION

The global outbreak of Corona Virus (SARS-CoV-2) last year challenged the education systems across the world (Dhawan, 2020). To survive the onslaught of this airborne pandemic virus higher education institutions (HEIs) have either shifted to a completely online medium or a hybrid system which combines virtual teaching with a few synchronous face-to-face teaching sessions with social distancing. The earlier founding pillars of education, consisting of the presence of teachers, teacher-student relationships, and exchanges i.e., the model of personalized teaching evaporated into the air overnight. Distance with minimum face-to-face interactions between teachers and students, became the mantra of changing market conditions and requirements of the consumers in the HEI (Dhawan, 2020). COVID-19 pandemic thus pressurized HEIs to “accept modern technology” and its various online teaching modalities (Dhawan, 2020, p. 7).

How to transform college curricula, and move to online modalities became a leading dilemma for all HEIs globally? Moreover, online technology despite its flexibility and accessibility, can be associated with numerous problems such as issues pertaining to installation, login problems, video or audio concerns and internet facilities. In addition, lack of interaction and engagement between the educators and students, made the entire learning experience boring and tedious. The learning process to be effective had to be a social and interactive process where students are given opportunities to practice what they learn. While in e-learning the student is required to learn and assimilate information in technologically enabled planned socialization episodes devoid of personalized attention and interaction. Thus, despite the shift to online teaching, students, educators, and administrators were not mentally prepared to teach, learn, and manage an online learning environment (Song et al., 2004). This paper focuses on this issue of *unpreparedness* from the perspective of the educators working in HEIs, by deconstructing the reflective narratives of three educators who got caught in midst of COVID-19 and online teaching within the parameters of Kolb’s experiential theory to understand their learning processes and variations if any due to learner’s diversity such as age, culture, and gender.

## **KOLB'S EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING THEORY AND ITS APPLICATION**

Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory (ELT) is used to trace the learning processes of the three faculty members and how through reflection, correction and learning they eventually become proficient in teaching management subjects online to their students during coronavirus pandemic. Kolb (1984) ELT is a comprehensive learning theory which describes learning as "a holistic integrative perspective that combines experience, cognition and behavior" (Kolb, 1984, p. 21). The learners act, observe, reflect, and then learn from their experiences. Experiences are translated into learning episodes through action, reflection, and modification (Akella, 2010). In this entire process of learning, reflection plays a vital role, by allowing the learner to make sense of the situation, in deconstructing the problem or event into simpler parts, understanding it by making personal and social connections and reacting accordingly thereby generating new knowledge (Wilson & Lee, 1989). Learning and reflection are thus connected, i.e., "learning from experience" is synonymous to "learning from reflection on experience" (Boreham, 1987, p. 98). The entire learning process is critically reflexive of the individual experiences, assumptions, reflections, and actions (Akella, 2010). The ELT model is useful in trying to understand the learning processes of individuals, where there is an emphasis on learning by doing and on reflection. However, this model suffers from a few limitations, aspects such as power relations, gender, social status, and cultural dimensions have not been considered in the entire learning process (Vince, 1998). Yet as Brah & Hoy (1989, p. 71) and Reynolds (2009) further argue experience can never be separated from the social identity of the learner, "each of us, though unique as individuals, are positioned within society alongside hierarchies of power constructed around factors such as class, caste, racism, gender, age and sexuality...." How does our identity as a faculty member, tenured or untenured, assistant, or senior ranked professor, male or female, working in a top-ranking research institution or a smaller community type teaching institution located in different places across the world impact the overall learning process? are issues which need to be considered to provide a holistic and realistic overview of the experiential learning process.

This paper seeks to overcome this disparity in learning accounts by critically reviewing the political reflexive accounts of three faculty members in their journey to become successful online management teachers. The tensions, apprehensions, reflections, abstractions, generalization, successes, and failures of three faculty members, who are different in terms of age, gender, rank and designation and institutional locations, are critically scrutinized to gain insights on the learning processes and the influence of socio-political identities on the learning process.

### **METHODOLOGY & RESEARCH METHODS**

Autoethnographic method, a methodological technique which draws upon the experiences of the researchers to understand a particular phenomenon or culture was adopted in this study. The reflective methodology of autoethnography makes the entire process of learning come alive, making it more engaging and realistic thereby bridging the gap between the researchers and ordinary people. The researchers here don't [sit] back as spectators" (Bochner & Ellis, 1996, p. 24) but are active in terms of language (through conversations and conflicts),

behavior (actions and reactions), and emotions (inner turmoil and anxiety), allowing the readers to enter their world and become full-fledged participants in this entire research journey. While the aspect of critical reflection, an integral component of autoethnographic narratives enables a “rigorous and systematic”, evaluation of empirical data, by encompassing (1) descriptions of real live experiences and observations; (2) analysis of these experiences in the context of theoretical concepts; (3) resulting in expansion of theoretical and practical knowledge on a relevant subject or area (Rodgers, 2002, p. 863). The academic discipline of management education thus lends itself to the use of autoethnographic study by trying to answer questions which cannot be quantitatively researched for answers. It is effective in finding answers to small, day-to-day problems, usually dismissed as *mundane or normal routine type*, which educators face like the changes to decision making, understandings to be a manager, effects, and engagements of technology to staff and students, all constructs of a “*good teacher*”, important areas yet somehow under-examined within literature reviews.

Autoethnography therefore seemed an appropriate choice for this research study. Autoethnographic narratives of three management faculty members who had to shift to online teaching in Spring 2020 were critically reviewed. All three faculty members belong to diverse socio-political backgrounds and are employed in HEIs located in different parts of the world. Their reflections allow the readers to get glimpses of their problems and learn from their successes and failures.

Faculty X has been teaching management education for the last eleven years in a university in western part of India. The faculty X works in an environment where population is of high density and industrially well developed. She is young and technologically sound and considered to be a *part of the young India*. She has been actively involved in face-to-face classroom situations and only due to COVID-19 had to shift to online mode from spring-2020 onwards. Faculty Y is a senior faculty who has expiedience of teaching undergraduates, postgraduates in the field of management at various colleges and universities, He is currently serving in the north eastern part of India which is remotely located. The region is characterized by low population and hilly terrain with less developed infrastructure. He also had to adopt to the new mode of teaching online due to COVID-19 pandemic. Faculty Z teaches business administration program in a university in southern part of United States of America. She primarily teaches face-to-face classes but teaches online, to fulfill the need of the participants. She also had to shift to an online platform from spring-2020 due to COVID-19 pandemic.

## **EMPIRICAL DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION**

The narratives of the three faculty members, X, Y and Z, provided insights pertaining to the effectiveness of different types of learning management systems (LMS), various student related issues, online tools, and software available; in addition to the various psychological issues and feelings of isolation faced by the students and the faculty while teaching and learning online. Similarities were traced within the three narratives in terms of learning tactics, types of software used and preferred teaching pedagogies which were categorized under five themes consisting of: Pre-COVID online instructor, concerns for students, Post-COVID online instructor, effectiveness of online modalities and lessons learned.

**Pre-COVID Instructor:** All three faculty members, X, Y and Z were management teachers who were primarily face-to-face teachers but had taught online classes as well. Both Faculty X and Z, unlike Y, were females, however Z (same as Y) happened to be more experienced and older in comparison to X who was a millennial. All three tended to follow a similar online teaching fashion prior to COVID, involving sharing of asynchronous subject-content, followed with assessments in the form of quizzes, discussions, and assignments. X supplemented her face-to-face teaching with online quizzes. While Y was more of a 9 to 5 teacher, lecturing with exams and other assessments being offered at regular intervals. Z was teaching online classes, but hers strictly followed the asynchronous format. All three were aware of technological tools and LMS, for instance X was aware of Google Suite; while Y mentions Moodle LMS, Whatsapp, Zoom Free and Google Meet and Z mentions Desire to Learn and WebEx.

**Student Concerns:** X, Y and Z were student-oriented professors, taking cues from their students and trying to adapt themselves accordingly. X mentions that her students were centennials, technology-adept, preferring content in audio-visual appealing forms, who liked to interact with their peers and teachers and possessed short attention spans. X was therefore forced to acknowledge the need to integrate synchronous mediums onto her online class, with opportunities for students to collaborate as groups. Her students also belonged to lower socio-economic backgrounds, lacking proficiency in English language. Y's students were post-graduates, from reasonable financial backgrounds, residing in remote hilly areas with lack of internet connectivity. Z's students were Generation Z, first generation college goers, primarily African American, who did not buy textbooks and needed close connections with their instructors to perform well. The COVID lockdown which took place in March 2020, had similar impacts on the students of all three faculty members. Students did not adapt well to online platforms, they complained despite being a highly technology-savvy generation. All of them faced internet issues, LMS issues, missed the presence of their teachers and interaction with their peers. Isolated and stressed all these students' level of participation declined in their virtual classrooms with negative impacts on their grades. All three faculty members were less technologically adept compared to their students. This fact was evident in their individual narratives. X mentions "*I had to learn the latest technology apps and e-learning platforms*". Similarly, Y admits "*I was not comfortable using Moodle...found it difficult getting used to using tools such as Zoom and Google Meet...found process of shifting from physical whiteboard to a virtual board highly uncomfortable*". Z had similar issues as well. However, all three wanted to reach out to their students to increase their learning capacities and earn good grades.

**Post COVID Instructor:** Post COVID situations, found all three instructors experimenting with new types of teaching pedagogies and online tools to make their classes more student friendly and interactive. X, focused on a blend of synchronous and asynchronous mode of education, she planned to continue usage of Problem Faceting Framework (PFF) to develop questions which would allow her students to move beyond their liminal spaces and assimilate new knowledge provided. She also flipped her classes to increase student participation and engagement with course content and to increase their critical thinking abilities. Y learned virtual whiteboard and mastered Moodle LMS. He also purchased an LCD writing tablet to connect with his Operations Research course students. Z tried to make her presence visible

online through integration of discussions, case studies and connecting with students via regular emails, text messages and phone calls. She tried to make her virtual classes more engaging and interactive by incorporating collaborative team-based projects, Webex lectures and introductory videos. All three faculty members were also inspired by different theoretical frameworks pertaining to teaching and learning (be it critical inquiry framework, the PFF model, flipped classrooms or the Technology Adaption Model) which propelled them on to the path of active online teaching strategies unlike their pre-COVID days.

**Effectiveness of Online modalities:** The online modalities which the faculty members found useful were Whatsapp, online discussions, collaborative team-based projects, introductory videos, live and synchronous lectures using Google Suite, Zoom Meet and WebEx. The virtual whiteboard Google Jamboard was found to be useful for lectures involving a lot of explanations.

**Lessons Learned:** The journey from the pre-pandemic, pandemic, post-pandemic and now the *neo-normal* had been turbulent for all three faculty members; just not as individuals but also as teachers (faculty) of management. All three faculty members suffered a lot of stress and anxiety in adapting themselves to the virtual environment, they made a conscious effort to learn new software and technological tools. While their respective universities provided appropriate technological training and resources and extended support services. The situation of Y was slightly different, he had to request his university to set up a specific website with appropriate help resources etc. He even purchased an LCD tablet on his own for teaching purposes.

Based on the experiences, deliberations, and theoretical foundations of X, Y and Z, it is possible to surmise that despite all three having a different slice of (imparting) e-education, engaging in diverse flavors, they blended into a few unanimous inferences. For instance, even though all three faculty members dealt with different courses and student community, it can be deduced that blended varied e-tools aid in achievement of learning outcomes, enhancing learning effectiveness and in ensuring learning retention. While diverse e-equipment and tools, blending synchronous, asynchronous, flipped classrooms and hybridization of e-space all support success in online education (Condie & Livingston, 2007; Dziuban, Graham, Moskal, Norberg, & Sicilia, 2018). Choice of e-tools is also dependent on student related factors such as first, students' psycho-somatic selves influenced by COVID pandemic, their access to e-resources and infrastructure and finally their learning and intellectual abilities (Webster & Hackley, 1997; Proserpio & Gioia, 2007). Business faculty need to identify e-tools considering their students profiles, flexibility of pedagogy, scope of innovation and dynamic nature of curriculum and so on.

Next while learning outcomes are primal to success of educational method, what becomes more necessary in integrating appropriate theoretical constructs. Structures like Technology Acceptance Model (Venkatesh & Davis, 1996); Experiential Learning Model (Kolb, 1984); Blooms Taxonomy (Bloom, Englehart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1956; Krathwohl, Bloom, & Masia, 1956; Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001); Community Inquiry Framework (Garrison, 2017), Problem Faceting Framework (Bhardwaj, Crocker, Sims, & Wang, 2018) and like can act as substrate to sense make the entire learning process. Depending on the course and learning outcomes, due reference can be made to the theory, be it for constructing quizzes, or

designing modules and enhancing learning effectiveness. Reference to such theories aid discovery of appropriate learning pathways, and consequential learning effectiveness. At an individual level, each faculty member needs to articulate theory; and engage in reflection, contemplation, counsel, experimentation, and refinement to identify computer-aided tools that may aid their specific course. Each faculty needs to find what works for their module, in their unique context; advice on which could be sought from relevant theoretical constructs. Further in the whole exercise to enhance learning effectiveness; there is a need for *a-priori* setting of learning outcomes (Wan, Fang, & Nuefeld, 2007; Ivancevich, Gilbert, & Kanopaske, 2009). These specific objectives, act as points of reference for students, teachers, and choice of e-modes of education. Though bias can be experienced against specific e-learning modes, modules can be designed keeping learning outcomes in mind and hence right choice (blend) of e-resources can be made (Redpath, 2012). The empirical insights of this study vouch this aspect as one of the crucial sequences of initiating online education during and post-pandemic.

Lastly even though most of the countries are moving towards societal normalcy, it will still be a challenge for students and teaching fraternity to go back into physical classrooms. Partial and gradual shift from e-learning to traditional learning can eliminate chances of psychological shocks (for students and teachers, equally). The threat of infection and reverting to traditional classroom teaching could still be a challenge, in the event of which hybrid classrooms which combines teaching reduced student numbers in the classrooms with virtual platforms might emerge as the plausible solution.

## **CONCLUSION**

The tectonic shift from a traditional-mode to e-learning mode has been exasperating, turbulent and tempestuous for teachers worldwide. The three faculty members examined in this study are no exception! Despite diversity in terms of student population and courses taught, they unanimously agree that hybrid classrooms are here to stay, and it is necessary to identify a set of effective customized portfolio of teaching tools (online and offline), to transform oneself according to changing circumstances, and finally blend-in-theory and practice to teach effectively. Though, these narratives have been contextual to business education, these learnings are proportionately relevant to faculty from diverse streams. It is possible to imbibe and amalgamate learnings from distinct experiences across varied specialisms and systems. One just needs to customize relevant tools, techniques, and theories to suit one's specific educational palette. This paper concludes on the note that there needs to be a consolidated effort from all corners of the academic society to imbibe e-education. It may not be wise to drastically change the curriculum to suit online education; but time has dawned wherein responsive, proactive, and mindful adoption, is need of the hour.

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# **STAYING COMPETITIVE IN THE NEW NORMAL: A MULTI-LEVEL CONCEPTUAL EXPLORATION OF STRUCTURE AND CARING IN PREDICTING EMPLOYEE VOICE BEHAVIOR**

APRIL L. ROWSEY  
Gupta College of Business  
University of Dallas  
Irving, TX 75062

RICHARD MILLER  
University of Dallas

LAURA MUNOZ  
University of Dallas

## **INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

Remaining competitive in the face of adaptive challenges and dynamic environments requires that employees not only fulfill the key responsibilities required of their roles, but also communicate their suggestions about consumer needs, process inefficiencies, and safety and quality matters. It is therefore crucial to gain a better understanding of the key mechanisms of initiating structure and ethic of care at the work group level that impact both employee in-role performance and employee prohibitive voice. A promising perspective is offered by the exploration of Regulatory Focus Theory (RFT), a theory of self-regulation, which has emerged in the performance domains within the past two decades as a means of explaining the important cognitive drivers used in both goal attainment (Lanaj et al. 2012) and behaviors in the workplace (Neubert et al., 2008).

With more than three quarters of all employees in America reporting working as a member of at least one team (Gallup, 2017; Mathieu et al., 2018), some of the most information-rich sources of situational workplace stimuli are the norms and expectations reflected in the behaviors of the employee's own proximal work group. These observable team stimuli modeled within the group could serve as an influence through the priming or suppressing a specific self-regulatory focus in the minds of its members. The need for research in this area is vital as the trend toward groups and teams in the workplace is increasing.

Previous studies have examined the influence of leader behavior stimuli (Neubert et al., 2008) as a primer for employee prevention focus, but less is known about the influence of behaviors at the work group level as a primer of regulatory focus. This paper addresses the influence of workgroup level initiating structure as a primer or antecedent for work regulatory focus which, in turn, may well contribute to prohibitive voice behavior and in-role performance. Our conceptual model proposes relationships with the constructs of prevention regulatory focus mediating the influence of work group initiating structure and both prohibitive voice and in-role performance.

Another unique perspective of this research is the examination of social care and compassion in work groups as a potential moderating contributor to the relationship. Ethic of Care (EoC), the perspective developed by Gilligan (1982), posits that humans are foundationally relational and socially connected through practices of caring and support. Nicholson and Kurucz (2017) articulated a “relational leadership for sustainability,” which broadly defines an EoC perspective of “human development...with the ultimate goal of individual and societal flourishing” (p. 26), which seems altogether consistent with the diverse agenda of managerial objectives that contribute to the sustainable functioning of the organization.

