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A GUIDE FOR DEVELOPING A PERSONAL PHILOSOPHY OF ETHICS IN LEADERSHIP

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Abstract

A personal philosophy of ethics in leadership should be just that: personal (based on closely held beliefs); philosophical (grounded in the thinking of ethical theorists) and practical, (constructed so it can be useful to those entrusted to lead others) (Ball, 1997). The following framework for understanding the development of a personal philosophy of ethics in leadership is framed around the ethics of care, the ethic of the profession and Kant's Categorical Imperative (Cahn, 2013). This framework represents a model that can be used for today's ethical quandaries as it includes a reflection on four fundamental questions: what is my duty as a leader?; have I reflected on the rights of others?; does my proposed action reflect best practices?; and finally, is the proposed action in line with my deeply held beliefs? By utilizing these four criteria, one can evaluate an ethical decision with the full understanding that any specific action is in accordance with a grounded, ethical framework. This framework allows leaders the comfort of being able to make decisions with confidence and to whole heartedly show up for the challenge of ethical leadership.

AI GENERATED SUPPORT: HELP OR HINDRANCE FOR STUDENT ENGAGEMENT

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Abstract

Technology continues to develop at a rapid pace, as espoused by Cooper's Law, Moore's Law, Gilder's Law, and Less's Law, to name a few. As technology develops, educational institutions have to decide how to incorporate that technology into the skill building of their students. One of these new technologies is artificial intelligence, a term coined by John McCarthy in 1955 to mean "the science and engineering of making intelligent machines" (Manning, 2020). In those 70 years, we've seen a drastic change in what the capabilities of AI can do, leading more and more to adopt the tool, specifically in the higher education industry. In a recent study, 56% of students claimed that they have used AI to assist on an assignment or exam (Nam, 2023). But while students have increased their usage of AI, professors have been slow to adopt the technological tool, with only 22% surveyed using it regularly, with 75% of those saying it is important for students to know how to use AI in a professional setting (Coffey, 2023). Interestingly enough, 54% of students believe that using AI to assist them in assignments is a form of plagiarism/cheating (Nam, 2023).

The question is whether they believe that themselves or have been indoctrinated to believe that by their institution by the prohibition of AI tools. For instance, there have been several instances of a student who has received a zero on a major assignment due to the use of Grammarly, a generative AI that "provides solutions and real time writing suggestions to create and strengthen [users] written communication" (Grammarly, 2024). This example is compounded by the rapid growth of ChatGPT in recent years, with the platform reaching over 100 million active users only two months after it was released, making it the fastest growing consumer application to date (Hu, 2023).

Combine these factors and one has to wonder how pervasive will the use of AI become in the higher education industry. It is clear that currently students use of AI far outpaces that of professors' usage on a regular basis, and that use continues to grow every day. Eventually, both institutions and individual classrooms will need to adopt policy that outlines the proper use of AI tools within classroom parameters. Whether that will be a complete ban as some institutions have done, a prohibition by certain professors, or a guide on how to constructively use the tool must be determined soon. Before policies can be created, we must understand the effect that these AI tools have on students with the material they are assigned.

Purpose

The purpose of this research is to better understand how students engage with classroom material while using AI. We are hoping to develop a better understanding of whether generative AI tools help or hinder students in understanding course material and completing assignments for the class. Students will be asked to compare assignments completed using the traditional research method against those using AI generated material to help supplement (not replace) traditional research methods.

Methodology

This paper will focus on how students complete the semester project in Eureka College's BUA310 International Business course, specifically the Spring and Fall 2023 semesters. This project tasks students with selecting a random country and conducting research on that country to determine whether that country would be a good country to expand into with a company that is assigned to them. Further details of this assignment can be found in Appendix A.

Details of the country can include basics such as demographics, GDP/GNI, economic trends, regulatory and social structures, etc. In the last two semesters, these students have been provided supplement material that was generated by an AI, specifically ChatGPT. This material focuses on basic research information on the country and a SWOT analysis of the company they were assigned.

In order to collect data on whether this material helped or hindered students to complete the project, we compiled 11 questions to ask students who have previously completed the course. The students that were asked were from the Spring of 2023 and the Fall of 2023 semesters. The total number of students in these courses were 33 students, and we interviewed 10 of these students. We collected responses in person for six students and online through Microsoft Forms for four students. This data was then analyzed through Microsoft Excel.

Findings

Question one asked students to rate the impact of using AI-generated information on the quality of their final project on a scale from 1-10, with one being significantly negatively impacted, five being no impact, and ten being significantly improved. The mode and median results for this question were a 7, with a mean of 7.19. This indicates that overall students found that the use of AI-generated information moderately improved the quality of their final project, with a standard deviation of 1.19 and a variance of 1.42.

Question two asked students to indicate the difference in evaluation score between this project and projects that did not use AI generated information. For this question, 1 indicated a lower score, 2 indicated no difference, and 3 indicated a higher score. The mode and median came back as 3, with a mean of 2.5. Overall, this shows that students felt more confident in their performance with AI generated information, with a standard deviation of .52 and a variance of only .27. A key takeaway is that no student felt that the use of this information hurt their ability to perform on the project.

Question three asked students to rate the level of improvement in their ability to analyze and synthesize information with AI generated information as compared to without that AI information on a scale of 1-10, with one being significantly negatively impacted, five had no impact, and ten had a significant improvement. The mode and median for this data set was a 7, indicating a moderate improvement in their ability by using AI generated information. The mean was a 6.58, with a standard deviation of 1.66 and a variance of 2.76.

Question four asked students to determine whether it took the students any less or more time to complete the project as compared to projects without AI generated information, with a score of one being less time, two being no difference, and three being that it took longer. Overall, the mean of this question was 1.33, with a standard deviation of .69 and a variance of .47. This means that the students found it took less time overall to complete the project using AI information.

Question six asked students to rate how difficult it was to integrate the information they received from AI into their paper on a scale of 1-10, with one being no difficulty to ten being significant difficulty. We found the mode and median to be five, with a mean of 3.06, a standard deviation 0f 2.55, and a variance of 6.52. Here we see that while overall students did not find it difficult to integrate the information, there were a few outliers to this. Based on feedback provided in their answers, it seems that some struggled to understand how to best use the information while others feared that using it might lead to plagiarism charges.

Question seven asked students to determine the extent their project organization/structure changed due to the introduction of AI generated information on a scale of 1-10, with one being no change and ten significant change. The mode and median for this question were 1 with a mean of 1.71, a standard deviation of 1.78, and a variation of 3.16. This question actually highlights a much more important piece of information than what the surface shows. Ultimately, this highlights that students did not overall change how they intended on structuring or organizing their paper when provided with AI generated content. This illustrates that while students will use AI generated information, it doesn't represent a significant issue around plagiarism when the AI content use and assignment policies are structured correctly. The students will use it as a tool rather than a crutch.

Question eight asked students to rate the extent their understanding of the subject matter improved by using AI generated information on a scale of 1-10, with one being significantly negatively impacted, with five being no impact, and ten being significantly improved their understanding. We found the mode and median to be 7 for this, but a mean of 5.85, with a standard deviation of 2.25, and a variance of 5.07. Overall, the students found that having a concise research document helped them understand the subject matter better than starting with a blank slate. The

reason that standard deviation and variance are so high is due to the fact that there was an outlier that felt that the AI information did not help them understand the material any better than before. This was a high performing student whose primary learning method is through note taking and lecture. This shows that certain students will benefit from AI supporting material but some will not, and we must take this into account.

Question nine asked students how AI generated information impacted their ability to present and communicate their findings compared to projects without AI supplementation on a scale of 1-10, with one being significantly negatively impacted, five had no impact, and ten was significantly improved their ability to present and communicate their findings. We found the mode and median for this question to be 5, with a mean of 6.09. This supports that students were more confident in presenting their findings when supplementing their material with AI generated content. This correlates well with the previous question in student understanding of the material.

Question ten asked students whether they would prefer to use AI-generated information, traditional research methods, or if they had no preference for future projects. Scores of 1 indicate a preference for AI, a 2 is no preference, and a 3 indicated a preference for traditional. We found the mode and median to be one, with a mean of 1.42, a standard deviation of .69, and a variation of .47. This shows that students have a slight tendency toward using AI generated content to supplement their traditional research.

Discussion of Findings

Our overall findings show that as a majority students engage well with AI generated content to help support their traditional research methods. Students believe that they understand the material better than traditional research methods, it helps them with a starting point to launch their research which helps them form a thesis easier. Based on this, it ultimately helps the students find additional research to further support their thesis quicker and easier, shortening the time that it takes for them to complete the project while turning in a stronger finished project. Once they've turned in a stronger finished project with additional sources, they appear to feel more confident about the material and therefore are able to present their findings better.

Some concerns students had regarding AI was the ability to tell whether the material provided was accurate, which led to some taking additional time than they normally would have in fact checking the source material. Along with this mistrust of the information, some felt it wasn't in their best interest to utilize that material until later in the creation of their paper. Several students also were hesitant in inputting the material into their paper due to concerns regarding plagiarism, fearing they would fail the assignment if they used the AI content incorrectly.

This provides some excellent insight into how we can appropriately use AI as a tool in the classroom to help students that learn in different ways. The policies on AI need to be appropriately structured, and the students need to be given proper guidance on how to use generative AI software, just as with all new tools that need to be learned. Once this is done well, students can see an increase in their engagement with course material and assignments, stronger performance in and out of the classroom, and a better handle on a skillset that will be used in the professional world.