## **PROPOSITION DEVELOPMENT**

### **Work Group Initiating Structure and Employee Prevention Focus**

Specific types of stimuli, often observable within groups, are the instrumental activities of highly directive and task-oriented forms of behavior and House et al. (1971) described instrumental activities as forms of initiating structure because they are necessary for the mobilization and allocation of resources required to enable the functions of growing organizations. Neubert et al. (2008) were the first to propose, and find support for, initiating structure behavior (of a leader) functioning as a primer for a prevention focused mindset in subordinate employees. Although principally studied as a consequence of leader behavior, Halpin’s (1957) conceptualization of structuring behavior as the influence or pressure on organizational members to focus on meeting and adhering to expectations does not preclude members in a work group as a source of this influence or pressure. Indeed, past group and team literature have routinely highlighted the influence of group behaviors, norms, and expectations on the cognitive mindset and behavioral outcomes of group members (Gibson & Vermeulen, 2003; Keller, 2001; Klein et al., 2006). Thus, when a work group prioritizes and emphasizes task completion, policy adherence, or obligation fulfillment, the climate is more oriented toward defining performance, goal, and role expectations (Fleishman, 1998) as well as directing and structuring group members’ tasks (Bass, 1990). Consequently, initiating structure (or process-focused climate) at the work group level could contribute to evoking work group members’ prevention focus. Thus, it is proposed that:

*Proposition 1: Work group initiating structure is positively related to employee prevention focus.*

### **Prevention Focus and Prohibitive Voice Behavior**

Both prevention focus mindset and prohibitive voice behavior share a common interest and motivation in preventing loss or avoiding pain (Liang et al., 2012). Whereas a prevention-focused mindset is committed to detecting potential problems (losses) and threats to the status quo (Delegach et al., 2017; Wallace et al., 2013), communicating about these potential problems and threats involves the expression of prohibitive voice (Liang et al., 2012). The benefits of prohibitive voice expressed by employees, who are often familiar with the processes and the effects of both day-to-day decisions and strategic actions, have been associated with various positive outcomes including preventing crisis situations (Schwartz & Wald, 2003), enhancing

organizational safety performance (Li et al., 2017), and improving organizational sustainability (Carmeli et al., 2017; Nicholson & Kurucz, 2017; Paille' et al., 2016). Because of the similarities that prevention focus and prohibitive voice share in terms of needs (security), goals (to avoid desired states), and performance strategy (vigilance), the literature has shown that an employee's prevention focus predicts subsequent expressions of prohibitive voice behavior (Lin & Johnson, 2015). Thus, it is proposed that:

*Proposition 2: Employee prevention focus is positively related to prohibitive voice behavior.*

### **Prevention Focus and In-role Performance**

The same drivers that influence prevention focused mindset to attend to information that contribute to losses and failure are also the same drivers that make in-role performance possible (Wallace et al., 2013). Part of performing well in a work role requires attending to rules, consequences of deviating from those rules and policies, and adhering to performance standards. A prevention-focused mindset values those exact behaviors (Higgins & Tykocinski 1992; Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). The performance strategies of vigilance, attention to detail/accuracy, and a sense of obligation for fulfilling duties and expectations (Förster et al., 2003) employed by a prevention-focused mindset could also be considered successful performance behaviors for succeeding in a work role. Thus, it is proposed that:

*Proposition 3: Employee prevention focus is positively related to in-role performance.*

### **Moderating Effect of Ethic of Care**

The revived interest in care and human flourishing in the social science literature recognizes that a care perspective, regardless of level within the organization, emphasizes the importance of interconnected relational obligation (Gilligan, 1982) and is comprised of not only cognitive appraisal and inquiry but also productive emotional engagement (Linsley, 2013). Liedtka (1996) further described that a culture of caring prioritizes the relationship between each member of the organization and establishes a personal cognitive and emotional connection between an individual and the other stakeholders, both internal and externally, of the organization as referenced in the table below. Thus, the EoC perspective of prioritizing the relationships with, and perspectives of, proximal others (Liedtka, 1996) is a promising factor when explaining the resulting employee approaches to both in- and extra role behaviors in the workplace (Fletcher, 2012; Nicholson & Kurucz, 2017). Employees' perception of a work group EoC serves as an influence evoking work group members' EoC for self and for others (Carmeli et al., 2017). Consequently, employees' EoC contribute to positive behaviors (Paille' et al., 2016) in the workplace. Since the expression of prohibitive voice behavior is a form of constructive extra-role and discretionary behavior in the workplace, it is proposed that:

*Proposition 4a: Employee work group EoC positively moderates the relationship between employees' prevention focus and prohibitive voice.*

*Proposition 4b: Employee work group EoC positively moderates the relationship between employees' prevention focus and in-role performance.*

**Table 1**

⊕ Differences between market-oriented firm and caring-oriented firm:

Role	Business as market (transaction)	Business as caring (relationship)
Customers	Ancillary: Process is driven by organization's need to sell its solutions to some identified set of problems. These come with customers attached.	Primary: Process is driven by the organization's desire to attend carefully to customer's self-defined needs and aspirations and facilitate their achievement.
Employees	Expendable/replaceable: their labor is purchased at market rates in order to produce and sell organization's solutions	Primary: developing members of a community of mutual purpose and linchpin that creates the organizational capability set and connects it with customer needs
Organization & Senior Management	Primary: To plan, supervise, control, and monitor the processes of production and selling to ensure quality and efficiency.	Supporting: To create a caring context and systems which provide resources and decentralized authority that enables employees to care for customers.

Note: Adapted from Liedtka (1996)

## CONCLUSION

Tim McClure, professional speaker and brand leadership consultant, once remarked, “The biggest concern for any organization should be when their most passionate people become quiet.” This remark illustrates both the instrumental and the symbolic perspectives about the importance of voice to organizations. An instrumental perspective acknowledges that employee voice contributes relevant suggestions and concerns crucial for the success or protection of organizational well-being in a VUCA world. From a symbolic perspective, it is a concerning signal to managers when employees opt for silence or exit instead of voice. Therefore, it is in

management's instrumental interest to understand the workplace mechanisms which contribute to, or inhibit, the expression of prohibitive voice.

Investigating the relationships proposed here would require capturing information about more stable and chronic regulatory focus and general affect for control purposes which would provide the basis for judgments about the trait-based qualities of general affect and regulatory focus. Tenure as a team member as well as experience and performance should also be controlled for. Future research in this area will also benefit from longitudinal research designs that explore how these behaviors change over time as the tenure within the team increases. Additional points of interest for future streams of research include the study of remote or virtual teams to see what insights might be uncovered in these relationships as teams are physically distant as is more commonly the case during the COVID pandemic.

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# **WHAT ASPECTS OF THE PERFORMANCE REVIEW PROCESS ARE RELATED TO EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT AND SATISFACTION?**

LINSIE HIGGINS

BlackHawk Industrial Supply  
1501 SW Expressway Drive  
Broken Arrow, OK 74012

JENNIFER L. KISAMORE

University of Oklahoma-Tulsa

## **ABSTRACT**

Performance management is a continuous process that includes performance reviews, goal management, recognition, succession planning, development, and coaching. Performance management is one of the most important tasks managers perform but performance review processes vary greatly between organizations. This study investigated whether employees' satisfaction with performance review processes are related to employee engagement and whether specific features of the performance review process are related to employee satisfaction and engagement. The goal of this study was to examine how such processes can enhance organizational utilization of human capital. This survey-based study was conducted online via Qualtrics. Participants were recruited using social media-based network sampling. Data were collected from 113 working adults of which 100 provided enough data to be used in analyses.

Results indicated that employee satisfaction with the performance review process is significantly positively related to the three facets of employee engagement, specifically vigor, dedication, and absorption. Inclusion of succession planning in the review process was positively correlated with satisfaction with the process but not with any facet of employee engagement. Results of the current study suggest that, when done well, performance review processes may contribute to employee satisfaction and engagement. Organizations should seek to use performance review processes in ways that enhance their strategic use of human resources rather than view such processes only as administrative exercises.

## **DESIGNING FLEXIBLE COURSES: AGILITY IN THE FACE OF CRISIS**

**KAREN FORD-EICKHOFF**  
University of North Carolina Charlotte  
9201 University City Boulevard  
Charlotte, NC 28223

**LAURA MADDEN**  
East Carolina University

**TIMOTHY MADDEN**  
East Carolina University

**NATASHA WILKINS RANDLE**  
University of North Carolina Charlotte

### **INTRODUCTION**

We did not foresee the coronavirus pandemic of 2020. However, we had initially intentionally built flexibility into our course designs, and this flexibility ultimately resulted in greater agility in responding to the effects of the pandemic quickly when our universities moved our classes from a face-to-face format to online almost overnight. In this panel discussion, we will share with our SWAM colleagues the design ideas we have successfully implemented over many years in our courses.

Strategic management and tragedy are uniquely suited to each other. Strategy is a future-oriented discipline (Gaddis, 1997), and, although scholars do not know exactly which changes will impact universities and other organizations in the future, they can identify trends that are likely. Likewise, tragedy and suffering are paradoxically inevitable yet unpredictable by nature (Dutton, Worline, Frost, & Lilius, 2006). During the course of any single semester, there will almost certainly be tragedies that impact students, faculty members, and entire communities – but which tragedies and when they will occur are uncertain.

Crafting an effective course design is no small feat. Most of us faculty in higher education have had little or no training in designing courses (Bonner, Stone, Mittal, Phillips, & Utecht, 2020; Fink, 2003; Marx, Garcia, Butterfield, Kappen, & Baldwin, 2016), and we rely considerably on trial and error. As David A. Whetton (2007: 1) so aptly put it, the principles of effective course design are “the things I wish someone had taught me 30 years ago.” We want our students to learn the concepts and skills that will help them be successful in the future, in whatever way success is defined for each individual, and many of us recognize that good teaching does not necessarily lead to effective learning (Hrivnak, 2019). Designing courses which focus on the diverse learning styles of students, active learning through interactions with faculty and other students, and the communication of high expectations for student engagement in the learning process are principles that faculty have come to recognize as important for

effective learning to take place (Bridgman, McLaughlin, & Cummings, 2018; Deslauriers, McCarty, Miller, Callaghan, & Kestin, 2019; Stewart, Houghton, & Rogers, 2012; Tomkins & Ulus, 2016; Whetton, 2007). Students have expressed that they perceive the most effective learning to be when faculty help them apply the concepts and skills we are discussing in our classes in the students' own lives, values, and experiences (Light, 2001; Strayer, 2012).

Faculty must design their courses based on the material to be covered and the methods they believe are most effective for student learning. Especially as a result of the coronavirus pandemic, we have now seen that *flexibility* in the design of courses is also crucial. Within the domain of management pedagogy, we can design course structures in times of calm that are flexible enough to result in resilience during times of chaos. This approach models realistic managerial behavior and makes explicit to students that structuring the course for flexibility benefits students and faculty alike (Rieckmann, 2012).

The SWAM Annual Conference is the perfect venue for faculty from different colleges and universities to share ideas for designing flexible course syllabi. Panel discussion attendees will leave with well-tested and award-winning approaches they can incorporate in their own course syllabi.

### **PANEL DISCUSSION FORMAT**

This panel discussion will be a highly interactive session in which attendees will learn how to design flexible courses from panelists who have extensive experience with course design across modalities. Attendees will hear about practical techniques that have proven to work well in our courses. Attendees will also be encouraged to engage in the conversation by sharing their own ideas with the panelists and other attendees.

### **CONCLUSION**

This panel discussion meets the SWAM call for thinking about how “we as academics manage the New Normal” and showcasing best practices in teaching and curricular design. Because all faculty must accommodate changes in schedule and methods due to unforeseen events, the session will appeal to a wide audience, including Ph.D. students and new faculty who have little experience teaching as well as more experienced faculty who are exploring new ways for building greater flexibility into their course designs. Panel discussion attendees will be an integral part of the discussion, and the SWAM Annual Conference will provide the opportunity for a conversation among faculty from many different institutions about a timely topic that is very much on the minds of attendees currently.

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# **APPLICATION OF DATA SCIENCE ACROSS DIFFERENT CONTEXTS: A COMPARISON OF MULTIPLE USE-CASES IN ORGANIZATIONS ACROSS INDUSTRIES INVOLVING BIG DATA**

**ANUP NAIR**  
Star India  
Mumbai, India

**DENNY THOMAS**  
Freelance Editor  
New York, US

**KARISHMAA OLUCHI**  
Freelance Creative Director

**PRANEET TIWARI**  
Austin E. Cofrin School of Business  
University of Wisconsin- Green Bay, US

**VALLARI CHANDNA**  
Austin E. Cofrin School of Business  
University of Wisconsin- Green Bay, US

## **ABSTRACT**

Organizations often find themselves in a conundrum: they constantly gather data on their consumers or users, yet often they are restricted in how they can use this big data strategically. The constraints may not necessarily be technological, but could relate to limited human resources, use of multiple data types, ethical or legal restrictions on data usage, among others. We discuss how big data needs and utilization vary across organizations and industries by using five real world organizations as illustrative instances. We include organizations from higher education, election campaigns, TV channel marketing, healthcare, and production houses. We conclude by offering theoretical insights and practical suggestions.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Over the last few years, the use of big data regardless of industry, has been increasing. Vast amounts of data can be gathered and analyzed with the tools and techniques available to us (Sheng, Amankwah-Amoah and Wang, 2017). However, organizations differ in their need for data, the type of data they collect, and the utilization of data, based on their industries (Akhtar, Khan, Rao-Nicholson and Zhang, 2019). While the role of data and data science has been growing in business, not every organization collects large amounts of quantitative, easily analyzable data (e.g. an organization who conducts interview data). Others may collect more sensitive data (e.g. healthcare firms). Still others, may have the ability to gather the data but it is

stored for use until a later date (e.g. a private college). There is a need to better understand how data requirements and utilization varies across organizations and industries as do the related challenges (Ducange, Pecori and Mezzina, 2017). To this end, we illustrate five real world use-cases and how they utilize data strategically. For each of these, we start out by describing the organizational context and the types of data they gather. We then contrast their big data use-behaviors that can serve as best practices for other industries, the best theoretical lenses or frameworks that would help researchers better understand data usage in such contexts cases allowing for practical suggestions for those industries, and we identify the main data-related challenge faced by those organizations. Case studies allow for exploratory insights when it comes to data use (Vidgen, Shaw and Grant, 2017).

## **USE-CASE DESCRIPTIONS**

### **Use-Case 1**

Consider the context of a public, regional four-year US university with a student population close to 10,000 students. The university is able to gather data on all of these students that includes their career plans, academic performances, socio-economic conditions as well as their demographic and other identity-related information. The data specificity can be quite high such as amount of time spent in a specific course down to minutes or even seconds. However, the utilization of this big data poses its own challenges. While the data is available, the number or expertise-level of skilled individuals to analyze it, may be lacking, as many public universities face financial constraints. Additionally, much of the data related to retention for example, can only be used by expert staff such as advisors. Thus, while much of the broader data can serve with strategic planning and development, this is accompanied by limitations in available expertise, and financial constraints, which may make the more nuanced data, less usable.

### **Use-Case 2**

Consider the context of an election campaign for a leading US politician. The campaign is able to gather data on potential voters and donors that relate to their household, their demographic, political beliefs and ideologies. Campaigns use this big data to create targeted advertising, for digital marketing and to modify their appeals e.g. votes, funds, variation in fund amounts requested, or other support. The amount of data can be quite vast. There are also legal restrictions on how this data can be used. Additionally, some of this information can later be obtained under the Freedom of information Act requiring that a balance be maintained between making some data available, while securely protecting other elements of data.

### **Use-Case 3**

Consider the context of the marketing division of a national television channel that appeals to a mid-sized demographic. The organization runs multiple advertising campaigns to promote its own shows and can gather data on consumer viewing habits as well as social media engagement data. This latter also allows access to data on consumers social media accounts and

usage levels. From a marketing standpoint, the data needs to be utilized for creating repeatable instances of success. If one promotional marketing campaign is successful, the same needs to be replicated; if it fails, the errors needs to be identified and avoided. The gathered big data can assist in determining which features of a promotional marketing campaign are successful and which fail, thereby ensuring more positive outcomes. All of this is made possible of course by understanding which data is truly relevant (Ervelles, Fukawa and Swayne, 2016).

#### **Use-Case 4**

Consider the context of a firm that manages healthcare debt. In the healthcare industry, despite insurance being the dominant mode of payment in the US, many consumers may have to pay some or all their costs personally. A debt-management firm utilizes vast amounts of patient data to determine the likelihood of payment thus allowing healthcare providers to redirect their energies to those likely to make payments. Such a firm would thus have access to vast amounts of medical data, as well as financial and socio-economic data. Utilizing this big data to make accurate predictions of likelihood of payment is one fraught with many issues such as handling of the data, finding reliable partner firms in compliance of HIPPA laws as well utilizing the data ethically.

#### **Use-Case 5**

Consider the context of TV production company that develops and produces TV shows. The big data gathered by such an entity will be partly quantitative (viewership data) and partly qualitative (focus groups of viewers). This helps determine the popularity of shows, testing new pilots, insights into preferred actors, show preferences across regions or states etc. Thus, vast amounts of data of differing types is gathered that helps with future strategic planning to develop future shows and modify existing ones as needed to better suit the demographical preferences. Often ongoing changes in shows are made possible as well. Consumer data impacts decision-making at multiple levels of the organizational (Hofacker, Malthouse, Edward and Sultan, 2016).