Shortcomings of the study

This study is unfortunately short lived and with few participants. With only two semesters and with ongoing changes to generative AI during this time period, the results are limited. Only being able to survey 10 students for findings limits the ability to generalize the findings to the larger population. The intent is for the study to continue over the next few semesters to better gather results as AI becomes more popular and better understood.

Areas of further study

This study has opened a few areas of potential further analysis. The main one that seems to be of most importance to supplement this study is the impact of policy regarding the use of generative AI on how students feel about using generative AI. As mentioned earlier, while 56% of students use AI 54% believe that it is a form of cheating or plagiarism. The issue here is that generative AI is nothing more than a tool, used to help supplement the process of performing a task. Excel is a powerful tool that allows for us to quickly and easily run formulas without running the hand calculations. In this case, generative AI is nothing more than a tool that helps formulate basic research without running the analysis. Understanding how to use AI is important, with an estimated 74% of businesses planning to use some form of AI in 2024 (Haan, 2023). With that amount, students need to understand the impact of AI and how to properly use it. But this means that educational institutions need to structure the usage correctly.

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Appendix A

Survey Questions Asked

1) How do you think the use of AI-generated information might have affected the quality of your final project compared to traditional research methods?
    a) Quantitative analysis: "Please rate the impact of using AI-generated information on the quality of your final project on a scale from 1 (negatively affected) to 10 (significantly improved)."
2) Did you notice any differences in the grades or evaluation scores of your project compared to projects that didn't use AI-generated information?
    a) Quantitative analysis: "Please indicate the difference in grades or evaluation scores between your project and those not using AI-generated information: 1 (Lower), 2 (No difference), 3 (Higher)."
3) Do you feel that using AI-generated information helped you analyze and synthesize information better than if you hadn't used it?
    a) Quantitative analysis: "Rate the level of improvement in your ability to analyze and synthesize information with AI-generated information compared to without it on a scale from 1 (No improvement) to 10 (Significant improvement)."
4) Did you find any differences in the time it took to complete your project compared to projects that didn't use AI-generated information?
    a) Quantitative analysis: "Please estimate the difference in completion time between your project and those without AI-generated information: 1 (Shorter), 2 (No difference), 3 (Longer)."
5) What specific advantages or disadvantages did you encounter when utilizing AI-generated information compared to traditional research methods?
6) Were there any challenges in integrating AI-generated information into your project, and how did you address them?
    a) Quantitative analysis: "Rate the level of difficulty in integrating AI-generated information into your project on a scale from 1 (Not difficult) to 10 (Very difficult)."

7) Did the use of AI-generated information change the way you organized or structured your project compared to projects without AI supplementation?

    a) Quantitative analysis: "Rate the extent of change in project organization or structure due to AI-generated information on a scale from 1 (No change) to 10 (Significant change)."

8) How did your understanding of the subject matter deepen or broaden by using AI-generated information, if at all?

    a) Quantitative analysis: "Rate the extent of improvement in your understanding of the subject matter with AI-generated information on a scale from 1 (No improvement) to 10 (Significant improvement)."

9) How did the utilization of AI-generated information impact your ability to present and communicate your findings compared to projects without AI supplementation?

    a) Quantitative analysis: "Rate the impact of using AI-generated information on your ability to present findings from 1 (Negatively impacted) to 10 (Significantly improved)."

10) In retrospect, would you prefer using AI-generated information for future projects, or do you feel more inclined towards traditional research methods?

    a) Quantitative analysis: "Indicate your preference for future projects: 1 (Prefer AI-generated information), 2 (No preference), 3 (Traditional Research method)."

11) What recommendations would you give to future students considering the integration of AI-generated information into their academic projects based on your experience?

AI IN HR: AN ACADEMIC'S GUIDE TO CURRICULUM DESIGN

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Abstract

It is now widely understood and accepted that a workplace which incorporates AI into its daily operations is not a futuristic concept, but rather, it is now ingrained into certain workplace processes which directly impact the labor market. At present, there is a shortage of workers who can develop and effectively use AI technology, which prevents the maximum use of AI capabilities in organizations within the U.S. (Robb, 2022). As such, it is critical to prepare members of the future workforce with the tools they need to be successful in the ever-evolving work landscape. This has relevance in almost all fields of work, and it is therefore prudent for academicians to explore novel ways the curriculum can be redesigned to adequately prepare students for success in the job market.

This work will focus on a general framework which was designed to be incorporated into courses in the HR curriculum. From an HR perspective, this approach starts with an understanding of the role of AI in HR as this is necessary to determine the implications of AI for HR graduates. This study will demonstrate how this information can be used to incorporate AI into the HR curriculum in a way which supplements the traditional elements of courses. A detailed description of how this can be done will be provided. This will include an example of an assignment which incorporates AI to test the students' skills and understanding as it relates to the HR course.

One major advantage of this framework is it can be adapted to almost any business course. The aim of this approach is to incorporate AI into the curriculum to upskill students in this area as it relates to their chosen career, thus providing them with an opportunity to be "in demand" employees.

Keywords: AI, Artificial Intelligence, Generative AI, HR curriculum, Human Resource Management, curriculum design

A REMOTE WORKFORCE: CREATING AND DEVELOPING CAPABLE EMPLOYEES

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Abstract

A remote workforce has been around for years; however, it wasn't until the COVID pandemic that it became a necessity, rather than a privilege. Since 2020, some employees have returned to the workplace while others have remained remote or hybrid. The purpose of this paper is to examine the employee concerns surrounding the creation and development of a capable remote workforce and how technology can help. It is proposed that trust, communication, and productivity are the main drivers of a competent and productive workforce, especially in a remote environment. An interpretive phenomenological study will be used to gather data through interviews and thematic analysis for coding. The results will help managers create and develop a sustainable and productive remote workforce.

Keywords: remote, workforce, employees, hybrid, trust, communication, productivity

EMPATHETIC EXCHANGE: UNRAVELING POST-PANDEMIC TIPPING DYNAMICS IN U.S. RESTAURANTS THROUGH ORGANIZATIONAL PRIDE, SOCIAL IDENTITY, AND VAB FRAMEWORK

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Abstract

Tipping is a unique practice, especially in the U.S. food and beverage service industries. Given its impact on employee and firm performance, tipping has been widely studied in hospitality, economic, and psychology literature. However, recent reports reveal that post-pandemic tipping practices have evolved and norms are being challenged. Most scholars agree that tipping is a social practice and the behavior taps into our collective tendencies to help others. Despite this understanding, few studies have examined empathy as an antecedent of tipping and none have attempted to understand the motives of empathy in a customer-server exchange. Using the VAB framework, this study explores the relationships between organizational pride (values), identity salience, empathy (attitudes), and tipping (behavior). This study aims to fill a gap in the literature by exploring underlying motives of empathy towards tipped service workers. Results from this study can be used to manage the consumer monitoring process and improve employee workplace satisfaction.

Keywords: Tipping, Social Identity, Organizational Pride, Empathy

Introduction

Since the 2020 global pandemic, there is a shift in consumer tipping behavior in the service industry and norms are being challenged (Lynn, 2023). Tips and gratuities account for roughly $47 billion dollars in the food service industry (Azar, 2011a). According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, there are 1,859,020 waiters and waitresses (tipped employees) currently employed in full-service, limited service, special food-service, and drinking places (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2023). Tipping contributes significantly to the revenue of these service employees and subsequently, reduce the cost of labor for many employers where tip credits are allowed (Lynn, 2017). The current federal minimum tipped wage stands at $2.13 an hour, and has remained unchanged since 1996. At the time of its inception, the tip wage equaled 50% of the federal minimum wage, whereas now, it is equivalent to 29.4% of the current federal minimum wage, $7.25 (Shy, 2018), which has put more emphasis on employees generating tips to supplement their income. This increased pressure and shifting consumer norms has prompted additional exploration into the topic.

Tipping is not exclusive to the U.S. and has a long, complicated history. From a socialeconomic perspective, tipping is an unusual practice as customers typically trade resources to maximize utility. In other words, a customer would not typically and voluntarily give more money than presented on a bill (Azar, 2007). However, tipping is a social behavior, a transaction between two or more individuals, which many argue is culturally influenced (Lynn, Zinkhan, & Harris, 1993). From an organizational perspective, in the context of foodservice operations, tipping is believed to be a symbiotic relationship between the employee and firm. In that, by lowering wages (for tipped employees) it allows for lower menu prices (due to lower costs), which will increase patronage (consumer monitoring) and tips for employees. The long-standing, albeit incorrect, assumption is that as the quality of service and bill size increases so will the amount of the tip (Lynn, 2015). Scholars from various fields (hospitality, economics, psychology) have consistently argued that the act of tipping is embedded into social norms (Azar, 2007). In a notable study by Lynn (2015), the authors outlined social norms of tipping waitstaff as desire to help servers, to reward service, to gain or keep preferential future service, to gain/keep self-esteem, and to fulfill and sense of social obligation. It's argued

that the undertone of the norm is empathy or compassion for those working within the service industry (Azar, 2007; Canioz & Coskun, 2019). However, there are few studies that have tested empathy as a driver of behavior towards service employes (Davis et al., 2017) or as a tool to improve tips (Fernandez et al., 2020).

Tipping has an impact on employee motivation, workplace satisfaction and well-being. Frey, Bayón, & Totzek (2013) stated that employee satisfaction and retention are largely based upon client satisfaction in a client employed dyad, such as service provided by employees to customers in restaurants. Arguably, consumers preference for quality service will motivate tipped workers offer quality service in order to attract more tipping customers and receive more tips, which will increase satisfaction for both actors while driving sales for the operation. While prevalent, this model puts pressure on the tipped employee, which has a negative influence on employee satisfaction (Lynn, 2015). Andrea, et. al, (2018) used service industry-based research to identify the negative impacts that the pressure of working a tipped wage position places on individual's mental health. Emotional labor can have a negative effect on the employees physical and mental health, emotional exhaustion, and anxiety (Chen, et. al, 2022). In turn, these negative attributes can be found to affect the productivity, satisfaction, and well-being of the employee, which drive costly turnover issues.

Consumers are, in large part, aware of the struggle tipped employes face (Hilkenmeier & Hoffmann, 2022) and it has led to strong yet varied opinions on the necessity of tipping and the amounts in dollars and percentages considered appropriate (Azar, 2007). Variations in patron tipping behavior causes stress and burnout for tipped employees, which leads to turnover issues for employers. Tip improvement strategy's help assist management in developing appropriate strategies for employees, which has been found to be a successful practice (Fernandez et al., 2020). Tip improvement literature ranges in perspective such as the role of reciprocity on tipping (Seiter & Weger, 2018) to the work of Hilkenmeier & Hoffmann (2022) which examined the specific act of gift giving on generating tips. This study is, in part, an extension in the area of tip improvement research and attempts to address the issue by exploring the roles of identity and empathy on tipping by constructing and testing a theoretical model of behavior.

Hypothesis Development & Research Model

According to Tajfel (1982), the enactment of social identity is affected by social norms. People are likely to conform to social norms within their social group and these norms guide behavior. Further, one's social identity is enacted by the context of one's environment (Brenner, Serpe & Stryker, 2014). Within this study, social identity and social norm pressures are used in regard to those currently or previously employed within the hospitality industry who find social salience within the group and its respective members versus individuals with no relation to the industry. Contemporary studies have acknowledged the social aspect of tipping and the cultural pressure to conform to what is expected (Lynn, 2023). In this study, the variation of social pressure in those who find identity salience within the hospitality industry is studied compared to those who have no relation or reason to empathize with hospitality workers.

The purpose of this study is to understand the role of empathy and hospitality experience (identity salience) on tipping behavior. Previous studies indicate that many consumers feel pressured to provide gratuity due to the influence of social pressures such as guilt, pride, and altruism (Lynn, 2022). Canioz & Coskun (2019) studied the effects of empathy and showed that members with similar social identity enacted a stronger sense of empathy towards others in the group. In the hospitality industry, this sense of empathy could be influenced by an understanding of the server's situation and challenges they face (Davis et al., 2017), however, that has not been directly tested. An objective of this research is to analyze if the sense of career pride noted by Gouthier and Rhein (2011) is salient in relative situations and has an indirect path to pro-tipping behavior. Expanding on previous literature by Lynn (2015), this research intends to examine the identity (career salience) factors that support increased tipping. The following hypothesis are presented:

H1: A high level of hospitality career satisfaction will increase empathy towards tipped employees. H2: A high level of hospitality career satisfaction will increase hospitality identity salience when in service settings. H3: A high level of empathy towards tipped employees will increase tip amounts (dollar and percentage). H4: A high level of hospitality identity salience towards tipped employees will increase tip amounts (dollar and percentage). H5: Hospitality identity salience and empathy will mediate the effect hospitality career satisfaction has on tip amounts (dollar and percentage).

Research Model

In order to address the hypothesis, a theoretical model following the values, attitude, and behavior (VAB) framework is proposed. A long-standing reliable tool used in social psychology, the VAB framework allows for researchers to explore complex mental process by following a logical sequence (Kahle, Kulka, & Klingel, 1980). The

VAB model has been used in hospitality research to explore a variety of topics related to consumer and employee behavior (Johnston, et al., 2018).

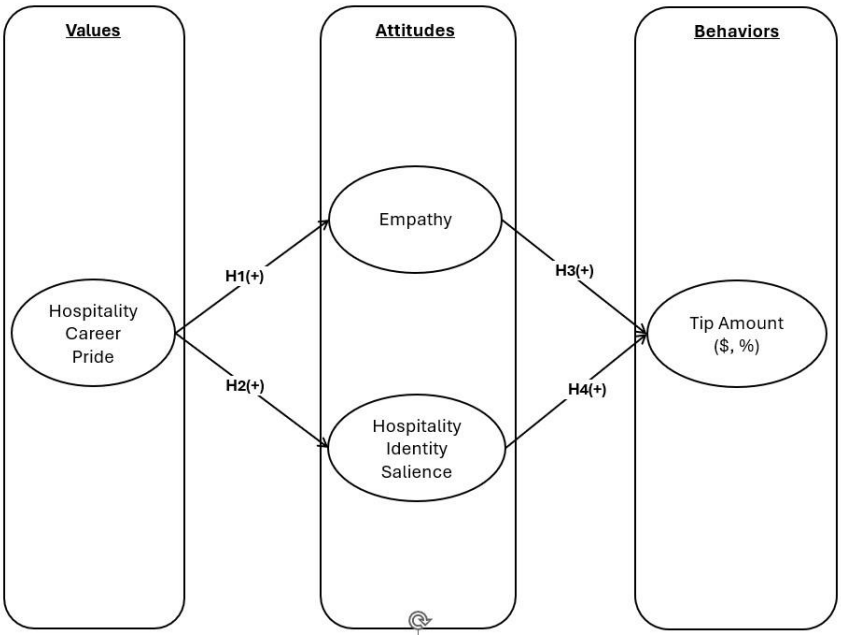

Figure 1. An illustration of the theoretical framework developed for this study including the VAB model dimensions.

Methodology

This research utilizes a quantitative approach and sampled U.S. restaurant consumers 18+ years or older to better understand tipping practices. The instrument was created from preexisting literature, modified to fit the study, and reviewed by experts in the field. The subsection within the questionnaire concerning social identity is based on survey research by Cheek (1994), the Aspects of Identity Questionnaire, which studies the personal, social, and collective aspects of identity. Questionnaire items focused on Organizational Identity were sourced from Wan, Wong, & Kong (2014). Survey items determining levels of role identity taken from a questionnaire addressing psychological centrality and identity salience by Morris (2013) were added to the instrument to address organizational identity. The last two sections of the questionnaire captured the gratuity perspectives of the respondent (Tang, Raab, Zemke, & Choi, 2022) and demographics (age, gender, income, education).

The data will be collected Spring 2024 using a survey instrument distributed on Qualtrics. Data will be screened and analyzed using SPSS 28 and AMOS 28. This study will test hypothesis by creating and testing a structural model (Field, 2009). A two-step model building approach will be used (Kline, 2005) and maximum likelihood estimation applied (Baron and Kenny, 1986). Several model fit indices (e.g. RMSEA, NFI, TFI) will be included to assess model fit. Chi-square (χ^2) difference testing will be used to compare model fit (Reifman, 2007). To explore mediating effects a multi-step method established by Baron & Kenny (1986) will be used.

Assumptions of the Study

In this study, it is predicted that restaurant patrons with (previous or current employment) experience in the hospitality industry (tipped and non-tipped positions) will be strongly empathic towards waitstaff due to an increase of their identity salience (relatability) to these workers. This increase of empathy will, subsequently, increase the tip amount ($ and %) and satisfaction with the service of the server.

Further, this study postulates that as the length of hospitality workplace experience increases so will the strength of the consumers hospitality identity salience when in a restaurant setting. Length of time working in the hospitality industry serves as a moderator on the proposed model. This aligns with research by Thoits (2012) and Burke & Reitzes (1991), which found a connection between the length of time in a particular role and its relevance to

one's identity. Findings will provide insight into the role of workplace identity on consumer's interactions and attitudes towards line-level service employees, which has had little attention in the literature (Lynn, 2018).

Finally, management and waitstaff can utilize results from this study to better understand why customers tip and develop strategies to improve tips. Tipping allows for firms to offer reasonably priced menu items and incentivizes employees to offer a high-level of customer service (Lynn, 2016). Successful operations foster the employee skills and opportunities to earn tips through behavioral training and modifications to process (e.g. tip prompts). Results from this study can be used to understand the customer experience and develop strategies to improve employee well-being and firm performance.

Limitations

Though the topics of social identity, social norms, and gratuity are widely explored individually, limitations occur because of the experience-based nature of this social study. These results are limited in generalizability due to sampling methods and the nature of social science research. Efforts were made to collect data from a representative and appropriate sample but is not generalizable to the U.S. population. Also, given the complexity of the human experience, results can differ from one individual to another, and each individual person's experiences may vary.

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IMPACTS OF SERVANT LEADERSHIP ON BURNOUT LEVEL OF NURSING STAFF: A STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODEL

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Abstract

Servant leadership reflects the Christian values and Biblical principles of providing service to others. The effects of servant leadership on employees are not known. Our purpose was to examine whether the practice of servant leadership in a Christian hospital improves effectiveness and/or decreases job burnout among staff nurses. Full-time employees of the Metroplex Adventist Hospital were surveyed. Structural Equation Model analysis of the 315 responses showed that servant leadership offers five virtues: interpersonal support, community building, altruism, egalitarianism, and moral integrity, all of which were significantly negatively correlated with job burnout in terms of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment.