### **TABULAR SUMMARY OF USE-CASES**

Thus, based on this underlying preview of context and type of data used by each of these five use-cases, we identify the greatest challenges, theoretical lenses, and noteworthy features that could serve as imitable best practices for other industries. Given the knowledge gaps in a developing field of study, we offer some initial insights into the impact of industry context (Akhtar, Khan, Rao-Nicholson and Zhang, 2019).

Table 1: Depicts overview of different contexts in which data is used:

	<b>Case 1: Higher Education</b>	<b>Case 2: Election Campaign</b>	<b>Case 3: TV Channel marketing</b>	<b>Case 4: Healthcare</b>	<b>Case 5: Production Company</b>
<b>Types of data gathered</b>	Student information, performance, socio-economic and other demographic data	Household data, political leanings and ideological beliefs, demographic data	Consumer data - preferences and tastes, some level of demographic data, social media data	Medical data, socio-economic and other demographic data, some level of household data.	Consumer data-preferences and tastes, some level of demographic data
<b>Noteworthy practices/features</b>	Ability of manage large amounts of data; critical to gather data from multiple sources.	Ability to manage personal data securely; non-commercial use of data is unique as it's not for a product/service nor is it for charity.	Ability to manage assorted types of data- social media data, and viewership.	Ability to manage large amount of highly sensitive data; serves as illustrative example to those industries that are still developing compliance of laws	Ability to manage vast amounts of qualitative data.
<b>Theoretical Lens/Framework</b>	Resource-Dependence Theory	Ethics	Resource-Dependence Theory and Contingency Theory	Ethics and CSR	Contingency Theory
<b>Main data-related challenge</b>	How to best use the vast amounts of data with minimal resource expenditure	How to ethically use the data gathered for targeted marketing?	How do we use data to replicate viral advertising campaigns?	How to ethically use the data for optimal results	How to collate, organize and make sense of vast amounts of data?

## CONCLUSION

Our aims in providing this illustrative comparison are manifold: (1) despite the constant conversations of data use in business, discuss how there are numerous limitations and idiosyncrasies related to data usage, (2) offer insights into how different organizations utilize data and discuss challenges with the same to afford future researchers potential avenues of exploration and (3) build a set of real world cases that students of data science can study, interpret and discuss in a business classroom setting.

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## LITERATURE REVIEW OF HISPANICS AT WORK

Laura Guerrero  
University of Houston – Clear Lake  
2700 Bay Area Blvd.  
Houston, TX 77058

Stephanie Black  
Texas A&M San Antonio

Donna M. Blancero  
Bentley University

Hispanics live in the US but “who (1) are indigenous to Mexico, the Caribbean, and [...] Central and South America [...] or (2) trace their origins to Spain and the Spanish-speaking regions of Latin America and the Caribbean” (Stone et al., 2006, p. 9). It is important to study Hispanics in the workplace because it will help us better understand management, workers and organizations when the demographics of our studies reflect the demographics of the workplace.

### METHOD

We searched for relevant peer-reviewed studies in the most commonly used databases. We searched the terms employee or worker combined with Chicano, Chicana, Hispanic, Latino, Latina, Mexican, Mexican-American, and immigrant. Initially, we identified 1128 articles. We excluded papers that: (1) were not empirical or quantitative, (2) were not related to workers, (3) examined outcomes not resulting from psychological constructs, (4) were about Hispanics not living in the US, or (5) did not report separate findings for Hispanics. We included 129 articles.

### Findings about Hispanics at work

We grouped studies by topics. In this extended paragraph, we will not list all the studies included in the final review. We found studies about *job satisfaction*. Hispanics had higher job satisfaction than other groups (Booth & Newman, 1977; Kaye et al., 1999; Lankau & Scandura, 1996; McNeely, 1989). Spanish-surname workers had higher job satisfaction than Blacks, but lower than Anglos (Ash, 1972). Antecedents of job satisfaction for Hispanics included having a job that was not dull, having knowledgeable managers, being able to use one’s abilities, and not having too much pressure (McNeely, 1989), having a supervisor who encouraged teamwork and allowed workers to complain (McNeely, 1987), intrinsic values of work, promotion, supervision, recognition, congenial organizational environment, benefits (Moyes et al., 2006), and co-worker support (Hoppe et al., 2014). Other antecedents were position, organizational commitment (Lankau & Scandura, 1996), and organizational justice (Heron et al., 2018).

Another topic was *turnover*. In Leonard and Levine (2006), Hispanics had lower turnover than Anglos and Asians, but in Hom et al. (2008) Hispanic women and Asian women had higher turnover than males or Anglos. Diversity lowered turnover for Hispanics (Leonard & Levine, 2006). Blancero and DelCampo (2007) found that stress was positively related to turnover, but flexible work schedules and telecommuting, having elder care, and perceptions of fairness were negatively related to turnover. Other studies investigated *other job outcomes*. Forst and Lehman (1997) showed Hispanics had more absences in sample 1 and fewer absences in sample 2 than Anglos. Yet, in both samples, Hispanics had lower levels of psychological withdrawal and organizational commitment, and more positive work behaviors and higher job involvement. They had lower levels of antagonism and higher perceptions of safe work environment in sample 2, and higher job satisfaction in sample 1.

Another topic was the *interface between work and family*. Grzywacz et al. (2007) found that Hispanic women reported higher levels of work-to-family conflict (WFC) than Hispanic men, and that both physical and psychological demands at work were positively related to WFC. Beutell and Schneer (2014) found that women had higher work interfering with family (WIF) and higher work-family synergy (WFS) than men. For women, autonomy, schedule flexibility and supervisor support were negatively related to WIF. For men, hours worked were positively related to WIF. For both, autonomy was positively related to WFS. DelCampo and Hinrichs (2006) found that Hispanics of lower socioeconomic status had lower levels of WFC. Another topic were *roles*. Triandis et al. (1984) found that Hispanics perceived less intimacy, love and respect in work roles than non-Hispanics who perceived less control, superordination and even hostility in work roles. Although both groups felt a pull toward the family, non-Hispanics also felt a push out of the family to escape superordination and control of high-status family members and more pull toward work roles. Hispanics saw more hierarchy in work roles, and non-Hispanics saw more hierarchy in family roles. Zhang et al. (2014) found that Hispanic women had higher career role commitment and lower parental role commitment than Anglo women.

Another topic was *sexual harassment*. Shupe et al. (2002) found that less acculturated Hispanic women were less likely to perceive that they had been sexually harassed. Hispanic women who were less affiliated with the dominant culture had worse job outcomes due to harassment. Wasti and Cortina (2002) found that Hispanic women were less likely than Anglo women to report the harasser, more likely to avoid him and to deny the harassment's seriousness.

Another topic was *discrimination*. Hispanics and Blacks reported greater experiences of discrimination (Avery et al., 2008; Jones et al., 2009; Kravitz & Klineberg, 2000). In Ortega (1999), Blacks had highest perception of discrimination, then Hispanics and Anglos the lowest. When asked about other groups, Hispanic immigrants perceived the least discrimination against Blacks and the most discrimination against Hispanics (Kravitz & Klineberg, 2000). US-born Hispanics and Anglos perceived the least discrimination against Hispanics (Kravitz & Klineberg, 2000). Another topic was *fairness*. Among Hispanics, perceptions of discrimination were related to lower levels of perception of psychological contract fairness (DelCampo & Blancero, 2008; Blancero et al., 2007). Woznyj et al. (2017) found that for Hispanics, when trust in the supervisor was low, perceptions of microaggressions were negatively related to interpersonal justice.

Another topic was preference for some *job attributes*. Hispanics wanted greater job clarity (Edwards et al., 1991) and job security (Booth-Kewley et al., 1993) than non-Hispanics. Hispanics were more likely to prefer flexible work hours, promotion opportunities, bonuses, and diversity than Anglos (Stone et al., 2006). Hispanics were more likely to place more importance on work location, mentoring opportunities, and opportunities to help others (Stone et al., 2007).

Another topic was *career and job perceptions*. Smith-Jackson et al. (2010) found that Hispanics perceived lower control of their work, higher risk, and lower self-efficacy than Anglos. Durst et al. (2018) found that Hispanics were more likely than English-speakers to recommend their workplace to others, to prefer teamwork, to perceive that rules were applied fairly, to understand how work contributed to organizational goals, to know who the supervisor was, to perceive that the employer held employees accountable, and to be interested in learning.

Another topic was *beliefs or perceptions*. Buttner and Lowe (2015) found Hispanics were less likely to trust management. Riordan and Shore (1997) found that Hispanics had lower attitudes in mostly Anglo and mostly minority work groups and had higher attitudes when no ethnic group was dominant. Another topic was *job behaviors*. When compared to non-Hispanics, Hispanics scored higher on impression management (Booth-Kewley et al., 1992). Ramirez (2002) found that Hispanic supervisors were rated as more likely to have culturally relevant knowledge, provide culturally relevant training, and strategic use of Spanish than non-Hispanic supervisors.

Another topic of research was *hiring*. Viswesvaran and Ones (2004) found that Hispanics were concerned about invasiveness of personnel selection systems. Hispanics were less interested in objectivity of the selection system and the opportunity to review scoring than Asians. Peppas (2006a) found that Hispanics valued these criteria more so than non-Hispanics when hiring: age, community involvement, disposition, initiative, and loyalty. Hispanics valued these criteria less than non-Hispanics: mannerisms, marital status, oral communication, school-age children, school reputation, sex, willingness to relocate, and work experience. Krueger et al. (2014) found that Hispanics were more likely than Anglos to recommend overweight applicants.

Another topic was *performance appraisals*. Thompson & Thompson (1985) found that Hispanics received highest rating for safety and housekeeping in task-based performance appraisals. Carroll et al. (1987) found that Hispanic managers had higher ratings than Anglo managers. Landau (1995) found that Hispanics were not rated lower than Anglos in promotion potential, unlike women, Blacks, and Asians who were rated lower.

Another topic was *language*. Guerrero et al. (2017) found that speaking Spanish in general was positively related to speaking Spanish with customers, co-workers and managers. Density of Spanish speaking customers was positively related to speaking Spanish with customers and co-workers, but not managers. Speaking Spanish at work was positively related to working the less desirable night shift and negatively related to intentions to quit. Nelson et al. (2016) found that speakers with Spanish accents were rated as less competent than speakers with North American accents. Another topic was *acculturation*. Olson et al. (2013) found that Hispanics had lower level of socialization acculturation and language acculturation than non-

Hispanics. Allen et al. (1998) found that Hispanic women had more emotional acculturative stress than men. For Hispanic men, praise was negatively related to acculturative stress.

Another topic was *emotional intelligence*. Among Hispanic professionals, emotional intelligence was positively related to transformational leadership (Corona, 2010). Also, emotional intelligence competencies were positively related to project outcomes (Trejo, 2016). A related topic was *job stress*. Rodriguez-Calcagno and Brewer (2005) found that Hispanics had higher job stress levels, and higher job pressure than the normative group. Hispanic women had higher levels of job stress than Hispanic men.

## **DISCUSSION**

One conclusion is there are very few patterns because Hispanics are a heterogenous group. One pattern is that Hispanics tend to have higher job satisfaction than other groups (e.g., Kaye et al., 1999; McNeely, 1989). Another one is that both Hispanics and Blacks report greater experiences of discrimination than Anglos (e.g., Avery et al., 2008; Kravitz & Klineberg, 2000). The rest of the literature review finds that each study is different and points toward a different aspect of Hispanics in the workplace. This heterogeneity leads to results that are inconsistent and do not necessarily form a pattern of findings. Researchers should continue to focus on specific samples of Hispanics such as business professionals or low-wage workers so that one can generalize findings to that particular group rather than attempt to generalize to all Hispanics.

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# **SPECIES, ORGANIZATIONS, AND HOPEFUL MONSTERS: INTEGRATING ORGANIZATIONAL AND PALEONTOLOGICAL PUNCTUATED EQUILIBRIUM METAPHORS**

W. SCOTT SHERMAN, PH.D.  
Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi  
6300 Ocean Drive  
Corpus Christi, Tx 78412  
scott.sherman@tamucc.edu

## **INTRODUCTION**

The effects of the Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic are widespread and worldwide. The data as of late October 2020 includes more than 43 million reported cases worldwide, 1.15 million global deaths, and 225,215 deaths in the U.S. (John Hopkins University, 2020). The U.S. economic pandemic impact is projected to exceed \$16 trillion, more than the 2008 Great Recession (Rainey, 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic certainly qualifies as an environmental jolt (Meyer, 1982) and an important question is what organizations falter when their environment is jolted and what organizations thrive (Bradley, Aldrich, Shepherd, and Wiklund, 2011). This paper will address this question by extending the application of the punctuated equilibrium model by incorporating three elements of the model's paleontological origins not fully integrated into organizational studies: allopatric speciation, sympatric speciation, and macromutations or "hopeful monsters". Organizational studies view punctuated equilibrium as an evolutionary process distinguished by alternating extended periods of quasi-equilibrium and incremental organizational change with short episodes of disequilibrium and quantum organizational changes initiated by an environmental jolt (Haveman, Russo, and Meyer, 2001). The punctuated equilibrium model originated in paleontology (Mayr, 1942) and was popularized by paleontologists (Gould and Eldredge, 1977). This paper will explore three critical elements of paleontological punctuated equilibrium, integrate those processes into the organizational punctuated equilibrium model, and offer propositions on how this incorporation may aid in understanding what may occur as organizations recover from and react to the COVID-19 pandemic. The paper also will offer implications for researchers and managers.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **Environmental Jolts**

Efforts to understand the effects of organizational environments so turbulent that "the very ground appears to be in motion" (Emery and Trist, 1965:23) dates back more than fifty years. Environmental jolts are defined as "ambiguous events that also benefit organizations (Meyer, 1982: 535) whose "transient perturbations are difficult to foresee and whose impacts on organizations are disruptive" (Meyer, 1982:515). Environmental jolts may alter environmental munificence (Dess and Beard, 1984), reduce current firm strategy effectiveness (Meyer, Brooks, and Goes, 1990), and threaten a firm's competitive position (Chakrabarti, 2015). This paper follows a more positive view of environmental jolts as being an "altered set of opportunities and firms that recognize where these

opportunities lie would reap significant benefits” (Wan and Yiu, 2009:792). Discontinuous industry-level jolts are viewed as “radical opportunities” to create entirely new markets and uses (Shepherd, McMullen, and Ocasio, 2017: 633) and provide corporate boards clear opportunities to bolster firm value (Toledo, Giraldez-Puiz, and Hurtado-Gonzalez, 2017). The literature alternately describes drastic environmental changes as “environmental jolts” (e.g., Meyer, 1982) or “environmental shocks” (e.g., Chakrabarti, 2014). This paper will use “environmental jolt” and treats the two terms as synonymous.

## **Paleontological Punctuated Equilibrium**

Paleontological punctuated equilibrium is a biological evolution model based on a paleontological interpretation of fossil records (Gould & Eldredge, 1977; Eldredge, 1989). The paleontological punctuated equilibrium process involves extended periods of little or no environmental change, relatively constant distribution of species in the environment, and similar constancy in species genetic constitution. New genetic forms may occur and survive in niches along the environmental periphery. This extended equilibrium may be punctuated by rapid environmental changes that shift resource constraints or alter barriers separating species such that species that were dominant may wane or perish, and species that were recessive may prosper and become dominant (Eldredge, 1989). Evolution is an uneven process of lengthy relative stasis punctuated by sudden dramatic shifts, and contrasts sharply with Darwin's phyletic gradualism that posits that evolution is the slow transformation of species over time (Darwin, 1859).

An important point regarding paleontological punctuated equilibrium is that new recessive species that emerge during relatively calm environmental periods are protected from being overwhelmed by more dominant species by allopatric or sympatric speciation (Eldredge, 1989). Allopatric speciation is when recessive species are geographically isolated from dominant species. An example is the Galápagos giant tortoises, separated from most predators and interbreeding with more conventional tortoises by the Pacific Ocean. Sympatric speciation occurs when recessive species exist in less hospitable niches among the more dominant species. Examples of sympatric speciation include the different tilapia species co-existing in African lakes, and denoted by unique species-specific feeding practices (Eldredge, 1989). Sympatric species creation is more gradual than allopatric change, more difficult to detect as it occurs, and is rarer because dominant species overwhelm the recessive species unless variations between species are unequivocal and discrete (Mayr, 1942; Eldredge, 1989).

Recessive forms that survive during lengthy stasis periods develop an ability to exist on marginal resources precisely because they survived along the environmental periphery. Recessive forms learn to survive on marginal resources, which can become advantageous if an environmental jolt reduces environmental munificence so that the larger environment parallels what was the recessive form's niche. For example, a lake drying up may allow a shore-dwelling recessive crustacean species to supplant the previously dominant lake-dwelling variant (Eldredge, 1989). Evolution occurs as recessive species that existed prior to the environmental jolt rise to prominence following such jolts and as the formerly dominant species recede.

Paleontological punctuated equilibrium does not suggest that environmental punctuations create new species (Eldredge, 1989). Allopatric and sympatric species gain experience in surviving along the environmental periphery and these experiences may be what allows these

species to flourish if environmental munificence is reduced during an environmental shift (Eldredge, 1989). Singular, spontaneously-generated mutants -- macromutations or “hopeful monsters” (Goldshmidt, 1940) – lack experience in surviving along the periphery and cannot reproduce because they are sufficiently different from the dominant species (Eldredge, 1989).

## **Organizational Punctuated Equilibrium**

The paleontological model of punctuated equilibrium first entered organizational literature in a discussion of technological innovation as a series of increasingly incremental improvements to an innovation, which are then supplanted by newer technological innovations as the process repeats itself (Mensch, 1979) and how incremental organizational change processes are sometimes supplanted by discontinuous changes (Astley, 1985). The paleontological punctuated equilibrium model and Astley’s organizational interpretation of punctuated equilibrium were both used as exemplars of industry-level quantum environmental changes in the development of environmental jolt typologies (Meyer, et al., 1990). A common theme in organization punctuated equilibrium models describe extended periods of quasi-equilibrium and incremental organizational change alternating with short episodes of disequilibrium and quantum organizational changes initiated by an exogenous shock (Flink, 2017; Gersick, 1991; Haveman, et al., 2001; Romanelli and Tushman, 1994; Sherman, 1999; Sharp, 2019; Tushman & Romanelli, 1985; Tushman, Newman, & Romanelli, 1986). Organizational applications range from groups (Gersick, 1991) to organizations (Haveman, et al., 2001; Sherman, 1999; Tushman & Romanelli, 1985) to regulatory government policy (Sharp, 2019; Flink, 2017; Baumgartner, Jones, and Mortensen, 2014). Few discuss allopatric or sympatric speciation, with one exception (Sherman, 1999). Many include macromutations – the generation of a new dominant organizational form by the environmental jolt – as integral to organizational punctuated equilibrium (Gersick, 1991; Haveman, et al., 2001; Tushman & Romanelli, 1985). This employment of macromutations differs with paleontological punctuated equilibrium, which states that macromutations – or “hopeful monsters” (Eldredge, 1989: 73) – lack survival experience and the ability to reproduce to become the dominant species.

## **A TALE OF TWO MODELS**

### **Comparing the two punctuated equilibrium models**

The paleontological and organizational punctuated equilibrium models both address that discontinuous exogenous shocks or jolts and brief periods of quantum change punctuate extended periods or relative calm (Eldredge, 1989; Meyers, et al., 1990). Important differences between two models include how allopatric speciation, sympatric speciation, and macromutations are addressed. The two forms of speciation are central to the paleontological punctuated equilibrium model as mechanisms that drive evolution. Recessive species develop separate from dominant species by allopatric physical separation or sympatric marginalization as the source of newly dominant species following an exogenous shock. Most organizational discussions do not address allopatric or sympatric speciation or organizational analogies.

Macromutations or hopeful monsters are mutations created by the environmental jolt (Goldschmidt, 1940). Macromutations are inconsistent with both paleontological punctuated equilibrium and Darwin’s phyletic gradualism because mutant species are unlikely to survive and

less likely to reproduce (Eldredge, 1989). Some organizational punctuated equilibrium models embrace macromutations as the primary evolutionary mechanism (Gersick, 1991; Romanelli and Tushman, 1994). The following section examines organizational application of allopatric and sympatric speciation, and macromutations to firm responses to the COVID-19 pandemic.

### **Organizational Allopatric Speciation**

The key mechanism that allows allopatric species to survive concurrently with more dominant species are geographic barriers that protect the recessive species from being overwhelmed by the dominant species. These barriers – oceans, mountains, or other barriers impede intermingling across species. An organizational example of an allopatric speciation is Southwest Airlines when it first started flying in 1974 as an intrastate airline serving only Texas destinations. Southwest was exempt from federal route and rate regulations then in place that limited larger competitors' route and rate structures (Sherman, 1999). Southwest gained experience to overcome the liability of newness (Stinchcombe, 1965; Haveman, 1993) and develop a broad range of strategic repertoires and complexity (Connelly, Tihanyi, Ketchen, Carnes, and Ferrier, 2017) while regulated competitors were required to charge higher fares. The 1979 environmental jolt of airline deregulation eliminated Southwest being restricted to operating only in Texas and government-mandated artificially high fares. Southwest competitors were addicted to the higher fares and the associated bloated, inefficient cost structures.

Organizational allopatric speciation could be characterized as discovering and exploiting market niches with unmet demand (Carroll, 1984). These niches are protected from larger, more dominant firms by some form of market barrier, such as the regulations or certifications noted above, and resources are less munificent along these market frontiers (Dess and Beard, 1984). An environmental jolt that disrupts these market barriers, such as the 1979 US airline deregulation, would expose these firms to a larger, potential market which may or may not be more munificent following the environmental jolt (Sherman, 1999). The challenge for these firms is how to extend the scale of well-developed competitive repertoires to meet the broader post-environmental jolt market without adding costly complexities (Connelly, et al., 2017).

*Proposition 1: Former allopatric-isolated firms trying to meet the needs of a broader market following an environmental jolt face increased risks of failure due to the need to reconfigure resource configurations and capabilities to increase market scale.*

### **Organizational Sympatric Speciation**

The key mechanism that allows sympatric species to exist alongside more dominant species is that the species are distinctly and discretely different, with the “gaps between species being absolute” (Mayr, 1942: 149) that prevent interbreeding. These reproductive barriers prevent the dominant species from overwhelming the recessive species and co-exist. The numerous species of tilapia in the earlier-cited example differ in how they eat and where they congregate in the lake water (Eldredge, 1989). Identifying organizational sympatric speciation examples is difficult because firm species are less distinguishable than biological species (Fahey and Narayanan, 1986). One parallel may be the different firm tiers within industries, such as fine dining, casual dining, and fast food. The delineations between market segments are relatively ambiguous, with most reports dividing the

industry into quick-service restaurants or fast food and full-service restaurants, with revenues almost equally split between the two categories (Hiner, 2020). The industry experienced sympatric speciation beginning in 2013 with the emergence of meal delivery services such as GrubHub, DoorDash, and other firms (Ye, 2020).

The COVID-19 pandemic acted as an environmental jolt on the restaurant industry, reducing restaurant revenues by as much as 70% year-over-year in March 2020 and roughly 25% down year-over-year in October 2020 (Rally for Restaurant, 2020). The decline in restaurant revenues boosted meal delivery service sales in September 2020 to 125 percent of September 2019 levels (Ye, 2020). Many meal delivery services are now partnering with restaurant chains, including McDonald's, Wendy's, Chick-fila-A, Taco Bell, KFC, and Chipotle (Ye, 2020). Meal delivery services are not independent of the restaurant industry and operated at the market periphery from 2013 to 2019. Sales were boosted by the COVID-19 pandemic and these firms face increasing scope as they move from the periphery to more central market positions and serving a broader market as they provide additional services, such as subscriptions, delivery at work, and expand services to the supply side of the value chain (Singh, 2020; Ye, 2020).

Organizational sympatric speciation could be characterized as a form of firms expanding from a more focused market segmentation to a broader market segmentation (Porter, 1980). Expanding scope may trigger increased rivalry from more dominant firms who formerly allowed smaller firms to co-exist within the market, in a form of co-competition (Andreveski and Ferrier, 2019; Gomes-Casseres, 1996). The pandemic as environmental jolt disrupts both market competition and cooperation and places the sympatric recessive firm in more direct competition when the entire market is struggling with decreased sales (Rally for Restaurants, 2020).

*Proposition 2: Former sympatric market segmentation firms attempting to meet the broader needs of customers following an environmental jolt face increased risks of failure due to the need to reconfigure resource configurations and capabilities to increase market scope, while simultaneously dealing with increased rivalry.*

## **Organizational Macromutations**

Macromutations, or hopeful monsters, are singular mutant forms spontaneously created by environmental punctuations (Goldschmidt, 1940). Macromutations are usually overwhelmed quickly by the dominant species because the macromutations cannot reproduce consistently similar offspring and lack survival experience (Eldredge, 1989). Macromutations are specifically rejected as integral to paleontological punctuated equilibrium because such hopeful monsters do not contribute to speciation over time (Mayr, 1942).

Several organizational researchers employ macromutations as central to punctuated equilibrium, with an environmental jolt being an initiating factor in the genesis of a new form, strategy, or organization. The survival of these new creations is doubtful for the same reason that paleontological macromutations do not survive: they lack the experience and the legitimacy to overcome the liability of newness and to be viewed as legitimate in the marketplace (Stinchcombe, 1965; Zucker, 1985). The above does not suggest that macromutations or hopeful monsters do not emerge along the organizational frontier, only that they do not survive and prosper. These

macromutations are like fads and organizations created around fads are not likely to survive. Organizations that preceded the pandemic, such as the Centers for Disease Control (CDC), university research labs, or experienced pharmaceutical companies, are more likely to survive long-term. The punchline is that those looking to address and respond to environmental jolts should treat hopeful monsters as highly suspect and look to more tried and trusted sources.

*Proposition 3: Firms that are organizational macromutations and created by an environmental jolt will not survive over time.*

## DISCUSSION

Addressing any environmental jolt, especially a pandemic such as COVID-19, is a daunting task. This paper suggests that a closer examination of paleontological punctuated equilibrium and the mechanisms of allopatric speciation, sympatric speciation, and macromutations may be helpful to responding to an environmental jolt. This paper suggests the opportunity and risks of transforming a formerly recessive allopatric organization to success following an environmental jolt is to understand organizational changes need to focus on expanding scale. Allopatric firms broadly address all organization functions and competitive forms in their narrow, geographically limited markets. An environmental jolt that loosens or destroys the geographic barriers requires the organization scale up to meet the broader demand. A parallel shift occurs if the environmental jolt changes the environment sufficiently that sympatric organizations are now better suited than the formerly dominant organization to serve. The primary issue in this case is scope – the formerly sympatric organization needs to move from its narrow, focus strategy with limited needs and functions, to a broader strategy with a broader array of needs and functions. An environmental jolt that disrupts the prior pecking order among firms co-existing in the market requires the formerly sympatric recessive firm to expand its scope. This scope expansion may include some scale expansion, due to increased market size, and the primary question remains addressing changes in scope. The paper also attempts to explain that macromutations or hopeful monsters are not long-lived and are non-effective long-term responses to environmental jolts as an attempt to preclude naïve reliance on hopeful monsters, which may really be hopeless monsters. The desired outcome of integrating allopatric and sympatric speciation into organization punctuated equilibrium models is the models may be more robust in explaining and predicting organizational behavior following an environmental jolt.

### **Research Implications:**

The most critical research implication of this paper is that these propositions need to more fully developed into testable hypotheses and empirically evaluated. This may be especially difficult given the sensitivity of the topic and the timing, during or after the pandemic.

### **Managerial Implications**

Important managerial implications are for executives to understand how environmental jolts may affect their organizations. Dominant and recessive firms' leaders need to learn the characteristics of macromutations and develop means to address such hopeful monsters in the short-term and avoid entanglements with hopeful monsters.

## **CONCLUSION**

This paper examined how returning to a source metaphor for organizational change could benefit from better understanding of the source metaphor. This improved understanding of how organizations survive following an environmental jolt, how industries evolve amid crises, and the dubious future of relying on macromutations hopefully will benefit organization studies.

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# **FOR PROFIT, PROGRESS, PEOPLE, OR PASSION? FIRM SUCCESS AND MOTIVATION IN OPEN-SOURCE ENVIRONMENTS.**

BRANDON ANTWILER  
323-C Business Leadership Building  
1307 W. Highland St., Denton, TX 76207  
University of North Texas

## **ABSTRACT**

This study overviews open-source environments, the open-source movement, and their impact on organizational structure and strategy. The author provides a configuration approach to organizational motivation with propositions that describe four motivation configurations (profit, progress, people, and passion) and their relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and organizational success.

## **INTRODUCTION**

In this article, we explore the internal and external conditions that allow firms to succeed in hypercompetitive, open-source software developer ecosystems. Open-source software refers to the source code of software being “available for redistribution without restriction and without charge, and the license must permit the creation of modifications and derivative works and must allow those derivatives to be redistributed under the same terms as the original work” (O’Reilly, 1999, p. 32), contrasting greatly against closed-source software where the source code is proprietary and redistribution is restricted. In addition to providing a literature review detailing open-source environments, we describe how the open-source movement has impacted the structures and strategies pursued by organizations both in and outside software development communities. The primary theoretical lens used in this paper is configuration theory (Miller & Friesen, 1984), which is used to develop a series of gestalts that represent frequently recurring attributes relevant to organizational configuration (Miller, 1991; Venkatraman, 1989). The direct relationship being examined is the influence of entrepreneurial competencies on organizational success, where entrepreneurial competencies are broadly defined as the specific competencies that are relevant in the pursuit of successful entrepreneurship activities (Mitchelmore & Rowley, 2010). In this study, we explore sources of firm motivation in both open and closed-source environments which may shed some light on the variance in firm survival, end-user satisfaction, and the viability of value capture within these dynamic environments. Motivation sources of open-source projects have been discussed as falling into two categories: internal factors of intrinsic or altruistic value and external factors, such as expected future returns or personal needs (Hars & Ou, 2002). In this study, we further narrow down these categories to include extrinsic motivations related to profit and progress, and intrinsic motivations guided by altruistic value creation and passion. In summation, this article will provide a literature review of the

progression of open-source software and its impact on organizations, building towards a typology for organizational motivation in open-source environments.

## **A Configuration Approach to Organizational Motivation**

Configuration theorists note four primary sources of influence which shape organizational configuration: environment, structure, leadership, and strategy (Miller, 1987). Regarding environment, organizational theorists largely agree that environment and environmental complexity have various direct and indirect impacts on organizational processes (Osborn & Hunt, 1974). As described in this article, open-source environments offer a uniquely complex and hypercompetitive landscape which encourages various forms of organizational structures, forms of leadership, and strategies. Given the competitive nature of open-source environments, it is exceedingly important yet difficult to detail “ideal” configurations of organizational motivation variables that might allow firms to excel over another. However, within this article we will construct these configurations in the form of gestalts, which are conceptualized as multifaceted and frequently recurring attributes relevant to organizations (Miller, 1989; Venkatraman, 1989). We argue that a configurational approach that details firm motivation within these complex environments allows for an interesting perspective, as organizational motivation is strongly influenced by the structures that comprise firms. This perspective allows us to focus on a configurational approach which examines the influence of the presented gestalts with an understanding that links between motivation and the ‘imperatives’ offered by Miller (1987) are firmly grounded in previous literature. Previous research on organizational structure has supported a link between structure and the forms of organizational motivation that are supported within that structure (Sherman & Smith, 1984). The influence of leadership on motivation has been thoroughly detailed in previous literature, linking employee motivation to various forms of leadership style (Yidong & Xinxin, 2012; Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Dwyer, Bono, Snyder, Nov, & Berson, 2013). While these studies do primarily focus on intrinsic motivation, they are balanced by additional streams of leadership research exploring the influence of transactional leadership which focuses on extrinsic motivators (Wang, Tsui, Xin, 2011). Finally, we look towards literature on strategic organizational change to argue the close ties that exist between organizational strategy and employee motivation, (*for review, see:* Appelbaum, St-Pierre, Glavas, 1998) as well as recent literature that links strategic human resource management and development to employee motivation (Kontoghiorghes, 2015).

*Proposition 1: The predominant organizational motivation characteristics of profit, progress, people, and passion identify four configurations within open-source environments.*

*Proposition 2: There will be a relatively balanced configuration of organizational motivation that shares characteristics with multiple configurations.*

*Proposition 3: Entrepreneurial competencies have a positive effect on organizational success in open-source environments.*

*Proposition 4: The proposed relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and organizational success in open-source environments will be moderated by the motivation characteristics of the firm.*

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## **THROUGH THE LOOKING GLASS: A GLIMPSE OF HOW RESILIENCE IS BUILT**

SUSIE S COX

University of Louisiana Monroe  
scox@ulm.edu

PEGGY L LANE

University of Louisiana Monroe  
plane@ulm.edu

LONNIE TURPIN

McNeese State University  
lturpin@mcneese.edu

MORGAN TURPIN

McNeese State University  
mturpin@mcneese.edu

### **ABSTRACT**

The year 2020 is like no other. University faculty and students in Louisiana have experienced the global pandemic and natural disasters concurrently. The dual perspective discussion offers educators and other attendees the opportunity to hear firsthand how students and faculty practiced and developed resiliency during trying times.

### **INTRODUCTION**

We are only in the beginning stages of understanding the impact of the events of 2020. However, it is already a highly researched area. A quick Google Scholar search of the keywords, COVID - 19, resilience, and higher education yielded over 8900 results (accessed on February 6, 2021). In the state of Louisiana, university faculty and students have not only faced the COVID -19 global pandemic, but also the destruction of category 4 hurricane Laura followed by a second strike from hurricane Delta. McNeese State University suffered substantial damage from Hurricane Laura estimated at \$200 million<sup>1</sup>. The University of Louisiana Monroe campus did not suffer the damage that south Louisiana endured but many faculty and students' homes were damaged as the hurricanes moved north. Across the state, faculty and students were without power or internet access for days and even weeks. What is the outcome of coping with so much at one time? We are moving forward with the rebuilding phase. To learn and grow from these experiences, we would like to hear from those impacted. Our panel discussion provides a glimpse of how students and faculty have adapted and persevered during the difficult season and demonstrated resilience.

## **Impact of COVID-19 Pandemic**

During 2020, our world as we know it has been challenged and tested. We are dealing with health concerns, uncertain work environments, social isolation, economic uncertainty, and damage to homes, schools, and public utilities. Reports note significant increases in mental health concerns such as depression, loneliness, and anxiety (Kilgore, Taylor, Cloonan, & Daile, 2020). Concerns for student and faculty mental health and well-being require us to anticipate needs and be intentional in our response. In our search to explore ways to cope with our 'new normal,' we found that prior research reported those with higher levels of self-esteem and resilience experience lower levels of depression, anxiety, and stress (P. Ratanasiripong, China, R. Ratanasiripong, & Toyama, 2019). Furthermore, resilience is positively related to higher engagement and lower levels of burnout (Semeijin, Ruysseveldt, Vonk, & van Vuuren, 2019). Fostering the development of resilience during this time of adversity can help not only the individual but in turn our university community. Together we can become more resilient. Those that develop resilience often possess higher social competence and lower levels of psychiatric distress (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000). Gaining insight into how individuals adapt, cope, and develop resilience will help us as educators in our personal and professional lives as well as guide us to interventions we can enact for our students.