The goodness of fit (GFI) was good, significant, and adequate: CFI = 0.923, χ^2 = 3296.37, probability level p = 0.000, RMSEA = 0.021, NFI = 0.930, IFI = 0.930, TLI = 0.935. Post-hoc modification analyses were not conducted because these are the best results suggested by the AMOS analysis. It is notable that the standardized regression weight, β, is -0.68 with a significant probability level of 0.000. This indicated that Executive Servant Leadership will significantly reduce the nursing job burnout.

Aim—The purpose of this study was to examine nursing staff perceptions on the relationship between an executive leader's quality and their burnout levels.

Background—Many nurses enter the profession with great expectations and passions. However, the stressors of heavy workloads, irregular hours, difficult patients/family members, and life-and-death issues might be mentally exhausting and can lead to fatigue, aloofness, and eventually burnout. It could potentially impair the quality of patient care.

Method—The Structural Equation Model was used to analyze servant leadership virtues and burnout levels.

Results—The results indicated that the five virtues of servant leadership are inversely correlated with the dimensions of job burnout.

Conclusion— Moral integrity is the most important virtue that a leader should possess. Directors should develop the servant leadership virtues to increase job satisfaction and decrease burnout.

Implications for Nursing Management—Nurses would commit to their jobs if they perceived their leaders as ethical and possessing moral courage.

Keywords: leadership, burnout, nursing staff

Introduction

When people work in challenging and difficult environments for long periods of time, the collective consequences of tension and stress could easily cause burnout, and the nursing profession is one such example (de Souza Nogueira et al., 2018). Having to juggle a multitude of responsibilities such as keeping patients safe, answering to demands of doctors, patients, and patient family members alike, and making life-saving decisions on the spot, the

nursing profession is one that is wrought with high levels of stress, thus causing nurses to be especially prone to burnout (Aytekin, Yilmaz, & Kuguoglu, 2013; Parul et al., 2014).

Many nurses enter the profession with idealism, enthusiasm, and great expectations, and consider the commitment to help and serve people as a social contribution and an opportunity to not only express their caring compassion for others, but also provide holistic and unconditional service to individuals in need (Kasdovasili & Theofilou, 2016). Unfortunately, oftentimes nurses' enthusiasm and desire to serve the whole human being becomes clouded by numerous stressors from their work environments, such as dealing with patients' life-and-death issues, constantly learning advanced technology, handling difficult requests from family members, managing conflicts among healthcare team members, adapting to irregular and long hours, and accommodating heavy workloads (Aytekin et al., 2013).

Eventually, these strains and stressors can potentially exhaust nurses, impair their mental health and well-being, and experience emotions such as frustration, fatigue, anxiety, and ultimately job burnout (Moukarzel et al., 2019). As a result, when they experience these negative effects that can lead to burnout, the turnover rate inevitably increases and can eventually cause potential impairment in the quality of patient care (Shahriari, Shamali, & Yazdannik, 2014).

Burnout and Job Stress

It is common knowledge that some form of stress occurs in all occupations, but the work environment for nurses is notorious for its operational burdens and work overload. Oftentimes, they cannot finish a task completely before getting pulled in another direction after next to start another new task (Van Bogaert et al., 2014). After an extended period of time, these stresses begin to show symptoms. These symptoms, which could range from self-confidence problems, unhappiness, physical complaints, and sleep problems, can ultimately lead to burnout (Aytekin et al., 2013). In addition, depending on the intensity of the burnout, the individual would also experience a variety of negative behaviors such as emotional agitation, personal grudges, negative attitudes, low morale, and eventually absenteeism and resignation (Muhawish, Salem, & Baker, 2019).

In a study that was conducted on 379 health care professionals from three emergency departments, researchers found that job strains and a low mental component were related to burnout. The job strains included substantial workload, lack of acknowledgement, interpersonal conflicts, and workplace violence. The low mental component was related to low quality of life (Moukarzel et al., 2019). In another study conducted on 150 nurses from multicultural settings, researchers discovered that job related stressors include heavy workload, ambiguity of roles, poor team interaction, conflicts and criticism at work (Muhawish et al., 2019).

Burnout and Management Style

To help combat this less-than-desired phenomenon and to alleviate the stressors of nurses, something can be, and must be, done from a management perspective. A cross-sectional survey conducted on 1,201 acute-care nurses found that when nurses experienced burnout, the quality of patient care would decrease, and the researchers suggested that nurse leaders should create a supportive and trusting environment based on shared values for nursing practices (Van Bogaert et al., 2013). That said, good nurse leaders must uphold certain qualities and characteristics that would help assist nurses in doing their tasks and promote better working environments. A survey was conducted on 342 newly graduated nurses on how authentic leadership, which is described as a leader who focused on morality, trustworthiness, transparency, integrity and reliability in his/her relationship with employees, impacted their experiences in workplace bullying, burnout, and retention (Spence Laschinger, Wong, & Grau, 2012). The findings indicated that the positive relationship-focused management was significant in forming a caring and supportive atmosphere to reduce workplace bullying and burnout feelings and retain more nurses in the unit (Spence et al., 2012).

There was also a study where researchers used observation and secondary data analysis to explore how organization factors in working environments affected burnout levels on 353 psychiatric nurses. The researchers indicated that excellent working environments, supportive leaders, good interprofessional relationships, and reasonable workloads could decrease burnout. Therefore, authentic leadership styles and supportive management are essential in decreasing job burnout, shaping optimal working environment, and preventing emotional fatigue of nurses. The leaders need to be reliable, caring, honest, genuine, and value their employees by meaningful recognition of their contributions (Hanrahan, Aiken, McClaine, & Hanlon, 2010; Kelly & Todd, 2017).

Servant Leadership

The focus of this study is the effect of servant leadership on the nursing job burnout. The concept of servant leadership is related to the religious belief and Christian value of service, which emphasizes performing services for other individuals first before focusing on the good for the community (Ebener & O'Connell, 2010; Waterman, 2011). For executive servant leadership, there are five aspects: interpersonal support, building community, altruism, egalitarianism, and moral integrity (Reed, Vidaver-Cohen, & Colwell, 2011).

Interpersonal Support

Servant leadership is an unselfish and holistic approach. It focuses on supporting and motivating employee performances (Reed et al., 2011). The attributed traits and features of servant leaders include empathy, listening, awareness, conceptualization, persuasion, foresight, stewardship, building community, and commitment to the growth of people (Black, 2010; Ebener & O'Connell, 2010). They prefer to produce a caring and supportive working environment for employees that includes helping others to thrive, developing others' management potential, listening attentively, sharing decision-making, and treating workers with respect (Reed et al., 2011; Tsai & Huang, 2008).

Building Community

An effective servant leader should have the ability to build a functionable working environment, internally and externally. A good internal environment can be established by respecting an individual's differences in thoughts and needs, encouraging team cooperation, and showing commitment to the organization. External settings can be built by understanding that an organization has its moral responsibility to advance and impact the societies in which the organization operates (Ebener & O'Connell, 2010; Reed et al. 2011). The servant leader must be able to connect with others and establish trust, as well as inspire other employees to support and give more efforts for the advancement of the organization (Ebener & O'Connell, 2010).

Altruism

When a leader creates an ethical and altruistic climate, employees' career satisfactions and work experiences are more optimistic. Altruism is one of the essential virtues of success in leadership for developing and maintaining interpersonal relationships. It is also a performance outcome demonstrated by employees providing help to others, even if it is not required (Axelsson & Axelsson, 2009; Moss & Barbuto, 2010). With good interpersonal relationships in the work environment, job stress and turnover rates could be decreased, and career satisfaction could be increased (Valentine, Godkin, Fleischman, & Page, 2011).

Egalitarianism

Another important factor of servant leadership is the principle of equity and fairness (Braxton, 2009). In order to make reasonable and rational plans and choices, leaders should be able to open themselves up to different opinions, demonstrate interest in learning from others, take constructive criticism, and maintain social fairness and legal justice (Reed et al., 2011). The leader should be able to guide and make employees feel safe and able to express ideas without fear of consequences (Braxton, 2009; Reed et al., 2011).

Moral Integrity

Honesty and responsibility are the other principles that should be maintained. In a healthcare organization, a leader should promote an appropriate work atmosphere and refuse personal interests and material gain. He or she should promote ethical principles and values and integrate them into the organizational mission statement, education, whistle-blowing system, and administrator role modeling (Tsai & Huang, 2008). A leader's moral image and willpower to create a fair atmosphere and uphold ethical principles for organizational justice are important to employee behavior and job satisfaction (Hannah, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2011; Tsai & Huang, 2008).

Methods

The purpose of the study was to discover how the factors of the servant leadership style impact the job burnout levels of nursing staff in a Christian hospital. The job burnout levels are evaluated by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) in terms of the three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack of personal accomplishment (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). The instrument was created by authors to explain how MBI was designed to explain burnout syndrome into three levels from low to high, with internal and external validity. The major research interest was to discover whether the bottom-up servant leadership theory of "serving" first and "leading" second can

be truly practiced by the president of a Christian healthcare organization, as well as whether it is effective in reducing employee burnout.

Therefore, the study was attempted to explore the following queries:

- What are the executive servant leadership levels perceived by nursing staff?
- What is the level of burnout perceived by nursing staff?
- Are executive servant leadership practices linked to job burnout levels among nursing staff?
- Which components of servant leadership can significantly reduce burnout among nursing staff?