## **Defining Resilience**

Resilience is a growing area of research on how individuals are coping with difficult events. Resilience is defined as the ability to overcome adversity and grow stronger from the experience. It is not a personality trait or attribute, but rather a skill developed only after facing adversity. Tonkin, et al (2018) defined resilience as "a combination of assets and resources within the individual and their environment that facilitate the individual's capacity to adapt in the face of adversity." Others have simply defined resilience as positive adaptation.

## **Providing Support**

From the social psychology field, Luthar and Cicchetti (2000) provide guiding principles for interventions that target specific at-risk groups. They recommend that interventions should be grounded in theory and supporting research on the targeted group with an understanding of the targeted group's competence and reasoning abilities. The interventions should not only target mitigation of negative outcomes but focus on promoting positive adaptation and build on the specific resources available for the targeted group. From a review of the current literature, we find individuals that report increased engagement and higher self-esteem, as well as lower anxiety, stress, depression and burnout, also report higher levels of resilience. Resources from multiple levels should be integrated into the intervention process (i.e., community, organization, and family support). Interventions at all levels should be designed to help the targeted group develop the capacity to become self-sustaining. These guiding principles highlight the need for flexibility and adaptation in our support systems provided for students and faculty. Providing support during these times cannot be a one size fits all model.

## **The Student and Faculty Experiences**

College students and faculty are facing an unparalleled amount of uncertainty and change. The college experience of 2020 is like none other. Our student panel of senior-level business majors will provide the participants with a view from their unique perspective. They will offer us a view of how resiliency is developed and what support systems are needed for students. Our faculty panel brings together a group of experienced faculty who have faced a global pandemic and back-to-back hurricanes during one year. Our faculty members from McNeese State University provide a unique view of how they first experienced catastrophic events as a high school senior and sophomore undergraduate with hurricanes Katrina and Rita in 2005 and then 15 years later in 2020, they experienced hurricanes Laura and Delta as faculty.

### **Panel questions for the Student Panel**

How were you affected by the pandemic and the hurricanes?  
How are you coping? How did you take care of yourself, physically and mentally?  
What support systems are you relying on? Friends, family, social, academic.  
What have your college, professors, others done to provide support?  
What if anything do you wish had been done for you to provide support?  
In what areas have you grown due to having been through these events?  
What professional development opportunities were provided by the school and other groups?  
And did you take advantage of these or others?  
From all that you have experienced, what are you doing or plan to do differently?

### **Panel Questions for the Faculty Panel**

What were the most difficult parts of continuing to manage your classes during COVID 19 and the hurricanes?  
What teaching resources were made available for the faculty? For helping students?  
What professional development opportunities were provided by the school and other groups?  
And did you take advantage of these or others?  
How are you coping? How did you take care of yourself, physically and mentally?  
From all that you have experienced, what are you doing or plan to do differently

Note: Transcription of the SWAM panel discussion – contact Susie Cox at [scox@ulm.edu](mailto:scox@ulm.edu)

### **Addressing the Needs of our Faculty and Students**

Our experience was that students and faculty needed more support than before the catastrophic events. Support to reduce the burden for individuals may take many forms. University administration provided technical support for faculty and students to use from home when needed. Examples have included hotspot internet connection, loaning laptops or cameras, safe clean spaces to Zoom classes, and hotlines for technology support. Universities also provided support systems that promote student engagement and connection through safe events.

For faculty, there is a need for training and support for online course management systems and online teaching best practices. Spring 2020 was the first time that some of the faculty taught online courses. Faculty and staff also need the opportunity to connect with each other. Faculty and staff are missing their colleagues and the hallway chats.

Another level of support is peer support found by working together to overcome challenges. Faculty supported each other by helping with course design and best practice tips. Faculty also help students navigate this time by being flexible on certain due dates, providing time during class sessions to ‘stick around’ for questions, and providing individual feedback. Social support was fostered by maintaining relationships and the emotional connections that we create in our classes.

Over the past year, self-care has been the focus of many discussion boards and news articles. Kilgore et al. (2020) found that daily activities including exposure to the outdoors and exercise were associated with greater resilience. Faculty and students learned the importance of taking walks, making healthy food choices, taking up a hobby like gardening. We learned to check on one another and find ways to disconnect school work from home life.

Borrowing from Bhagat and Kim’s (2020) application of Close et al. (2020) Boston Consulting Group Model building resilience in three phases. These phases are identified as Respond, Recover, and Reimagine. We offer the following areas of focus and application for each phase.

### **Responding to Ensure Safety and Continuity**

- Safety for students and faculty
- Communicate status updates
- Remote working security (use of VPN)
- Technology adoption knowledge
- Training for remote delivery
- Teaching and working remotely barriers and constraints (internet access, location,

### **Recovering by Preparing to Restart and Rebound**

- Offering flexible delivery of classes
- Maintain safety of faculty and students (social distance, mask, contact tracing, flow of traffic in buildings, reduced capacity in classrooms and cafeteria)
- Provide resources (technology and counseling)
- Communication – touch points with faculty and students
- Offering services online – tutoring, student meetings, advising
- Offering administrative services online (grade changes, late drop/adds, summer contracts)
- Continue to develop and provide training for faculty
- CARES funding distribution

### **Reimagining and Investing for a Sustainable Future**

- Course delivery structure
- Methods of communication with students
- Long term plan for tech enhanced classrooms to include remote learners
- Delivery modes for committee meetings, trainings, staff meetings
- Interview and hiring, on-boarding processes for new faculty
- On campus office hours, advising, department meetings
- Healthy buildings
- University and college policies to address the new normal
- High risk student needs and plan of action
- Faculty and staff collegiality

### **CONCLUSION**

*“On the other side of a storm is the strength that comes from having navigated through it. Raise your sail and begin.” – Gregory S. Williams*

Over the past year, we have weathered our storms literally and figuratively. As faculty, we have learned how to engage our students through new modalities and methods. We have bonded with co-workers and colleagues near and far through Zoom. Our work commute has moved from miles to steps across a room. Many of us have gained a few four-legged co-workers that don't always follow Zoom etiquette. Our students have stepped up to the challenge. Many have taken on multiple roles including full-time student, home school teacher for siblings or children, and caregiver for sick family members. Some have lost jobs, homes, and family members during this time. Some had to schedule multiple roommates while zooming. The practice of resilience is evident in so many. We are adapting to what we term the 'new normal.' We have gained a new focus on what is important in life and we have held to our values. Our universities continue to provide an education and support networks for students and faculty by offering a new environment that strives to focus on student success.

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# **TOWARDS A FRAMEWORK FOR INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL TURMOIL IN HYPERCOMPETITIVE MARKETS**

BRANDON ANTWILER  
323-C Business Leadership Building  
1307 W. Highland St., Denton, TX 76207  
University of North Texas

## **ABSTRACT**

This study explores internal and external turmoil in hypercompetitive environments. Using complex adaptive systems theory, we detail reactive and adaptive strategies organizations utilize to succeed in these environments. Our proposed framework classifies endogenous and exogenous turmoil in organizations and details the strategies firms pursue to succeed in such environments.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Competitive advantage has been defined as having two distinct classifications: temporary and sustained (Huang, Dyerson, Wu, & Harindranath, 2015); research discusses sustained competitive advantage as “very rare and declining in duration, and may be the product of a few lucky firms” (D’Aveni, Dagnino, & Smith, 2010, p. 1376), suggesting the need for greater emphasis on temporary competitive advantages rather than sustained competitive advantage within hypercompetitive markets. The purpose of this research is to explore the conditions that allow pursuits of temporary advantage to reign advantageous through exploring the role of internal and external disturbances that allow such conditions to exist. Hypercompetitive markets exist within dynamic and uncertain environments, and an appropriate lens to study such an environment exists around chaos and complexity theory as described in Levy (1994; 2000). The application of such theories in business strategy research has often fallen more specifically to complex adaptive systems theory when describing how organizations use adaptive efforts to respond to their dynamic environment (Anderson, 1999).

Literature in areas of both entrepreneurship and strategic management have detailed individuals or firms react to change, and the ways in which opportunities can be exploited (Hitt, Ireland, Camp, & Sexton, 2001). Strategic entrepreneurship can be easily defined as “entrepreneurial action with a strategic perspective” (Hitt et al., 2001, p. 480). Entrepreneurial action has been argued to be essential for firms succeeding in a competitive landscape (Hitt et al., 2001). When operating under such an assumption, we further argue the necessity of focusing on the influence of innovations within firms and to observe entrepreneurial actions that result therein. Is entrepreneurial action in hypercompetitive markets a result of internal or external pressures, and when might it behoove a firm act isomorphic in a hypercompetitive environment? The purpose of this research is to develop a framework through a series of propositions to identify temporary advantage pursuits that prove beneficial in situations of high and low internal influence and external turmoil.

## **External turmoil (Exogenous Forces)**

External turmoil exists when an influential, external force creates a state of great disturbance within the competitive ecosystem in which a firm operates. Situations of external turmoil that have been explored in previous research include platform-owner entry threat (Wen & Zhu, 2019). In these situations, an overarching force which has greater influence than a traditional competitor causes disruptions within the competitive ecosystem in which firms must react. This impact of external influence is generalized to describe external organizational factors, such as persistent media influence, the role of external audiences (e.g., critics and regulators), or regulatory influencers that hold a great deal of power over the competitive landscape (Cattani, Porac, & Thomas, 2016; Dhalla, 2007). External turmoil could also include drastic shifts in technology changing; within a platform-complementor market, such a shift could also be the result of a technological change within the platform imposed upon complementors. When viewing exogenous forces within this framework, we are describing situations of drastic change disruption that force organizational action. These factors are particularly important to consider within hypercompetitive markets, as competitive advantage is often eroded by rapid imitation and innovation (Pacheco-De-Almeida, 2010). We propose that firms within highly competitive markets will more frequently respond to high waves within their competitive ecosystem through entrepreneurial action. Further, these reactions will depend on the ferocity of internal influences.

*Proposition 1: In hypercompetitive ecosystems, firms that seek action off high external turmoil and low internal turmoil will see increased performance pursuing entrepreneurial actions.*

## **Internal Turmoil (Endogenous Forces)**

Internal forces that drive how a firm might respond to changes within its competitive ecosystem may include top management team influence, organizational culture, or knowledge capability (Dhalla, 2007; Goll, Johnson, & Rasheed, 2006). In-line with a resource-based approach (Wernerfelt, 1984; Barney, 1991), situations of internal turmoil may arise when a firm does not have the intra-firm capability to respond to exogenous forces disrupting their environment. Pacheco-De-Almeida (2010) discusses a phenomenon that might shed light on how a firm would best pursue a successful strategy under such conditions. The role of deliberate self-displacement (Pacheco-De-Almeida, 2010) is described as a situation in which a firm decides to self-displace themselves from their current market position as a deliberate profit-seeking strategy within a hypercompetitive market. This proposition has lacked continued theoretical development and empirical testing; however, such a strategy may prove advantageous in situations of high internal turmoil and low external turmoil. In such a situation, a firm that lacks the capacity to compete with its competitors in their response to exogenous forces could contentedly remain within their current segment as the cost of thriving within competition would be greater than the loss of continuing current operations. Additional factors that influence the level of internal turmoil within firms may include restrictive development dependencies. For example, within mobile platform app development markets development dependencies include factors, such as platform restrictions, compounded skill, or expertise within a particular segment

(Tarnacha & Maitland, 2006). Under such restrictions, entrepreneurial action may likely be inhibited.

We propose that firms within hypercompetitive markets will respond to changes within their market ecosphere through actions that are more isomorphic or self-displacing within their current development category if faced with internal turmoil. Of course, the success of such strategies will depend on the ferocity of influence of exogenous pressures.

*Proposition 2: In hypercompetitive ecosystems, firms that seek action off high internal turmoil and low external turmoil will see increased performance pursuing isomorphic behavior.*

### **Benign and Binate Turmoil**

Having discussed how firms might best respond under high and low situations of exogenous and endogenous turmoil, we must now consider beneficial responses that exist within the extremes. Markets that operate under conditions of null internal and external pressures are naturally going to be exceptionally rare and temporary. Birkinshaw and colleagues (Birkinshaw, Hood, & Young, 2005) did well to explore entrepreneurial potential within competitive environments that face both low internal and external competitive influences; although within their sample of multinational subsidiaries, they found zero cases of firms operating within such conditions; further stating that examples of such an environment are typically pre-free-trade era (Birkinshaw, Hood, & Young, 2005). With this considered, continued theoretical discussion on such hypothetical conditions would be wasted. For the purposes of this study, we will follow suite with Birkinshaw et al. (2005) and consider this quadrant as benign. If such environments do exist temporarily, we hypothesize that the lack of both internal and external influence would lead to a state of stagnation or complacency. This hypothesis is in-line with Porter's (1985) perspective that competition drives productivity, innovation, and quality.

On the other extreme, an environment of binate exogenous and endogenous turmoil could certainly exist temporary. Such a situation could be classified to include a dual influence of high internal turmoil inhibiting a firm to adapt or respond to the external turmoil. In order for a firm to survive in such an environment, one of these competing forces would need to take precedent over the other when considering organizational action. Following the process of complexity theory, or more specifically complex adaptive systems theory, if an organization existed in a changing environment without the capability adapt to the changes, it would eventually become nonviable (Levy pg. 67-87, 2000). Thus, a firm will either succumb to the disruptions or the greater force will win-out, and a strategy will be pursued catering to overpowering force of turmoil.

*Proposition 3: In hypercompetitive ecosystems during times of low external and low internal turmoil, firm success or complacency will be classified by stagnation.*

*Proposition 4: In hypercompetitive ecosystems during times of sustained high internal and high external turmoil, firms will succumb to the disruptions.*

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# **THE PROSOCIAL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROCESS AND ITS APPLICATIONS TO BUSINESS AND EDUCATION**

TIMOTHY EWEST  
Houston Baptist University

## **ABSTRACT**

This paper explores motivations organizations have for sustainability, seeks to delineate the recent emergence of positive leadership theories and their contribution to prosocial centered leadership. Specifically, the paper discusses Ewest's (2017) Prosocial Leadership Development process, which can be appended to numerous existing positive leadership theories, as a means to describe and guide a leader's prosocial leadership development. The four-stage model is intuitive, yet based on extensive research. These four stages of the Prosocial Leadership Development Process include: antecedent awareness and empathic concern, community and group commitment, courage and action and reflection and growth. Finally, the paper resolves by discussing two applications of the Prosocial Leadership Development process. The first application considers Prosocial Leadership Development within leaders of small to medium enterprises (SME), endeavoring to determine to what degree the prosocial leadership development model is representative of the identified four stage model. The research on SME leaders of social enterprises determined a fifth stage. Secondly, the prosocial leadership development process is compared to theoretical pedagogical strategies for cultivating social justice awareness and actions within the lives of students (Ewest, 2019).

### **Multiple motivations for sustainability**

Organizational and individual motivations for embracing and implementing sustainability are diverse, the reality is that organizations who choose to embrace sustainability practices are motivated for reasons other than empathic and correspondingly prosocial concerns. Chandler (2019) in his popular book on Corporate Social Responsibility who cites four motivations basic motivations for embracing sustainability, they include: ethical motivations, moral motivations, rational motivations and economic motivations.

Regardless of the motivation, the goal of creating an economy where embracing environmentally and socially problems is common place, should be encouraged simply because the earth's renewable resources have a limited ability to provide for human demand, and as resources contract, they create social incivility. Wackernagel and Beyers (2019) representing a scientific approach, present research from The World Watch Institute which suggests that the amount of consumption of renewable resources by individuals, organizations and societies is far outpacing the biosphere's ability to meet increasing demands, which will ultimately lead only to dystopian results for the human population – although other forms of non-human life will continue, and ironically flourish without a human presence. Others concur, suggesting that the horizon for the earth's ability to replenish human consumption is on the foreseeable horizon (Pimm & Raven, 2017; Marazzi, 2017).

So, while multiple motivations should be welcomed, among Chandler's (2019) four motivations, three are dependent on external forces outside the organization. Thus, a change in an external factor, may move the organization to discontinue sustainability practices. The indication is that motivations for change should have no contingency. So, organizations motivations are contingent if they depend on something external to them. Contingency occurs when motivations are based on markets, resource sustainability or societal preservation – all of which can change. A non-contingent motivation is needed because the terminus of the earth's ability to sustain itself is real and will require an ongoing, sustained effort. Therefore, within Chandler's (2019) motivations, the one which has no contingency is the ethical motivation. While economic, rational and moral motivations are contextually dependent on conditions within the organization and interpersonally within the life of the individual, ethical consideration is intrapersonal, and thus has no contingency.

Kassel, Rimanoczy, and Mitchell (2016) capture the motivation of ethical based empathic endemic or soulish prosocial values in what they call a *Sustainability Mindset*. Here the authors define the sustainability mindset as . . .

“. . . incorporating the dimensions of values (being), and knowledge (thinking), expressed in actions or competencies (doing): Sustainability mindset is a way of thinking and being that results from a broad understanding of the ecosystem's manifestations, from social sensitivity, as well as an introspective focus on one's personal values and higher self, and finds its expression in actions for the greater good of the whole" (Kassel, Rimanoczy, and Mitchell, 2016, p. 44).