Hypotheses

There were six hypotheses investigated based on the queries:

- Hypothesis 1—Interpersonal support offered by servant leadership is negatively correlated to the three main dimensions (emotional exhaustion [EE], depersonalization [DP], and lack of personal accomplishments [PA]) of burnout in nursing staff.
- Hypothesis 2—Community building through servant leadership is inversely correlated to the three main dimensions (EE, DP, and lack of PA) of burnout in nursing staff.
- Hypothesis 3—Altruism of servant leadership is inversely correlated to the three main dimensions (EE, DP, and lack of PA) of burnout in nursing staff.
- Hypothesis 4—Egalitarianism of servant leadership is inversely correlated to the three main dimensions (EE, DP, and lack of PA) of burnout in nursing staff.
- Hypothesis 5—The moral integrity of servant leadership is inversely correlated to the three main dimensions (EE, DP, and lack of PA) of burnout in nursing staff.
- Hypothesis 6—Nursing staff perceptions of the organization's top leader's commitment to and support of these five servant leadership factors correlate to their experience of the three main dimensions (EE, DP, and lack of PA) of job burnout.

Instrumentations and Measures

Servant leadership was assessed with the 55-item Executive Servant Leadership Scale (ESLS) by Reed et al. (2011). The instrument was validated by a private college in Florida with 1,522 respondents. The five factors of servant leadership were identified through factorial analysis. Participants were asked if their chief executive officer (CEO) in the hospital showed behaviors directly connected to one of each of the five factors, and they responded by using a Likert type scale of 1 to 4 with 1 as strongly disagree and 4 as strongly agree (Reed et al., 2011).

The job burnout was assessed with the 22-item Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). The questionnaires were obtained from Mind Garden, Inc. The three dimensions of burnout level (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a lack of personal accomplishments) (Maslach & Jackson, 1986) were measured. Respondents were surveyed by answering each question on a 0 to 6 scale with never as 0, slowly progressing to few times a year (1), once a month (2), few times a month (3), once a week (4), few times a week (5), and daily (6) (Maslach & Jackson, 1986).

Data Analysis

All responses were electronically entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Data were analyzed using the Structural Equation Model (SEM), a statistical tool whose purpose is to correlate multiple dependent variables into a multivariate analysis in order to assess the significance of each variable in relation to each other. Due to analysis specification, missing data were dismissed from the set. Endogenous variables (dependent variables: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a lack of personal accomplishments) (Maslach & Jackson, 1986) are the variables affected by exogenous variables (independent variables: interpersonal support, building community, altruism, egalitarianism, and moral integrity) (Reed et al., 2011).

AMOS 20.0 and SPSS 23.0 were utilized as tools for structural equation modeling analysis, which perform scale development, factorial analysis, model confirmation, descriptive statistics, standardized regression, and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and model assembling. Exploratory Factorial Analysis and Confirmatory Factorial Analysis were conducted before the modeling construction (Schumaker & Lomax, 1996).

Executive servant leadership was regarded as the exogenous (independent variable) and job burnout was treated as the endogenous (dependent variable) for this SEM analysis. The main purpose for SEM model was to testify and verify the goodness of fit for each subset, factors, and mutual relationships between exogenous and endogenous variables. Chi-Square, Comparative fit index (CFI), reliability test (Cronbach α) were also adopted into the data analysis.

Data Collection Procedure

Prior to this study, the Institutional Review Board approval and hospital administrative approval were obtained for the authors' previous study at Metroplex Adventist hospital, Killeen, TX. An online survey was established and sent to all employees who had hospital email via the human resources department. Responses to the survey were voluntary and anonymous. The data of full-time nursing staff members (Registered Nurse, Licensed Practice Nurse, and Certified Nursing Assistant) was retrieved from the authors' previous study on all hospital employees.

Findings

Three hundred fifteen full-time nursing staff members participated in this research. Eighty-five percent of employees were working full-time between one to five years. There were two main ethnic groups, African American (38%) and Caucasian (34%).

Table 1 showed the parameters and connections between observed and latent variables for the purpose of evaluating multivariate normality and linearity.

Figure 1 demonstrated the parameter of CFA factorial analysis and showed two significantly connected latent variables with a model fit and validation.

Figure 2 and Table 2 demonstrated CFA results for the job burnout with three first order factors- emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal achievement (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). The goodness of fit (GFI) adequately fitted the data with $\chi^2 = 592.51$, NFI = 0.958, TLI = 0.969, CFI = 0.972, IFI = 0.972, degree of freedom = 307, probability level (p) = 0.000, and RMSEA = 0.039.

Figure 3 and Table 3 demonstrated CFA results for the executive servant leadership with five first order factors- interpersonal support, building community, altruism, egalitarianism, and moral integrity (Reed et al., 2011). The goodness of fit (GFI) adequately fitted the data with $\chi^2 = 957.025$, RMSEA = 0.038, CFI = 0.950, degrees of freedom = 307, probability level (p) = 0.000, NFI = 0.907, IFI = 0.931, TLI = 0.969.

The results of Figure 4 and Table 4 demonstrated that the goodness of fit (GFI) was good, significant, and adequate: CFI = 0.923, $\chi^2 = 3296.37$, probability level p = 0.000, RMSEA = 0.021, NFI = 0.930, IFI = 0.930, TLI = 0.935. Post-hoc modification analyses were not conducted because these are the best results suggested by the AMOS analysis.

It is notable that the standardized regression weight, β, is -0.68 with a significant probability level of 0.000. This indicated that Executive Servant Leadership will significantly reduce the nursing job burnout. Among all the five factors of Executive Servant Leadership (Reed et al., 2011), moral integrity with the highest standardized regression weight has been regarded as the best predictor in nursing staff members' job burnout reduction.

Table 5 demonstrated that predictors of years of service (p = 0.000), ethnic groups (p = 0.040), and age groups (p = 0.010) highly correlated with the dependent variable, job burnout, with three subsets: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lacking of personal accomplishment (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). Years of service, ethnic groups and age groups are regarded as the moderators to perceive their executive leader differently and therefore reduce their job burnout significantly. It is notable that African-American nursing staff members who are between ages 31–40 years with 14 years of employment history tended to suffer the lowest level of burnout. Asian nursing staff members who are between ages 41–50 with 1 year of work history tended to suffer the highest level of burnout.

Table 6 demonstrated that ethnic groups (p = 0.000), age groups (p = 0.000), income levels (p = 0.000), and years of service (p = 0.000) are the significant predictors and subsets for five servant leadership factors (Reed et al., 2011). The cross-tabulation analysis showed that Hispanic-American nursing staff members, ages 31–40 years, with an income of $30,000–$49,999, who had worked more than 14 years, perceived their executive leader as the best servant leader. On the opposite side of the spectrum, Caucasian nursing staff with ages ranging from 41–50, with an income of $50,000-$70,000, and had worked less than one year rated their executive leader with the lowest marks.

Table 7 showed that the five factors of servant leadership (Reed et al., 2011), egalitarianism (p = 0.000), interpersonal support (p = 0.000), altruism (p = 0.000), building community (p = 0.000), and moral integrity (p = 0.000) showed negative correlation statistically with job burnout in terms of three dimensions (Maslach & Jackson, 1986): emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and loss of sense of personal accomplishment. This proved that staff nurses' burnout in all three dimensions was significantly and negatively correlated with their perceptions of their executive's servant leadership in the five areas.

Discussion

For this study, moral integrity was the top-scored factor of servant leadership perceived by the nursing staff. This implies that when executive leaders at a Christian hospital are perceived as ethical and consistently provide an ethically appropriate environment and quality service to the nursing staff, it definitely would have a positive impact and make a significant difference on their morale. The signficance level of 0.000 from canonical correlation and the CFI of 0.923 from SEM analysis showed that such a positive perception of the administrator's servant leadership type is highly correlated with a low burnout phenomenon. The standard regression weight, -0.68, showed the significant correlation between these two latent concepts (MBI and ESLS).

Regarding the relatioship between demographic backgrounds and perceived burnout, years of service, ethnic groups, and age are significant factors associated with job burnout. African-American nursing staff members, ages 31–40 years, who had worked more than 14 years, experienced the lowest level of burnout. Through their experiences, they have come to understand how to handle the challenges posed by the combination of medical technology, stressful working conditions, and mental and emotional strain. Consequently, anxiety, stress, and burnout syndrome are reduced.

Regarding the demographic backgrounds and their effects on perceptions about their administorator's servant leadership style, all the nursing staff members perceived a higher degree of all five servant leadership aspects in their leaders. It is notable that the nursing staff ranked their administrator highest on moral integrity (MI) among all the factors of servant leadership, indicating that the honesty and trustworthiness of a leader is important for an employee's job satisfaction (Kelly & Todd, 2017). Nursing staff values their leaders' integrity and want them to uphold morality and sincerity; and health care ethics are essential to nursing staff. They believe that the leader's moral integrity will create an ethically appropriate standard in their environment. Furthermore, it will reduce their emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack of accomplishment.

Hispanic-American nursing staff members, ages 31–40, with an income of $30,000–$49,999 and more than 14 years of work experience, regard their administrator as the best servant leader. Caucasian nursing staff members, ages 41–50, with an income of $50,000–$70,000 and less than one year of work experience, perceived their administrator as the worst servant leader. These results convey a message that employees of various backgrounds do not accept servant leadership equally. The nursing staff members who have more years of service are more receptive than the nursing staff members who have fewer years of service, which implied that nursing staff members with more service years have had time to come to appreciate the servant leader, while nursing staff members with fewer years of service might need more clear direction and guidance. One reason the lower salary group appreciates more support from the servant leader may be because they need special attention and care to feel valued due to their lower positions. Hispanic nursing staff members tend to appreciate executive service leadership, while Caucasian nursing staff members appreciate less, which might imply that additional gaps in values exist between these two cultures.

The five factors of servant leadership, as a whole latent concept, significantly correlated with the dependent variable, job burnout, as the second latent concept, in the three dimensions. It showed that Canonical Correlation and Structural Equation Modeling have consistent, concurrent, and external validity with each other. The medium but significant regression weight showed that nursing staff burnout is still potentially related to how leaders treat them, either with manipulative control or wholehearted service. Leaders may want to keep in mind that they should treat employees the way that they themselves want to be treated.

Limitations of the Study

This research study has several limitations. First, the study was assisted by a hospital human resources department, and the online survey link was sent directly to the employees by human resources for self-reporting based on their perceptions about their president. The temptation to respond in a way that made them seem socially and professionally desirable and/or worry about their job security could have played a role in affecting their responses. Second, power analysis has validated the effectiveness of the sample size, but the single source of data without a repeat measure or other measures might limit the validity of the assumption that the sample mean is close to the population mean. Third, this research is limited to a Christian hospital nursing staff, and the results may or may not be applicable to the general nursing population. Fourth, some extraneous variables, such as seasonality, leadership change, and termination, or any internal events and disputes, may affect the general impression of an administrator or CEO. Fifth, voluntary participation instead of randomized selection will impose some limitation on the validity of the results.

Recommendations

The positive perception of servant leadership demonstrated in this study can enhance morale and reduce job stress on nursing staff members, but has not been shown to improve productivity and efficiency in the nursing profession. It could be regarded as a potential strategy, but is not guaranteed as a reliable management style for long-term sustainability. Further study needs to explore whether servant leadership will significantly reduce malpractice or functioning errors. Since job burnout has a negative impact on turnover rate, job satisfaction, morale, and patient service quality, the specific intervention effects from servant leadership are unknown. Therefore, quasi-experimental design may be applied to future research in these areas.

Conclusion

This study was designed to explore the relationships between a Christian hospital's nursing staff perceptions of their CEO's servant leadership quality and job burnout levels. Servant leadership has been predominantly adopted in Seventh-day Adventist hospitals, but the impacts on nursing job burnout rates was previously unknown. Structural Equation Model analysis showed that servant leadership promotes five virtues (Reed et al., 2011): interpersonal support, community building, altruism, egalitarianism, and moral integrity (determined to be the most important), all of which were significantly, inversely correlated with job burnout in terms of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack of personal accomplishment (Maslach & Jackson, 1986).

In other words, the administrator who leads the organization with the servant leadership style could decrease the burnout level of his/her employees in the institution. Nursing staff members would have job satisfaction and be committed to the highly stressful work environment if they perceived their leaders as competent, ethical, and possessing moral courage (Hannah et al., 2011; Reed et al., 2001; Tsai & Huang, 2008).

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Table 1

Correlations for CFA and SEM Analysis

Observed Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.Interpersonal Support (IS)	1							
2.Building Community (BC)	0.24	1						
3.Altruism (AL)	0.26	0.30	1					
4.Egalitarianism (EG)	0.28	0.36	0.15	1				
5.Moral Integrity (MI)	0.38	0.23	0.31	0.31	1			
6. Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	-0.93**	-0.85**	-0.90**	-0.88**	-0.71**	1		
7. Depersonalization (DP)	-0.91**	-0.85**	-0.91**	-0.74**	-0.75**	0.65**	1	
8. Personal Accomplishments (PA)	0.92**	0.88**	0.80**	0.70**	0.88**	-0.57**	-0.61**	1

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

Table 2

Standardized Regression Coefficients for CFA and SEM Analysis of ELIS

Observed Variable	Latent Construct	β (Standardized Regression Estimates)
1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.	Factor 1: Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	0.776
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday.	Factor 1: Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	0.918
3. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on my job.	Factor 1: Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	0.883
6. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	Factor 1: Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	0.965
8. I feel burned out from my work.	Factor 1: Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	0.983
13. I feel frustrated by my job.	Factor 1: Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	0.994
14. I feel I'm working too hard on my job.	Factor 1: Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	0.991
16. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.	Factor 1: Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	0.952
20. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.	Factor 1: Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	0.992
5. I feel I treat some clients as if they were impersonal objects.	Factor 2: Depersonalization (DP)	0.914
10. I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.	Factor 2: Depersonalization (DP)	0.967
11. I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.	Factor 2: Depersonalization (DP)	0.959
15. I don't really care what happens to some clients.	Factor 2: Depersonalization (DP)	0.982
20. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.	Factor 2: Depersonalization (DP)	0.929
4. I feel easily understand how my clients feel about things.	Factor 3: Personal Accomplishments (PA)	0.948
7. I deal very effectively with the problems of my clients.	Factor 3: Personal Accomplishments (PA))	0.942
9. I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.	Factor 3: Personal Accomplishments (PA)	0.990
12. I feel very energetic.	Factor 3: Personal Accomplishments (PA)	0.919
17. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my clients.	Factor 3: Personal Accomplishments (PA)	0.959
18. I feel exhilarated after working closely with my clients.	Factor 3: Personal Accomplishments (PA)	0.969
19. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.	Factor 3: Personal Accomplishments (PA)	0.979
21. In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.	Factor 3: Personal Accomplishments (PA)	0.777

Table 3
Standardized Regression Coefficients for CFA and SEM Analysis of ESLS

Observed Variable	Latent Construct	β (Standardized Regression Estimates)
6. Recognize low morale	Factor 1: Interpersonal Support	.955
7. Make other succeed	Factor 1: Interpersonal Support	.930
15. Nurtures employee leadership	Factor 1: Interpersonal Support	.906
25. Dignity and respect	Factor 1: Interpersonal Support	.849
29. Decision-making control to most affected	Factor 1: Interpersonal Support	.982
37. Listen carefully	Factor 1: Interpersonal Support	.988
2. Effects of decisions on community	Factor 2: Building Community	.995
20. Spirit of cooperation	Factor 2: Building Community	.972
21. Organizational commitment	Factor 2: Building Community	.946
45. Improve community	Factor 2: Building Community	.949
46. Value diversity and differences	Factor 2: Building Community	.972
9. Sacrifice personal benefit	Factor 3: Altruism	.892
11. Serve with no expectation of reward	Factor 3: Altruism	.955
22. Others interest over self	Factor 3: Altruism	.963
42. Serving others over being served	Factor 3: Altruism	.986
10. Encourages debate	Factor 4: Egalitarianism	.899
13. Invites constructive criticism	Factor 4: Egalitarianism	.898
27. Learns from employees at all levels	Factor 4: Egalitarianism	.898
52. Welcomes input from all levels	Factor 4: Egalitarianism	.982
12. Inspire trust	Factor 5: Moral Integrity	.996
18. Refuses manipulation and deceit	Factor 5: Moral Integrity	.944
32. Admits mistakes	Factor 5: Moral Integrity	.994
33. Transparency and honesty in organization	Factor 5: Moral Integrity	.977
40. Integrity over profit	Factor 5: Moral Integrity	.978
55. Models expected behavior (walk the walk)	Factor 5: Moral Integrity	.941

Table 4
Standardized and Unstandardized Coefficients for CFA and SEM Analysis

Observed Variable	Latent Construct	*β*	B	SE
MBI and ESLS		-.680	-0.927	-0.089
Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	MBI	.943	1.00	
Depersonalization (DP)	MBI	.966	1.367	.073
Personal Accomplishment (PA)	MBI	-.859	-1.168	.071
Interpersonal Support (IS)	ESLS	.805	1.00	
Building Community (BC)	ESLS	.927	.796	.038
Altruism (AL)	ESLS	.637	.522	.049
Egalitarianism (EG)	ESLS	.930	.708	.042
Moral Integrity (MI)	ESLS	.936	.893	.042

Table 5

Canonical Correlations Between Three Job Burnout Factors and Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Backgrounds	Eigenvalue	Canonical Correlation	Variance	Wilk's Lambda	Probability
Years of Service	3.590	0.884	92.9%	0.169	0.000**
Ethnic Groups	0.271	0.462	73.9%	0.716	0.040**
Age Groups	0.089	0.285	83.1%	0.902	0.010**
Income Levels	0.008	0.302	74.4%	0.878	0.070

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

Table 6

Canonical Correlations Between Five Servant Leadership Factors and Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Backgrounds	Eigenvalue	Canonical Correlation	Variance	Wilk's Lambda	Probability
Years of Service	7.743	0.941**	87.1%	0.045	0.000**
Ethnic Groups	0.271	0.462**	73.9%	0.716	0.000**
Age Groups	0.089	0.285**	83.1%	0.902	0.000**
Income Levels	0.154	0.365**	54.5%	0.765	0.000 **