Their definition of *social sensitivity*' is further elaborated and defined as an "empathic understanding of human interactions and interconnectedness" (Kassel, Rimanoczy, and Mitchell, 2016, p. 45), making sustainability mindset proposed by Kassel, Rimanoczy and Mitchell harmonize with prosocial and positivistic psychology theories. Yet, while it is vital that every person at every level of the organization embrace an empathic understanding to be motivated to be mindful of the limits and ability of the biosphere to provide, individuals are initially limited in their power or their ability to change their contextual organizational constraints. Thus, individuals in positions of leadership must take initiative regarding the implementation of sustainability.

### **The importance of empathic prosocial leadership**

Recent leadership theories and their corresponding behavioral expectations have emerged which focus on others-directed, empathetic or prosocial behavior. These theories can be identified by using the criteria set within positivistic psychology. Initially, these leadership theories arose in opposition to Pseudo-transformational leadership, which identified leaders who would act ethically, but only did so to manipulate followers so they could achieve self-serving ends (Christie, Barling & Turner, 2011). These leadership theories are important because they are centered on others-directed, empathic values and corresponding actions which are regarded as being more authentic to the human condition (Ewest, 2017).

Within the positivistic psychology tradition, Mackie (2017) suggests that humans best actualize their lives through their connections to others. Mackie, applied Positivistic Psychology criteria to leadership to best determine which leadership theories lead to human flourishing, because they are directed to others, which also enables personal growth. Mackie suggests three distinctions to help classify emerging positive leadership theories. The first distinction is when a leader is focusing on their best situational and dispositional self. The second is when a leader is focusing on having a positive impact on followers. Finally, when a leader has goals which are self-transcendent, that is, beyond a leader's personal interest.

Using the criteria of Positivistic Psychology, Mackie (2017) examined leadership theories, of which there are more than 50 operationalized definitions (Fleishman, et al.; 1992; Northouse, 2018), to determine which leadership theories align with his positivistic criteria, and not incidentally with non-contingent, obligatory values which drive and determine human behavior. Examining numerous leadership theories Mackie's (2017) found a relegated number of leadership theories which did not fit, but also a few theories which fit the criteria for positive leadership. These leadership theories which fit within Mackie's criteria include: Authentic Leadership (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999), Ethical Leadership (Brown, et al, 2005), the Social Change Model (Skendall, et al, 2012), Servant Leadership (Walumbwa, Hartnell & Oke, 2010), Spiritual Leadership (Fry, 2003), Prosocial Leadership (Ewest, 2017) and Global Positive Leadership (Youssef & Luthans, 2012). Each of these leadership theories fit Mackie's (2017) criteria and can be classified as positivistic in nature, and thus align with empathic based motivations.

Prosocial behavior, broadly speaking, describes others-directed behaviors, which is motivated by empathic concern (Batson, 2011). Moreover, to be genuinely other's directed or altruistic, Batson provides three criteria. First, the person who is acting altruistically must respond to empathy. Second, the helping behavior must not carry a personal reward to the one who is helping. And, third, the person helping will continue their help, even if they may be punished. When these three criteria are met, the person has acted altruistically, without regard to themselves. Thus a leader who is responding to their empathetic concern, responds to empathy as an intrapersonal ethical obligation within themselves (Andrew, 1986) and this obligation is not contingent as are market forces, changes in society or resources constraints. Yet, while the normative demands of empathy are clear, and the need for leadership with altruistic motivations is consistent as a demand in sustainably research and literature, how a leader develops into a prosocial leader is still in question.

### **Ewest's Prosocial Leadership Development Process**

Ewest's (2017) four stage model is intuitive, yet still based on extensive research conducted on the development of leaders over a ten-year period on students who were in a two-year leadership development program. Using a qualitative research technique, grounded theory, four stages of prosocial leadership development emerged. These four stages include: antecedent awareness and empathic concern, community and group commitment, courage and action and finally reflection and growth.

### Stage One – “Awareness and Empathetic Concern”

Stage one the leader reflected mindfully and honestly on their past experiences, which included both negative or positive. From their various experiences, they determined or estimated the values that they believed motivated the behaviors of others they admired or people they deemed as important in caring for them. These emerging leader then began to form and internalize their future desired moral identity, which was derived from reflecting leaders who served them from their past experiences. Next, these emerging leaders endeavored to integrate personal, in some cases still forming, goals regarding the means to arrive at the goal of becoming their future ideal self. This process was also cited by Blasi, et al. (1994) who referred to the tendency for a person to form their desired future desired moral identity around thus influence their present day moral choices as Moral Identity Theory. While human values and their corresponding motivations can be varied, in the case of the development of prosocial leaders, these leaders intentionally selected leaders who displayed or were motivated by emphatic concern. Here the leaders' goal was intrapersonal and as a result their behavioral goals may not directly be able to meet people's direct need(s) of the person they will direct prosocial behavior towards (Ewest, 2017).

### Stage Two - “Community and Group Commitment”

Stage Two is best understood when the emerging leader understands that their future identity as a leader or ideal of the person they wish to become requires that they respond from their empathetic concern to an individual or a group in need, may actually challenge their means or goals of the ideal moral self they began to formalize in stage one. That is, the group they wish to serve may ask for help that does not support the personal goals of the emerging leader, because their real needs do are not shared by the leader's developmental goals - that is the person the leader desires to become through service to the group, may not be what is needed by the group. Here, the leader can feel ambivalent, trapped between helping the individual (who is always part of some larger community) and helping met their personal goal of moral development. But, when the leader understood that any altruistic action must involve a person or group which is not under their control and that the group may not support their intrapersonal goals, the emerging leader then realized that their intrapersonal goal(s) may need to be modified by the groups' real needs. Because of this, the leader experienced a personal loss or even suffering, since their intrapersonal goals appeared to have been lost. But, the emerging leader, motivated by concern (empathy) then became aware that their intrapersonal goals, maybe sabotaged by the other person or group's needs, are forced to consider their genuine concern for the other person, that is, they are confronted with true altruistic action (Ewest, 2017).

### Stage Three “Courage and Action”

Stage Three the leader recognized that their commitment to care for others may involve taking a new or unfamiliar role in order to serve a group or an individual in need. Moreover, the emerging leader realizes that their help is not directed or controlled by their needs for personal leadership growth, but it the growth through help is contingent or based on their empathic concern and the needs of the group or individual. Both of these conditions can make the person

feel as an outsider - leaving them feeling vulnerable. Thus, the emerging leader questions their response to empathetic concern and they had to confront their fear generated by their empathetic concern, and the two aforementioned conditions. Their action to help the other person, despite the personal loss of intrapersonal goals, with no guarantee of reward, and experiencing suffering from fear-based vulnerability, actualized their empathic concern and resulted in acting to the serve the other resulted in the emerging leaders display of courage (Ewest, 2017).

#### Stage Four -- "Reflection and Growth"

Finally, Stage Four after the emerging prosocial leader has acted, they reflected upon their action and recognized they personally developed and became like the "projected representative" they endeavored to become. The result is the individual set similar goals for service and, recognized that their selfless service of others resulted in their personal flourishing (Ewest, 2017).

#### **Small to Medium Enterprises (SME)**

The first application of the prosocial leadership development process considers the how prosocial leaders of small to medium enterprises (SME), endeavoring to determine to what degree the Prosocial Leadership Development model is representative of the identified four stage model. Research conducted by Ewest (2017) on SME leaders of social enterprises determined an additional fifth stage. Ewest (2017) selected 22 organizational leaders of small to medium enterprises (SME) who incorporated a social or environmental mission into their organizational value creation process. The leaders were from various industries, which included manufacturing, retail, nonprofit, financial services, agriculture and consulting. All organizations had positive revenues and profits, while also returning positive change in social or environmental issues for their stakeholders.

Research among the selected leaders was able to determine that they each had proceeded through the four stages of the Prosocial Leadership Development process, and were in a position of authority within their social ventures, either as founders, or Chief Executives. Here, established prosocial leaders realized that they had to raise up leaders around them that were motivated by empathetic concern, and thus they began to envision with the emerging leaders. Envisioning meant the established prosocial leader would help the emerging leader see the possibilities within and around them to personally grow, and impact the lives of others. Second, the established prosocial leader took on the role of coaching, which involved helping others recognize where they were in their own prosocial leadership development process, since they themselves had walked through the process. The indication is that prosocial leaders who have developed and were leading social ventures were able to further help emerging leaders with their own prosocial leadership development process.

#### **Pedagogical Strategies**

Ewest (2018) also considered the viability of education to foster prosocial leaders, using the Prosocial Leadership Development process. One particular advantage to values fostered

within higher education, is historic connection of educational institutions championing the ideal of justice, or social justice as a means to create more humane and civil society (Larson & Murtadha, 2002). Certainly, the ideals of what justice is originate from diverse sources which include, religion, political science, moral philosophy, as well as other academic fields of study (Ross & Miller, 2002). Justice, generally speaking, “is primarily a possible, but not necessary, quality for a social order regulating mutual relations of men. . . this order regulates the behavior of men in a way satisfactory to all men, that is to say, so that men find their happiness” (Kelsen, 2000, p. 2). Within the educational setting justice emphasizes teaching the individual how to behave throughout their Life within communities (Starratt 1991, p.50), and may involve how individuals are held into account for individual actions (Beauchamp & Childress, 1984). Justice is also related to prosocial behaviors, since those who practice justice in communities demonstrate empathy as a motivator (Decety & Cowell, 2015).

To instill justice, and correspondingly prosocial values into curriculum, Adams and Bell (2016) present five goals for teaching and learning which enable the development of social justice values. Brown (2004), as well as Hafner and Young (2003), have demonstrated that the five goals of Adam and Bell’s framework can be a guide in developing specific strategies in developing social justice in students.

The five curriculum goals for social justice correspond to the aforementioned delineated prosocial leadership development process (Ewest, 2018), with each social justice goal corresponding to one of the four stages found within the prosocial leadership development process. Stage one of the prosocial leadership development process, Awareness and Empathetic Concern, utilizes and aligns with three of goals of the justice framework (Adams & Bell, 2016), which include goal one, balance emotional and cognitive process of the justice framework, goal two, acknowledge personal or individual experience and goal five value awareness. Stage two of the prosocial leadership development process, Community and Group Commitment, aligns with the same three goals. Stage three, Courage and Action, aligns with two educational goals, goal three, attend social relations within the classroom and goal five, value awareness. Finally, stage four reflection and growth, aligns with stage four, utilize reflection experience and goal five, value awareness. The indication for the classroom is that the five goals presented by Adams and Bell (2016) support the Prosocial Leadership Development Process and should be inculcated into teaching pedagogy to foster the development of prosocial leaders.

## **CONCLUSION**

If humans are to preserve and thrive within the biosphere, it will depend in part on organizations, with various motivations, taking responsibility for not only their negative environmental and social impacts, but also those negative impacts among their broader stakeholder network. But, if motivations are not to be contingent, if they are to be non-contingent obligations, then motivations should be rooted as Simone Weil (Andrew, 1986) in our ethical, soulful obligations to each other. It was the intention of this paper to provide a clear outline of how empathic response to others proceeds in the life of leaders, and how it can be applied to educational and SME organizations. This paper also endeavored to align with three of the SDG goals.

The need for global change is recognized in the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDG), echoed in new visions of industry, and promoted through educational initiatives. If the current pandemic has created a crisis causing us to rethink how we should live, the global environmental crisis occurs for the most part incrementally, with McKibben (2012) barely noticeable incremental changes called for by humans, but its change is irrefutable, and it will reach a tipping point and then reveal permanent irrevocable change in a rush, potentially making parts of the earth uninhabitable.

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# **DRIVING PROJECT SUCCESS THROUGH DYNAMIC PROJECT LEADERSHIP**

Robert C. COONEY  
Belk College of Business  
The University of North Carolina at Charlotte  
Charlotte, NC 28262

## **INTRODUCTION**

Organizations make significant investments in information technology and business transformation projects to enable significant business change, drive organizational efficiency and effectiveness and achieve competitive advantages. However, research over the last three decades has consistently shown that projects struggle to achieve their desired outcomes. While there has been some improvement in project performance over the last decade, research performed by The Standish Group for 2015 showed that only 29% of projects were considered to be “Successful”, with 52% of projects classified as “Challenged” and 19% of projects classified as “Failed” (The Standish Group, 2015, p. 2). As shown by Fortune and White (2006) in their extensive literature review on project success factors, the assignment of a strong project manager is widely considered to be one of the keys for completing a project successfully.

But what makes for a strong project manager? Initially, the focus in the literature was on the importance of the project manager’s technical skills. An example is *The Project Management Competency Development Framework – Second Edition* (Project Management Institute, 2007) which defined project manager competency in terms of hard or technical skills such as knowledge, performance and personal competence. Increasingly in the literature, however, the emphasis has been on the importance of soft skills for project managers. As an example, Muller and Turner (2010) studied the leadership competency profiles of project managers from various countries and found correlations between leadership competencies and project success (Muller & Turner, 2010). Another study which emphasized the importance of soft skills for project managers was that of Maqbool, et al. (2017) who studied the relationship and impact of construction project managers’ emotional intelligence (EI), managerial competencies and transformational leadership style in improving project performance.

## **THEORY**

Building on the recent emphasis in the literature on project manager “soft skills” and especially adapting and extending the work of Muller and Turner (2010) and Maqbool et al. (2017), I theorize that dynamic project leadership on the part of the project manager positively impacts project success. In formulating the concept of dynamic project leadership, I draw on the concepts of intrapreneurial orientation and entrepreneurial passion from entrepreneurship literature; psychological capital, transformational leadership, emotional intelligence, positive affect and narcissism from organizational behavior literature; and creativity from advertising and marketing literature.

## Individual Intrapreneurial Orientation

A key responsibility for a project manager is to be an innovator and act as an agent of change, with responsibility for helping to initiate change within an organization by driving a project to successful completion. In this regard, an important skillset for the project manager is that of intrapreneur.

Intrapreneurship is entrepreneurship which takes place inside of an organization (Kuratko, et al., 1990). It is a “process whereby employee(s) recognize and exploit opportunities by being innovative, proactive and by taking risks, in order for the organization to create new products, processes and services, initiate self-renewal or venture new businesses to enhance the competitiveness and performance of the organization” (Neessen, et al., 2019, p. 551).

Based on a comprehensive review of the intrapreneurship literature, Neessen, et al. (2019) developed a composite definition of an intrapreneur. They identified the key behaviors of intrapreneurs as innovativeness and creativeness; proactiveness including personal initiative and assertiveness; opportunity recognition and exploitation; risk-taking including a tolerance for failure; and networking skills including both internal and external networking (Neessen, et al., 2019). Each of these behaviors are essential skills for a successful project manager.

The full impact of an individual’s intrapreneurial orientation is moderated by two other factors: the project manager’s own entrepreneurial passion and the intrapreneurial orientation of the firm. Cardon (2009) defined entrepreneurial passion as “consciously accessible, intense positive feelings experienced by engagement in entrepreneurial activities associated with roles that are meaningful and salient to the self-identity of the entrepreneur” (Cardon, 2009, p. 517). Cardon, et al. (2009) defined three entrepreneurial “identities”: founder, inventor and developer reflecting different roles that an entrepreneur may take on during the entrepreneurial lifecycle. While not a perfect fit, these identities can be translated to the project management domain in that the project manager can also play different roles at various points in the project lifecycle.

The second moderator of the individual’s intrapreneurial orientation is the intrapreneurial orientation of the firm. This is the extent to which an organization creates an environment that facilitates and supports corporate entrepreneurship. Firms with a high degree of intrapreneurial orientation provide an environment where individuals are “free to pursue actions and initiatives, regardless of the ‘rules.’” (Kuratko, et al., 2014, p. 38).

The dimensions of intrapreneurial orientation have a strong alignment with project success factors in the project management domain. Top management support, project manager discretion and autonomy, a tolerance for some level of failure, rewarding project managers and teams for successful project delivery and strong communication or flow of information among stakeholders are all generally accepted as key project success factors.

*Proposition 1: Project managers who have a strong individual intrapreneurial orientation will have a higher-level of dynamic project leadership which will favorably impact project success. The extent of the project manager’s individual intrapreneurial*

*orientation will be moderated by the individual's entrepreneurial passion and the firm's intrapreneurial orientation.*

### **Strong Psychological Capital**

Psychological capital is a construct drawn from the positive organizational behavior (POB) approach and includes positive psychological strengths and capacities such as hope, optimism and resiliency (Luthans, et al., 2005). From my own experience managing projects for 30 years, the traits included in the psychological capital construct are essential for success as a project manager. Project managers need to have the confidence to put in whatever effort is required to move things forward on the project. They must have perseverance to deal with tough days on the project, challenges with team members and difficult stakeholders. Likewise, project managers must be optimistic about the path forward on a project and demonstrate this optimism for their team members and stakeholders at all times. In addition, project managers must be resilient and be able to quickly bounce back. There will always be tough days on any project; the key is not to let one bad day lead to another.