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

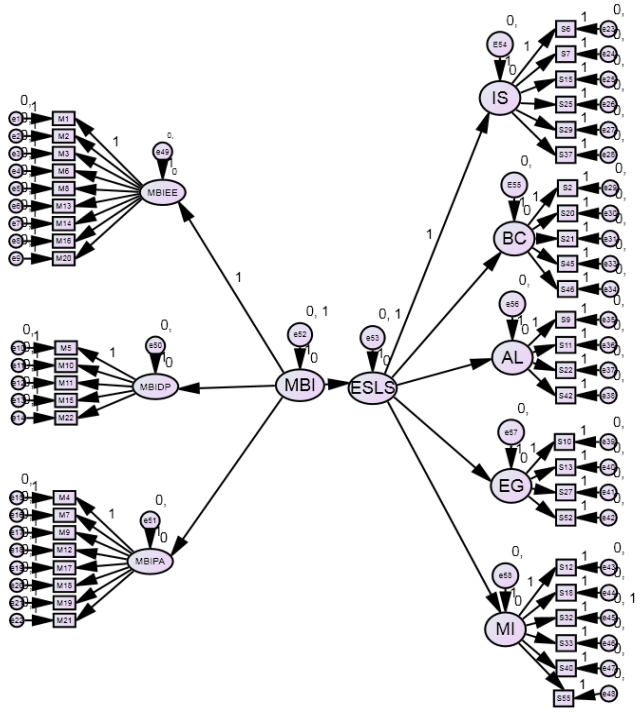

Figure 1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

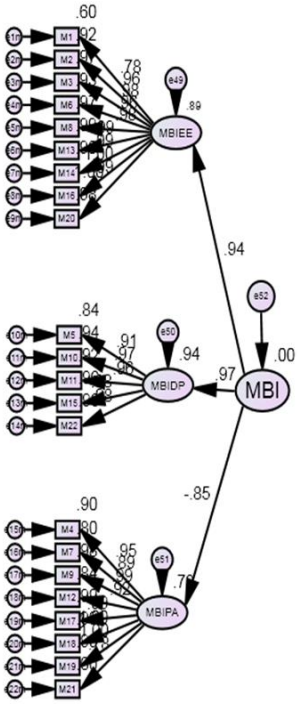

Figure 2. Structural Equation Model (SEM) of Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI).

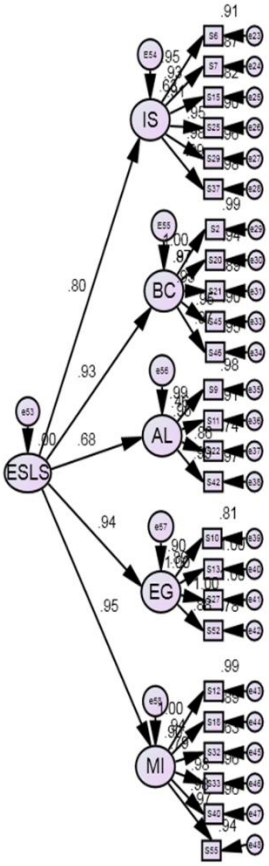

Figure 3. Structural Equation Model (SEM) of Executive Servant Leadership Scale (ESLS).

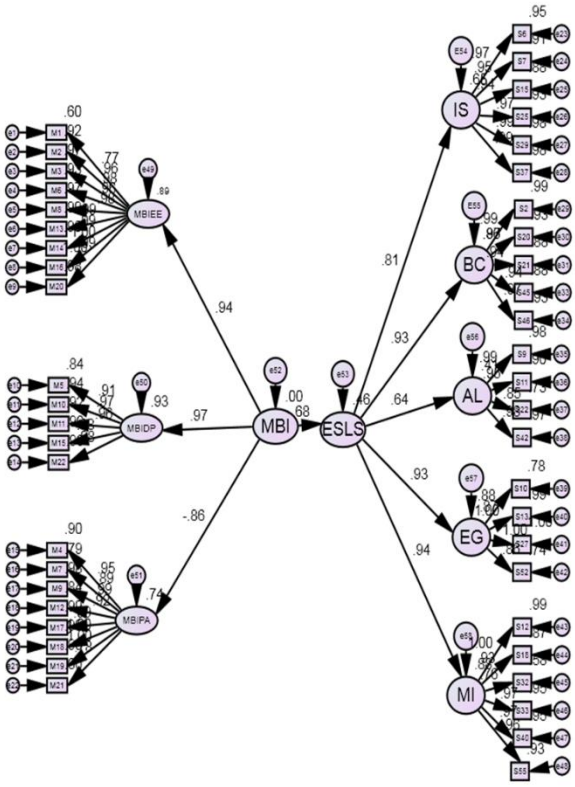

Figure 4. Complete SEM CFA Model.

NAVIGATING THE ETHICAL AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF AI IN HIGHER EDUCATION: A HERO OR VILLAIN?

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ABSTRACT

The rapid advancement of artificial intelligence (AI) technologies presents both significant opportunities and challenges within the realm of higher education. This paper explores the ethical implications and pedagogical opportunities associated with AI, focusing on critical issues such as transparency, accountability, and algorithmic fairness (Hegmann et al., 2023). Additionally, it addresses the potential impact of AI on the challenges faced by educators and students as they adapt to these transformative changes (Malecki et al., 2022). As AI is projected to significantly influence the global economy and job market, it is imperative for higher education institutions to evolve their practices to adequately prepare future graduates for a workforce increasingly shaped by AI technologies. Furthermore, the paper delves into the challenges and opportunities presented by AI in the context of e-learning and educational technology, also has developed foundations for building ethical and equitable policies, as well as, pedagogical opportunities, challenges, and strategies to consider as institutions navigate this topic. As AI continues to reshape the educational landscape, it is crucial for institutions to adapt their methodologies to ensure that students are equipped for a future where AI plays an integral role in various professional sectors.

Introduction

The integration of Artificial Intelligence (AI) in higher education has been a topic of increasing interest and research owing to its potential to transform teaching and learning processes. Various studies have highlighted the emergence of AI in education technology as a promising field with implications for personalized learning experiences and enhanced educational outcomes (Zawacki-Richter et al., 2019). However, the integration of AI in higher education also raises ethical considerations, such as data privacy concerns, algorithmic biases, and the displacement of human instructors (Zhang et al., 2022). While AI technologies offer opportunities for innovation and efficiency in educational practices, researchers emphasize the importance of maintaining a critical stance and addressing potential challenges before fully integrating AI into educational processes (Bozkurt et al., 2021).

Educators and stakeholders in higher education are increasingly recognizing the need to navigate the ethical and pedagogical implications of AI integration. As AI becomes more prevalent in educational settings, there is a growing emphasis on developing pedagogical strategies that leverage AI tools effectively while addressing concerns related to transparency, accountability, and student privacy (Bearman & Ajjawi, 2023). Studies have also highlighted the ethical issues surrounding the use of AI-driven mobile apps in education, emphasizing the need for collaborative research and stakeholder engagement to address ethical concerns effectively (Klimova et al., 2023). According to the United States Office of Education Technology (2023), the integration of AI in higher education entails a human-centered approach to learning, which encompasses AI support for student learning and teaching about AI itself.

Students are encouraged to become knowledgeable about AI risks, such as bias and surveillance, and to engage in discussions about topics like privacy and security. Educators are experimenting with AI tools to enhance teaching, adaptivity, and personalization for students. However, concerns regarding potential biases, privacy risks, and the need for transparency in AI applications abound. It is imperative to address the role of AI in education now in order to capitalize on opportunities, mitigate risks, and effectively manage unintended consequences. Therefore, policymakers are urged to develop education-specific guidelines and parameters to navigate the complexities of AI integration in educational settings.

This has sparked a dual narrative: one that highlights its potential as a transformative tool for learning and another that raises concerns about ethical implications and academic integrity. As AI technologies continue to evolve, their influence on educational practices and the future workforce becomes increasingly significant. This paper aims to navigate these complexities by examining the ethical implications of AI, the pedagogical opportunities it presents, and the challenges that educators must address.

Future Direction of AI

AI is projected to contribute an additional $12 trillion to global GDP by 2032, equating to approximately 10% of the total GDP, driven by productivity enhancements and cost reductions Zhang et al. (2022). This transformation is expected to affect a significant portion of jobs, with varying degrees of risk across different professions. This growth is primarily driven by productivity enhancements and cost reductions across various sectors (Marengo, 2023). As AI technologies continue to evolve, they will significantly impact the job market, with varying degrees of risk associated with different professions. For example, roles such as mathematicians and economists are identified as being at high risk of disruption due to the capabilities of AI to perform complex calculations and data analysis more efficiently than humans (Swindell, 2024) Conversely, jobs in retail and athletics are considered to be at moderate and low risk, respectively, as these roles often require human interaction and physical presence (Wang et al., 2023).

The implications of AI for higher education are profound, necessitating a reevaluation of curricula and teaching methodologies to equip students with the skills needed in an AI-driven economy. As institutions of higher learning adapt to these changes, they must consider how best to integrate AI into their educational frameworks. The use of AI in higher education is still a relatively new phenomenon, and there is much to learn about effective implementation strategies. Empirical research can provide insights into the most effective ways to incorporate AI into teaching and learning environments, identifying factors that contribute to successful AI integration (Bryndin, 2019). One of the key areas where AI can make a significant impact is in the support of international students. AI-powered tools, such as chatbots and learning analytics, can provide personalized assistance to students, helping them navigate academic challenges and cultural adjustments. However, it is essential to acknowledge the associated risks and limitations of these technologies. Therefore, higher education institutions must evaluate the risks and rewards of AI to determine how it can best support students' needs while addressing potential shortcomings.

Moreover, the future of AI in higher education will likely involve a focus on ethical considerations. As AI technologies become more integrated into educational practices, issues related to algorithmic bias, data privacy, and accountability will need to be addressed. Institutions must develop policies that ensure the ethical use of AI, balancing the benefits of technological advancements with the need to protect students and educators from potential harm (Slimi, 2023). This includes establishing guidelines for data collection and usage, ensuring transparency in AI algorithms, and fostering an environment of trust among all stakeholders.

The integration of AI into higher education also presents opportunities for enhancing teaching and learning experiences. AI can facilitate personalized learning by adapting educational content to meet the unique needs of individual students. Intelligent Tutoring Systems (ITS) have evolved to incorporate broader learning aspects, allowing for a more tailored educational experience (Zawacki-Richter et al., 2019). However, the successful implementation of AI in education requires human oversight to ensure quality and adaptivity. Educators must be equipped with the skills to effectively utilize AI tools while maintaining a focus on human-centered teaching practices (Vinuesa et al., 2020). In addition to enhancing learning experiences, AI can streamline administrative tasks within higher education institutions. By automating routine processes, such as enrollment management and student support services, institutions can allocate resources more effectively and improve overall operational efficiency (Goksel & Bozkurt, 2019). This shift towards automation will enable educators to focus more on teaching and mentoring, ultimately benefiting students.

As AI continues to evolve, it is crucial for higher education institutions to remain proactive in their approach to integrating these technologies. This includes investing in research and development to explore innovative applications of AI in education, as well as fostering collaborations between academia and industry to stay at the forefront of technological advancements (Hannan, 2021). By embracing AI as a transformative force, higher education can better prepare students for a future where AI plays an integral role in various professional sectors. The future direction of AI in higher education is characterized by both challenges and opportunities. As institutions adapt to the changing landscape, they must prioritize ethical considerations, invest in research, and focus on enhancing teaching and learning experiences. By doing so, higher education can harness the potential of AI to create a more equitable and effective educational environment for all students.

Ethical Implications and Considerations in Higher Education

The ethical landscape surrounding AI in education is complex and multifaceted. As AI technologies become increasingly integrated into educational settings, concerns about academic integrity have intensified. The rise of AI tools capable of generating human-like text has led to fears of increased cheating and plagiarism. A recent study highlighted that a significant percentage of students may resort to using AI to complete assignments, raising questions about the authenticity of student work and the role of educators in maintaining academic standards (Knowles, 2021).

This situation necessitates a reevaluation of traditional assessment methods and the implementation of new strategies to ensure that academic integrity is upheld.

Moreover, issues of bias in AI algorithms and the potential for reinforcing existing inequalities in education must be critically examined (Gu, 2024). This includes fostering a culture of academic integrity while leveraging AI's capabilities to enhance learning experiences (Holmes et al., 2021). To address these ethical concerns, institutions must develop clear guidelines and strategies for the responsible implementation of AI technologies. For instance, if an AI system is trained predominantly on data from a specific group, it may not perform as effectively for students from underrepresented backgrounds. This raises ethical concerns about fairness and equity in educational opportunities, necessitating careful consideration of the data used to train AI systems and the potential consequences of their deployment in educational contexts.

To address these ethical concerns, higher education institutions must develop clear guidelines and strategies for the responsible implementation of AI technologies. This includes fostering a culture of academic integrity while leveraging AI's capabilities to enhance learning experiences. Institutions should prioritize transparency in AI applications, ensuring that students and educators understand how these tools function and the implications of their use. For example, providing clear information about how AI-generated content is evaluated can help maintain academic standards while allowing for innovative teaching practices (Thiebes et al., 2020).

Educators are encouraged to adapt their assessment practices to incorporate AI tools, ensuring that they complement rather than undermine educational objectives (Lee et al., 2021).
This may involve rethinking traditional assessment methods, such as exams and essays, in favor of more dynamic and interactive approaches that leverage AI capabilities. For instance, educators could use AI to facilitate personalized learning experiences, allowing students to engage with content at their own pace and according to their individual learning needs (Cowls et al., 2021). However, it is crucial that educators remain central to the learning process, guiding students in their use of AI tools and ensuring that these technologies are employed ethically and effectively.

Furthermore, the ethical implications of AI in education extend beyond academic integrity and bias. The use of AI technologies raises questions about data privacy and security. As AI systems often rely on large datasets, including personal information about students, institutions must ensure that they comply with data protection regulations and prioritize the privacy of their students (Cowls et al., 2021). This includes implementing robust data governance policies and practices that safeguard student information while allowing for the responsible use of AI in educational settings. The ethical implications and considerations surrounding AI in higher education are significant and require careful attention from institutions, educators, and policymakers. As AI technologies continue to evolve, it is essential to foster a culture of academic integrity, equity, and transparency. By developing clear guidelines for the responsible implementation of AI and adapting assessment practices to incorporate these technologies, higher education institutions can harness the potential of AI while addressing the ethical challenges it presents. Ultimately, the goal should be to create an educational environment that not only embraces innovation but also prioritizes the well-being and success of all students.

Pedagogical Opportunities and Challenges in Higher Education

Educators must navigate these challenges by adopting a balanced approach that incorporates AI as a supportive tool rather than a replacement for traditional teaching methods. This requires ongoing professional development for educators to effectively integrate AI into their pedagogical practices (Baskara, 2023). Additionally, institutions should prioritize research on the impact of AI in education to inform best practices and policy development (Nguyen et al., 2022).

AI presents numerous pedagogical opportunities, including personalized learning experiences and enhanced engagement through interactive tools (Yu & Yu, 2023). For instance, AI can assist in providing tailored feedback to students, facilitating a more individualized learning journey (Moldt et al., 2023). By analyzing individual student data, AI can tailor educational content and feedback to meet the unique needs of each learner, thereby promoting a more individualized learning journey (Fuller, 2024). For instance, AI-driven platforms can provide real-time feedback on assignments, helping students identify areas for improvement and allowing educators to adjust their teaching strategies accordingly (Le & Davis, 2024). This level of customization can lead to improved student engagement and motivation as learners feel more supported in their educational endeavors.

Moreover, AI can enhance engagement through interactive tools that foster active learning. Technologies such as intelligent tutoring systems (ITS) and adaptive learning platforms can create immersive learning environments where students can explore concepts at their own pace (Suchman et al., 2023). These tools not only make learning more engaging but also encourage students to take ownership of their educational experiences. By integrating AI into

the curriculum, educators can create dynamic learning experiences that cater to diverse learning styles and preferences, ultimately leading to better educational outcomes.

However, the integration of AI into educational practices also poses challenges, such as the potential for over-reliance on technology and the diminishing role of human educators (Folstad et al., 2021). While AI can provide valuable support, it is essential that educators remain central to the educational experience. The human element of teaching—such as mentorship, emotional support, and the ability to inspire—cannot be replicated by AI. Educators must navigate these challenges by adopting a balanced approach that incorporates AI as a supportive tool rather than a replacement for traditional teaching methods. This requires ongoing professional development for educators to effectively integrate AI into their pedagogical practices (Baskara, 2023). Additionally, institutions should prioritize research on the impact of AI in education to inform best practices and policy development (Nguyen et al., 2022).

To effectively integrate AI into pedagogical practices, ongoing professional development for educators is crucial. Educators must be equipped with the skills and knowledge to leverage AI technologies effectively in their teaching (Harahap, 2023). This includes understanding how to interpret AI-generated data, utilizing AI tools to enhance instructional strategies, and recognizing the ethical implications of AI in education. Institutions should prioritize training programs that focus on best practices for using AI in the classroom, enabling educators to harness the full potential of these technologies while remaining mindful of their limitations. Institutions should prioritize research on the impact of AI in education to inform best practices and policy development (Nikolopoulou, 2024). By conducting studies that explore the effectiveness of AI tools in various educational contexts, institutions can identify successful strategies for implementation and address potential challenges. This research can also contribute to the development of guidelines that ensure the ethical use of AI in educational settings, promoting transparency and accountability in AI applications.

Furthermore, the pedagogical implications of AI extend beyond personalized learning and engagement. As AI technologies continue to evolve, they will necessitate a reevaluation of curricula to include AI literacy as a fundamental component of education. Educators must prepare students not only to use AI tools but also to understand the underlying principles of AI and its societal implications. This includes fostering critical thinking skills and ethical awareness regarding the use of AI technologies in various fields (Almahasees, 2024). AI offers numerous pedagogical opportunities in higher education, it also presents challenges that must be addressed. By embracing AI as a supportive tool, investing in professional development for educators, and prioritizing research on AI's impact in education, institutions can create a balanced approach that enhances the learning experience while maintaining the essential role of human educators. As the educational landscape continues to evolve, it is imperative that higher education institutions adapt to these changes, ensuring that students are equipped with the skills and knowledge necessary to thrive in an increasingly AI-driven world.

Conclusion

The integration of Artificial Intelligence (AI) in higher education has garnered significant attention due to its transformative potential in teaching and learning processes. Various studies indicate that AI can enhance personalized learning experiences and improve educational outcomes (Zawacki-Richter et al., 2019). However, this integration also raises ethical concerns, including data privacy issues, algorithmic biases, and the potential displacement of human instructors (Zhang et al., 2022). As AI technologies continue to evolve, it is crucial for educators and stakeholders to navigate the ethical and pedagogical implications of AI integration effectively.

This paper emphasizes the importance of developing pedagogical strategies that leverage AI tools while addressing concerns related to transparency, accountability, and student privacy (Bearman & Ajjawi, 2023). The United States Office of Education Technology (2023) advocates for a human-centered approach to learning, which involves not only AI support for student learning but also educating students about AI risks, such as bias and surveillance. This dual narrative highlights the potential of AI as a transformative educational tool while simultaneously raising concerns about ethical implications and academic integrity. Findings reveal four foundations for building ethical and equitable policies:

- **People-Centered** - Policies should put humans first, balancing AI advantages against risks like privacy invasion. Important decisions on technology use in education must involve everyone, especially parents, educators, and students, to guarantee that it supports rather than replaces