*Proposition 2: Project managers who have a significant amount of psychological capital will have a higher-level of dynamic project leadership which will favorably impact project success.*

### **Transformational Leadership**

A number of research studies have shown that a transformational leadership style is more effective than laissez-faire and transactional leadership styles (Gardner & Stough, 2006; Maqbool, et al., 2017). Transformational leadership is also an important skill for project managers as it helps project managers to transform their teams and ultimately impact project performance (Maqbool, et al., 2017). Transformational leadership happens when a leader “broadens and elevates the interests of their employees, generate awareness and acceptance of the purpose and mission of the group and when they stir their employees to look beyond their own self-interest to the good of the group” (Bass, 1990, p. 21). Project managers can do this by being charismatic to their team members and project stakeholders and thus inspiring them to reach team goals, meeting the emotional needs of team members or by intellectually challenging the project team members and stakeholders (Bass, 1990). Two recent studies have supported the proposition that transformational leadership favorably impacts project performance. Jiang and Chen (2018) demonstrated the value of transformational leadership in terms of affecting team performance. In a study using temporarily assembled project teams working on knowledge intensive tasks, they demonstrated that transformational leadership promoted within-team knowledge sharing and team innovative performance. Maqbool, et al. (2017) evaluated the impact of transformational leadership on project success in their study of project managers in Pakistani construction firms. Maqbool et al. (2017) showed that project managers who exhibited higher levels of transformational leadership skills achieved higher success in their projects than their counterparts who had scored lower on transformational leadership characteristics.

*Proposition 3: Project managers who are transformative leaders will have a higher-level of dynamic project leadership which will favorably impact project success.*

## **Emotional Intelligence**

Emotional intelligence (EI) refers to the ability of an individual to manage their emotions and harness these emotions for positive outcomes (Law, et al., 2004). Emotional intelligence can be defined as “the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking”. (Salovey & Mayer (1990), p. 189 in Law, et al., 2004).

Muller and Turner (2010) demonstrated the role of the emotional intelligence of the project manager in achieving project success through a study of 400 project managers on different types of successful projects worldwide. Maqbool, et al. (2017) also analyzed the impact of a project manager’s emotional intelligence on project performance. The results show that emotional intelligence has a positive impact on project success.

*Proposition 4: Project managers who have strong emotional intelligence will have a higher-level of dynamic project leadership which will favorably impact project success.*

## **Creativity**

Creativity is typically described in such terms as “creative thinking”, “ability” “problem solving” or “imagination” (El-Murad & West, 2004, p. 189.). Many definitions of creativity involve problem solving where the solution to the problem requires insight (El-Murad & West, 2004, p. 189). The creativity of the project manager can drive innovation and help to provide sustainable competitive advantage to an organization (Rehmani & Hussain, 2018; Simmons & Sower, 2012). Creativity can be critically important in a project environment where the goal of the project is to implement a new information technology system or other product to significantly transform the organization (Nasiopoulos et al., 2015; Rehmani & Hussain, 2018).

Sternberg and Lubart (1999) suggested that creativity is the result of a set of attitudes, but that individuals can decide to adopt these attitudes if they do not already use them. Sternberg and Lubart’s (1999) assertion is important to the discipline of project management as it suggests that project managers, if they are not creative already, could be trained or taught to think more creatively. Sternberg and Lubart (1999) suggested ten decisions that individuals could take to become more creative. A review of the list compiled by Sternberg and Lubart (1999), based on my own experience as a project manager, suggests that most if not all of these decisions are directly applicable to project management. For example, Sternberg and Lubart (1999) suggest that individuals should redefine problems to aid in explaining the problem to other people in a way that the other person will better understand the issue; learn to analyze and criticize their own ideas; focus on selling their ideas to others; be always willing to grow and challenge oneself; and to believe in oneself as there will be times when no one else believes in you (Sternberg & Lubart, 1999 as cited in El-Murad & West, 2004, p. 197).

*Proposition 5: Project managers who are creative will have a higher-level of dynamic project leadership which will favorably impact project success.*

### **Positive Affect Mediated by a “Healthy” Level of Narcissism**

Affect is an individual’s underlying experience of feeling, emotion and mood. The arguments that Baron (2008) has made about how positive affect influences the entrepreneurial domain are equally transferrable to the domain of project management. Projects are dynamic and unpredictable, and like the entrepreneurial experience, often change dramatically as the project goes through the project lifecycle. Project managers, like entrepreneurs, often have to “make things up as they go along” (Baron, 2008, p. 329). While there are project management methodologies and processes that a project manager can refer to, these cannot be used like a cookbook as the situation on one project is rarely identical to the situation encountered on a prior project. In addition, many of the skills that are important to entrepreneurs are also vital to project managers such as the ability to persuade team members or stakeholders to their point of view, the ability to make timely decisions to keep the project moving forward, while effectively weighing a variety of pros and cons and the need to form strong relationships with a myriad of diverse stakeholders, some of whom may not have a favorable view of the project’s goals and objectives.

So, transferring Baron’s (2008) logic to the domain of project management suggests that positive affect will have a favorable impact on a project manager’s performance and by extension the success of their project. However, recognizing that projects often have difficult stakeholders and that there are often tough decisions to be made on a project which may upset some or potentially all team members or stakeholders, I believe a case can be made that too much positive affect may not be a good thing for a project manager as they need, at times, to have somewhat of a hard edge.

Consequently, I propose that the preferred situation for a project manager is to have a strong positive affect, moderated by a “healthy” level of narcissism. Research has shown that individuals high in narcissism or the so-called “dark triad” are typically more confident and extraverted (Hmieleski & Lerner, 2016). Hmieleski and Lerner (2016) in a survey of Master of Business Administration and undergraduate students found narcissism to be positively related to entrepreneurial intentions. Hmieleski and Lerner (2016) argued that one reason for this is that being very self-confident and extraverted is an important attribute for entrepreneurs who operate in a world that involves a high degree of uncertainty. Just as is the case with affect, I argue that this logic is transferrable to the domain of project management as well, where project managers work in fast-paced, dynamic environments.

*Proposition 6: Project managers who have a strong positive affect, moderated by a “healthy” level of narcissism will have a higher-level of dynamic project leadership which will favorably impact project success.*

## **DISCUSSION**

The dynamic project leadership model defined in this paper suggests that when selecting a project manager, project sponsors, rather than just focusing on an individual's technical skills, should also focus on selecting project managers who exhibit dynamic project leadership. The dynamic project leadership model could also help to plan for future training provided to current or prospective project managers. The dynamic project leadership model could also be used to help define skills taught in undergraduate and graduate project management curriculums, helping to address documented gaps between the skills being taught in universities and the skills being demanded by employers (Beard, Schwieger, & Surendran, 2008; Borg & Scott-Young, 2020).

In addition, the dynamic project leadership model has the potential to be extended more generally to corporate entrepreneurship. The skills and competencies recommended for project managers seem to parallel those that are needed for a project or product champion on any type of internal corporate entrepreneurial venture or business transformation initiative. Effective project champions “make decisions and take actions that ‘violate the organizational hierarchy’ “ (Shane, 1994, p. 401- 403 as cited in Shepherd, Williams & Patzelt, 2015, p. 23). They encourage project team members and stakeholders to think and act more entrepreneurially (Shepherd, et al., 2015). Product or project champions have long been recognized as playing an integral role in corporate entrepreneurship. As an example, Burgelman (1983) in his study of internal corporate venturing in a diversified firm observed that the presence of a product champion who created market interest in the product and who was willing on occasion “to cut corners” to help push the product forward was an essential differentiator in whether or not a venture succeeded (Burgelman, 1983, p. 232-233).

Despite the importance of effective project champions in driving corporate entrepreneurial efforts, there has been only limited research on the characteristics of an effective champion (Shepherd, et al., 2015). The dynamic project leadership model when applied more broadly to entrepreneurship takes up the call of Shepherd and his colleagues (2015) in their literature review on entrepreneurial decision making for a study to investigate the decision making of individuals who choose to undertake a champion role and how a champion's actions impact entrepreneurial decision-making (Shepherd, et al., 2015).

## CONCLUSION

It is proposed that project managers who demonstrate a high-level of dynamic project leadership favorably impact project success. Consequently, in selecting future project managers, project sponsors should emphasize leadership skills as much or more as technical project management skills. Project sponsors should seek individuals who have a strong intrapreneurial orientation, psychological capital, transformational leadership, emotional intelligence, creativity and positive affect moderated by the right balance of “healthy” narcissism. Project sponsors should also seek to maximize the project manager's opportunity to succeed by focusing on increasing the intrapreneurial orientation of the firm by fostering an environment that encourages change and rewards the individuals who drive this change. Likewise, project management training should focus on building these types of skills for both current project managers and the next generation of project managers.

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# **THE ROLE OF TRUST IN ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT: A PILOT STUDY**

NAMPORN THANETSUNTHORN  
Department of Business  
Pennsylvania State University-Shenango  
Sharon, PA, USA

## **INTRODUCTION**

Trust is widely considered as one of the key contributors to the success of organization development (OD). Much of the literature has credited trust with greater individual, group, and organizational effectiveness (McLean, 2006), and acknowledged trust as an important component for the success of OD initiatives (Argyris, 1962; Thanetsunthorn and Wuthisatian, 2020). While a broad set of formal institutions have been extensively studied and widely acknowledged, little attention has been paid to understanding trust through informal institutions, especially cultural values that shape people's trust behaviors. The purpose of this pilot study is to provide additional insights into the OD literature regarding the impact of national culture on people's willingness to trust.

## **DATA AND METHODOLOGY**

The study gathers and combines data from multiple sources, including the World Values Survey (WVS) trust, Hofstede's country cultural scores, and the International Country Risk Guide (ICRG) data measuring a country's conditions. To empirically examine the impact of national culture on people's willingness to trust, the study initially performs the fixed-effects regression, and then the generalized least squares (GLS) regression and the regression with censored data are used to further ensure the robustness of findings.

## **RESULTS**

The findings suggest that individualistic and long-term oriented cultures have the significant positive impact on trust, while power distance and uncertainty avoidance cultures appear to have the significant negative impact on trust. The findings are strongly consistent across all model specifications, providing confirmation for robust and unbiased results.

## **CONCLUSION**

Recognizing trust as a necessary foundation for effective OD initiatives and programs, this pilot study has documented evidence on the casual linkages between culture and trust. The findings achieved in this study offers meaningful implications for OD scholars and consultants regarding specific cultural environments in which OD interventions and strategic change programs are likely to be implemented successfully.

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# **DOES GENDER MATTER IN ENTREPRENEURSHIP? A MULTI-LEVEL STUDY**

SHALINI BHAWAL  
G. Brint Ryan College of Business  
University of North Texas  
Denton, TX 76203

## **ABSTRACT**

Using gender lens, this article explores how differential access to capital leads to new venture creation across nations. The article segregates access to capital, a multi-dimensional construct, into access to human capital and financial capital at the national and individual level and discusses the effect of gender in new venture creation. This multilevel approach brings gender back into the spotlight and contributes to theory by evaluating the importance of gender in a cross-level study.

# **HOW CAN WE HELP YOU? TOP MANAGEMENT TEAM COMPOSITION AND WOMEN IN SCIENCE TECHNOLOGY ENGINEERING AND MATHEMATICS**

SHALINI BHAWAL  
G. Brint Ryan College of Business  
University of North Texas  
Denton TX 76203

## **ABSTRACT**

This article explores the role of women in Top Management Team (TMT) in reducing women turnover in Science Technology Engineering Mathematics (STEM) industry. The study attempts to establish a causal relationship between the actions of two different sets of actors in an organization by focusing on the implicit effect of TMT composition on the career advancement opportunities of women employees like access to challenging roles, access to social networks, mentoring, and supportive HR policies.

# **WORK-NONWORK SEGMENTATION AND PSYCHOLOGICAL OUTCOMES AMONG REMOTE WORKERS DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC**

TOMIKA W. GREER  
College of Technology  
University of Houston  
Houston, TX 77004

STEPHANIE C. PAYNE  
Texas A&M University, College Station

REBECCA J. THOMPSON  
Independent Researcher, Finksburg, MD

NATHANAEL L. KEISER  
Independent Researcher, Killeen, TX

## **INTRODUCTION**

In the early months of the pandemic, an estimated 90% of all workers in “telework-conducive” jobs were working exclusively from home (Bick et al., 2020), violating physical work-nonwork boundaries (Kreiner, 2006). Prior to the pandemic, working from home (WFH) had been associated with many positive outcomes, including higher job satisfaction (Bloom et al., 2015) and lower turnover (e.g., Moen et al., 2011). However, WFH during the COVID-19 pandemic was less discretionary, impacting the WFH experience for many employees.

We followed over 400 work-from-home employees over the first two months of the pandemic to empirically determine the impact of limited work-nonwork segmentation on a range of well-being outcomes, including work-to-family conflict (WFC), family-to-work conflict (FWC), work-to-family guilt (WFG), family-to-work guilt (FWG), stress, and burnout. Guided by work-family border theory (Clark, 2000) and person-environment fit theory (e.g., Edwards et al., 1998) we investigated the congruence between what employees prefer in terms of work-nonwork segmentation and what they experienced, and the extent to which congruence between these variables is associated with negative well-being outcomes.

The current study makes several important contributions to the remote work and congruence literature. First, we extend the research on work-nonwork segmentation by measuring and comparing employees’ preferences to their experiences. Second, we utilize a within-subjects prospective study design in which outcome variables are measured at multiple time points. Third, we contribute to person-environment fit theory and congruence research by assessing the relative importance of work-nonwork preferences, experiences, and congruence on multiple well-being outcomes for a sample of employees from a diverse array of organizations and industries.

### **Work-Nonwork Segmentation**

According to work-family border theory (Clark, 2000), work and family responsibilities exist in different yet interdependent domains and individuals regularly cross the boundaries that delineate the work and family domains to tend to corresponding demands. WFH weakens and blurs the boundaries between work and family, resulting in more permeation between the domains. Weakened boundaries allow for more frequent and easier transitions and interruptions between the work and nonwork roles (Ashforth et al., 2000). However, some research has shown that frequent boundary-crossing is related to poor detachment from work and increased work-focused rumination during nonwork time (Kinnunen et al., 2016).

*Segmentation Preferences.* Employees vary on the extent to which they prefer to integrate or segment their work and nonwork lives (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999; Kreiner, 2006; Rothbard et al., 2005). We anticipated that when given the choice to WFH, employees with a stronger preference for segmentation should be less likely to WFH both before and after the pandemic.

H1a: Prior to the COVID-19 outbreak, employees with preference for more segmentation worked from home less frequently.

H1b: Employees with preference for more segmentation are less likely to want to continue to work from home in the future.

*Segmentation Congruence.* Employees' experience with segmentation between work and nonwork is not always aligned with their preference. In organizational studies, compatibility between people and their immediate environment is known as person-environment (P-E) fit. P-E fit theory contends that employee outcomes are best when there is congruence between the employee and the environment, and outcomes are worse with increased discrepancy between the employee and the environment (Harrison 2007; van Vianen, 2018). Consistent with P-E fit theory, we anticipate that the interaction or congruence between what employees desire and what they experience concerning work-nonwork segmentation will be predictive of more positive outcomes.

In this study, we examine seven different well-being outcomes. First, we assess two directions of work-family conflict: work-to-family conflict (WFC) and family-to-work conflict (FWC). Second, we examine work-to-family guilt (WFG) and family-to-work guilt (FWG). Third, we assess perceived stress at two occasions and burnout as a long-term outcome.

H2: Segmentation congruence is associated with more positive well-being outcomes (less [a] work-to-family conflict, [b] family-to-work conflict, [c] work-to-family guilt, [d] family-to-work guilt, [e] stress, and [f] burnout).

*Direction of Segmentation Congruence.* When employees experience incongruence in work-nonwork segmentation, they either experience more or less segmentation than desired. We propose that experiencing less segmentation between work and nonwork than desired when working from home is more challenging than experiencing more than one prefers. Given the majority of workers were working exclusively from home, thus experiencing more integration than segmentation, we did not anticipate many workers would experience more segmentation than desired.

Consistent with P-E fit theory, numerous studies have found that larger discrepancies are more detrimental than smaller discrepancies, but interestingly, the direction of the discrepancy does not appear to matter in traditional P-E fit research (van Vanien 2018). We extend existing research by examining more outcomes over an extended period of time, contrasting preferences with experiences during a pandemic that requires working from home.

*H3: The direction of segmentation congruence matters. Experiencing less segmentation than desired is more detrimental than experiencing more segmentation than desired as conveyed by relationships with (a) work-to-family conflict, (b) family-to-work conflict, (c) work-to-family guilt, (d) family-to-work guilt, (e) stress and (f) burnout.*

## METHOD

### Participants and Procedure

Time 1 (T1) participants were 1,216 employed individuals ranging in age from 18 to 73 years ( $M = 37.27$ ,  $SD = 11.70$ ). The sample was predominantly White/Caucasian (83%) and the majority of respondents were women (66%), married (58%), and had a Bachelor's degree or higher (80%). Forty percent of the respondents had at least one child 18 years or younger at home ( $M = 0.76$ ,  $SD = 1.10$ ). The largest percentages of respondents worked in higher education (14.8%), professional and business services/consulting (14.3%), and health/medical services (12.8%).

Approximately two months later (June 8-26, 2020), a second survey was sent to 872 respondents who indicated they were willing to complete a second survey. Four hundred five individuals (46% response rate) completed the Time 2 (T2) survey. T2 participants ranged in age from 20 to 73 years ( $M = 39.58$ ,  $SD = 10.24$ ). The sample was predominantly White/Caucasian (88%) and the majority of respondents were women (68%), married (68%), and had a Bachelor's degree or higher (93.5%). Forty-four percent of the respondents had at least one child 18 years or younger at home ( $M = 0.81$ ,  $SD = 1.10$ ).

### Measures

*Working from home.* One item was used to assess how frequently respondents worked from home prior to the COVID-19 outbreak. A second item was used to assess the extent to which respondents desired to work from home in the future.

*Segmentation.* Participants' preference for work-nonwork segmentation was operationalized with a 4-item Segmentation Preferences measure developed by Kreiner (2006). Experienced Segmentation was measured with the same four items, but they were modified to reflect what the participant experienced since the COVID-19 outbreak (T1) or over the past two months (T2). Small edits were also made to reflect that most participants were working exclusively from home during the survey period.

*Perceived stress.* Perceived stress at T1 and T2 was operationalized as scores on a 4-item adaptation of Cohen et al.'s (1983) global measure of perceived stress. Responses were recorded on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = never; 5 = multiple times a day).

*Work-Family Conflict and Work-Family Guilt.* WFC and FWC were assessed at T2 with three items each using Mathews et al.'s (2010) work-family conflict measure. Work-family guilt was measured with seven abbreviated items from McElwain (2008) at T2. Four items captured guilt associated with work interfering with family and three items captured guilt associated with family interfering with work.

*Burnout.* At T2, burnout was measured with a 6-item abbreviated version of the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (Demerouti et al., 2010).

The descriptive statistics and correlations among study variables serves as the basis for testing Hypothesis 1a and 1b. The findings support Hypothesis 1a; specifically, we observed a significant negative relationship between preference for segmentation and previous remote work experience. However, the correlation between preference for segmentation and interest in working from home in the future was negative and not significant; thus, Hypothesis 1b was not supported.

### **Segmentation Congruence: Polynomial Regression and Response Surface Analysis**

The subsequent hypotheses stated that the congruence between preference for segmentation and experienced segmentation is associated with positive well-being outcomes (Hypothesis 2), and that the direction of segmentation congruence matters (Hypothesis 3). These hypotheses were tested using polynomial regression and response surface analysis (Edwards, 2002, 2007).

The pertinent hypotheses were empirically examined based on Humberg et al.'s (2019) four-step approach to test for a "reverse" congruence effect (Hypothesis 2) and Humberg et al.'s (2020) two-step approach to test for an asymmetric congruence effect (Hypothesis 3). The expected effect of segmentation congruence on the various well-being outcomes is visually reflected in U-shaped graphs of the polynomial regression models. The polynomial regression models that reflect a congruence effect can be further examined to determine if the direction of congruence matters following Humberg et al.'s (2020) two-step approach to test for asymmetric congruence.

In the current study, polynomial regression models were estimated for two pairs of variables predicting seven outcomes for a combined total of 14 models. However, prior to estimating these models, we first centered each pair of predictors at their respective grand mean (Aiken & West, 1991; Edwards & Parry, 1993). As a preliminary step, we tested to ensure that multicollinearity was sufficiently low using Fox's (2016) cutoff criteria for variance inflation factors. Multicollinearity was sufficiently low because the variance inflation factors between predictors in each of the 14 models were less than five.

The results from the 14 polynomial regression models and response surface analyses did not support Hypothesis 2 for any of the examined outcomes. The expected effect of segmentation congruence was most closely observed in the polynomial regressions of these

variables predicting stress and work-to-family conflict. Additionally, Hypothesis 3 was not supported because none of the polynomial regression models displayed a congruence effect, and as such, we did not test for an asymmetric congruence effect (Humberg et al., 2020).

These results notwithstanding, the findings from this study highlight the independent influence of segmentation and preference for segmentation on well-being during the COVID-19 pandemic. Most notably, experienced segmentation at T2 displayed significant main effects on stress at T2, work-to-family conflict, work-to-family guilt, family-to-work guilt, and burnout, such that more segmentation was associated with less of these negative well-being outcomes. Similar results were observed for the main effect of experienced segmentation at T1 on stress at T1 and burnout. Finally, preference for segmentation displayed significant main effects on stress at T1 and T2, and burnout. Respondents who preferred more segmentation experienced greater stress at both time periods and more burnout while working from home.

Since this is the first study that we are aware of to measure segmentation congruence over time, and because there is little insight about how best to use polynomial regression and response surface analysis with longitudinal data, we also calculated the Euclidean distance between segmentation preference and experience at T1 and T2. Thus, congruence increased over time. Additionally, the correlation between these distance scores was significant but not very strong, suggesting the congruence between desired and experienced work-nonwork segmentation was not very stable during the two-month period.

## DISCUSSION

The COVID-19 pandemic forced millions of people to WFH, disintegrating the boundaries between work and nonwork for an extended period of time. This arrangement presented a unique opportunity to examine the importance of employees' preferences for segmentation between work and nonwork, their actual experiences of segmentation, and congruence between the two on various indicators of well-being. As expected, preference for segmentation was related to past remote work frequency, with individuals who reported a stronger preference for segmentation indicating they were less likely to WFH before the pandemic.

Contrary to expectations, preference for work-nonwork segmentation before the pandemic was not significantly related to desires to work from home after the pandemic. It is possible that forced WFH highlighted both advantages and disadvantages of this arrangement for employees, leading to changes in workers' preferences. The Pew Research Center found that COVID-19 has not only changed how people work, but also changed the extent to which employees are receptive to working from home in the future (Parker et al., 2020). Remote work during COVID-19 also opened new possibilities for what can be accomplished remotely, resulting in a large number of employees wanting to work remotely in the future (Brenan, 2020; PwC, 2021). These findings suggest that preferences for segmentation may have changed during the COVID-19 WFH experience. Future research should explore the stability of segmentation preferences and the extent to which changes can be attributed to boundary altering arrangements.

We anticipated that employees who had the greatest disconnect between their preferences and experiences with segmentation would struggle the most when mandated to WFH during the pandemic. Our data did not support this hypothesis. Instead, our findings align with Brauner et al. (2020) who found that congruence between actual and preferred working time arrangements

did not impact employees' satisfaction with work-life balance. What really mattered for these employees' well-being was the extent to which they could personally segment work and nonwork.

### **Theoretical and Practical Implications**

We respond to Kreiner's (2006) call for studying segmentation preferences in conjunction with the usage of specific work-family policies on both directions of work-family conflict. Employees who reported they were able to segment work and nonwork more, experienced less role conflict from work to the family and less guilt in both directions.

We also address Shockley and Allen's (2010) call for research to determine if flexible work arrangements have deleterious effects on work-family conflict when individuals use such arrangements "despite strong segmentation desires" (p. 140). The pandemic presented a context in which an individual's desire was less important than employee physical health, and our study data and results confirm this.

Researchers studying work-nonwork segmentation may want to reconsider the importance of alignment between employee preferences and the work environment, when employees do not have control over their work environment. The current study did not find meaningful evidence of a congruence effect between preferences for and experiences of segmentation on employee outcomes during forced WFH. These results suggest that when forced to WFH, employee preferences for segmentation is less important than the capacity and resources available that allow for segmentation between work and nonwork demands.

For applied settings, the findings from the current study highlight the availability of important WFH resources. Organizations should consider how offering flexibility in scheduling work tasks and goals can alleviate some of the burden that accompanies extended working from home.

The COVID-19 pandemic has forced employers and employees to devise and implement new ways to conduct work. Employers and employees, alike, view the remote work arrangements during the pandemic as successful (PwC, 2021). As a result, the current study offers findings that will continue to be relevant for future decisions and implementations regarding remote work arrangements.

### **Limitations and Future Directions**

We acknowledge a primary limitation of the current study is the use of self-report data. In addition, the sample is comprised of highly educated, primarily White employees. Further, there was considerable attrition from T1 to T2. Given that T2 respondents took the time to respond to a second survey, it is quite likely that they were not struggling as much as those who did not respond a second time. As a result, our findings may primarily generalize to similar employees with remote-friendly jobs who are able to impose their own boundaries while working from home.

In the future, it is unlikely that as many employees will continue to WFH exclusively. Preferences for segmentation are likely to differ conceptually and operationally for employees who work exclusively from home compared to employees who are able and choose to go back to the workplace. Future research may need to reconsider how to operationalize segmentation preferences for WFH employees.

## **CONCLUSION**

The current study was conducted during a unique time in the history of work. We examined the nature of preferences for and experiences of work-nonwork segmentation during the COVID-19 pandemic. Previous research indicated the alignment between segmentation preferences and supplies is important to employee well-being. In contrast, the current study indicated segmentation experiences were more important. These findings highlight the importance of boundary management behaviors when work arrangements violate work-nonwork boundaries.

## **REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS**

# **THE INSTRUMENTALITY OF ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE IN CULTIVATING PUBLIC SPEAKING: PITCHVANTAGE VIRTUAL REALITY PILOT**

APRIL L. ROWSEY

Hankamer School of Business  
Baylor University  
Waco, TX 76706

TIMOTHY KAYWORTH

Baylor University

## **INTRODUCTION**

The GMAC Corporate Recruiters Survey in both 2017 and 2020 revealed that four of the top five most highly sought skills that recruiters prize in MBA graduates are communication-related. Given the emphasis that industry places on communication skills, the purpose of this study of this study is to test the efficacy of using an AI-supported technology tool to assist in student presentation practice. Presentation skills involve much more than delivering content; they are also about reading the room and engaging with the audience.

Developing presentation skills in business students has traditionally involved teaching best practices in presenting followed by student presentations conducted in front of a classroom filled with peers and instructor. Presenting in front of a live audience has the added benefit of making the presentation itself just as much a formative learning intervention as a summative assessment. However, very little scholarly work has been published about alternative methods in developing presentation skills in graduate business students. This issue has become much more salient as MBA programs move to online modalities either intentionally, as part of a formal online degree program, or responsively as we have seen in the months since COVID-19 has pushed traditional classroom instruction online (Eutsler, 2020). Social distancing requirements present a unique challenge in that student presentation practice options are narrowed to virtual or online options.

The proliferation of commercial technology platforms for video recording has been instrumental in allowing for the presentation capture in higher education. Presentation capture tools contribute not only to student skill development through practice sessions but also serve as a useful tool for instructor evaluation and feedback purposes. These stable, but typically static, recording tools do have several notable deficiencies. For the purposes of continuous improvement, students must rely on either their own judgement about their performance or wait to receive feedback from a peer or their instructor, which can involve extended time delays especially for classes with larger rosters/enrollments.

One unique entrant to this growing space in higher education is PitchVantage; an AI-supported tool that features a simulated live virtual audience that responds, in real time, to the non-verbal, verbal, and vocal elements of student presentations. How might this type of real-time simulation experience influence student perceptions, abilities, and ultimately facilitate

motivation and continuous improvement? This study examines the instrumentality of virtual AI tools in cultivating public speaking abilities and presentation skills in graduate business (MBA) students. The objective of this study is to test the efficacy of AI-supported presentation practice tools as a predictor of presentation skill as well as perceptions on 5 dimensions of instrumentality: motivation to practice, perception of performance/skill level, level of frustration with presenting, amount of anxiety associated with presenting, self-efficacy of the speaker, and perceived performance skill.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW & HYPOTHESES**

The web-based AI-assisted presentation recording platform, PitchVantage, was selected to support MBA students in the presentation preparation and rehearsal phase for their technical and non-technical presentations. The interactive simulation platform allows users (students) to specify and select the type of virtual audience (technical vs. non-technical) based on their presentation type; consequently, the virtual audience responds non-verbally to how well the students present as perceived by the tool. In the absence of a live audience, a virtual audience that responds to the students in real-time may well afford a unique opportunity to develop students' motivation, confidence, and technique.

The PitchVantage platform not only provides students with a virtual audience that responds non-verbally in real time, the training simulation's personalized post-submission assessment results also identifies potential weaknesses in key areas of the presentation with feedback on 9 dimensions: pitch variability, pace variability, volume variability, verbal distractors, pauses, pace, long pauses, audience engagement, and volume. This feedback is available to students immediately after a presentation practice attempt is recorded using the tool. Key differences between traditional recording tools and the PitchVantage tool are further summarized in Table 1, below.

### **Gamification and its impact on motivation**

A promising perspective for explaining the impact of using a tool like PitchVantage on student perceptions about presenting and to overall student development in presentation ability is offered through the exploration of Gamification Learning Theory (GLT). Gamification is conceptualized as the application of characteristics and design techniques from games into non-gaming contexts to facilitate user experience and engagement (Deterding et al., 2011). For example, Ardito et al. (2012) reported positive interest and engagement from students who used an augmented virtual reality environment that enriched the students' physical environment. From a pedagogical perspective, gamification, simulations, and games have been found to be useful motivators in educational contexts, through assisting students in extracting meaning from the resultant successes and failures (Landers & Landers, 2015). Ongoing games allow learners to modify their decisions or actions to produce different outcomes which provides additional learning in each iterative practice attempt (Narang & Hota, 2015; Squire, 2005). Additionally, motivation and learning are further enhanced by responsive technology supported platforms that provide personalized learning experiences and feedback as found in a number of science learning studies (e.g., Balog & Pribeanu, 2010; Dunleavy & Dede, 2014; Jeng, 2012; Laine, 2016).

As noted by Huizenga (2019), the effects of moving educational practices with game-based learning to a mobile context show positive impacts on students' learning achievements, motivation for learning in school and interest in the subject matter that they learn in school (Abdul Jabbar & Felicia, 2015; Furió et al., 2015; So & Seo, 2018; Sung et al., 2016; Wilson et al., 2009; Wouters et al., 2013). As such, the following hypotheses are proposed:

*Hypothesis 1: Student self-reported perception of a) presentation performance, b) self-efficacy, c) anxiety, d) frustration, and e) motivation is positively associated with use of PV tool.*

*Hypothesis 2: use of PV tool is positively associated with student actual performance (instructor graded scores) on in-class presentations.*

**Table 1:**

*Differences between capture recording and practice using PitchVantage*

	<b>Capture Recording</b>	<b>PitchVantage</b>
Access	Students can access tools either synchronously or asynchronously	Asynchronous access only
Capture	Local or cloud recording is captured for future student use/reference	Cloud recording is captured for student reference
Interactivity	No; student records using a webcam	Yes; a virtual audience responds, in real-time, based on verbal, vocal, and non-verbal skill exhibited by presenter
Feedback	<p>If synchronous; real-time feedback can be provided, usually reviewed by the student post-presentation</p> <p>If asynchronous, feedback is received and reviewed post-presentation. Can be subject to lengthy turnaround times if course roster is large</p>	<p>Non-verbal response of virtual audience alerts students, in real time, to the effectiveness of the presenter allowing for presenters to modify behavior in the moment to re-engage the virtual audience.</p> <p>PitchVantage provides a score and feedback, accessible for review immediately post-presentation.</p> <p>Instructor may also review/score/provide feedback on the recordings</p>

## METHODOLOGY

To isolate the effects of PitchVantage use from confounds, and to enable conclusions about causality regarding the intervention, the study utilized an experimental design methodology. To establish control and experimental groups, the Course Instructor allowed the Canvas LMS to randomly split/auto-assign the class roster into two groups. Course assignments and instruction were identical for both groups, but the experimental group received access to the PitchVantage tool to support their presentation preparation and practice.

### Participants & Context

The participant pool was comprised of graduate business students in an online MBA program at a university in the Southwestern United States. The sample used in this study was comprised of 45 students in the Summer and Fall terms of 2020. The average age of the survey respondents was 32.23 years. Twenty-two respondents were women (51.1%).

### Measures

Student self-report data were collected using a mixed method pre/post questionnaire comprising of Likert scale statements and open-ended questions. For the quantitative portion of the questionnaire, five different dimensions of student presentation perceptions were measured using pre-existing validated scales from literature. Additional data on grades for midterm and final presentations were averaged and provided a measure of achievement.

## FINDINGS

While the results of the self-report portion (H1) of this study did not receive support, the more objective measure of performance, as assessed by the course instructor (H2), was partially supported at the  $p < .1$  level. This suggests that learners may not always be in the best position to assess incremental performance improvements in skill development. Additionally, crucial insights were gleaned through reading student comments and holding conversations with students (table 2, below). For example, to position an AI-supported tool favorably in a course, instructors should pay particular attention to how the tool is discussed in both the syllabus and the learning management system.

**Table 2:**

*Student Feedback when using PitchVantage*

	<b>Advantages</b>	<b>Challenges</b>
Most frequently cited:	Practice opportunity Feedback	Technology challenges (difficulty with certain browsers, mobile device)
Also noted:	Virtual audience	Functionality frustrations (inability to view PowerPoint when presenting)

## CONCLUSION

The calls for management education to prioritize the development of soft skills have been relentless for more than a decade (Adams, 2014; Berggren & Soderlund, 2011; Maellaro & Whittington, 2012; Paglis, 2012; Scott, 2010). In response to the pandemic and required social distancing, this paper offers an initial perspective into the instrumentality of using responsive, adaptive, and mobile platforms to reduce the amount of anxiety perceived by business students as they hone their skills in presenting ideas effectively.

After the summer course, the amount of points/credit awarded for utilizing the PitchVantage tool was increased resulting in an increase in practice attempts logged by Fall students. This suggests that students are not yet receptive to these types of tools in a business school setting and may need these types of tools incorporated as a required assignment or incentivized heavily with course extra credit. Future studies may find data supporting this as these types of tools become more widespread and adopted in business higher education settings.

Future studies may find interesting results when incorporating these tools into longer courses – semester-long instead of 6 ½ weeks – as issues with developing comfort with new technology adoption may require an extended timeframe or longer amount of interface before student perceptions of skill development can be formed. Replication studies with student populations other than online MBA degree-seeking students may also yield valuable insights. It is possible that these older, more experienced populations approach presenting with a more fixed, and less flexible, mindset than undergraduate student populations.

Finally, management courses beyond communication-related courses may see a benefit in student competence by incorporating similar tools for student practice. It has been said, for thousands of years, that the best way to understand a concept is to explain it to someone else. According to Seneca, the Roman Philosopher, “While we teach, we learn.”

## **ENDNOTES**

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## **REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS**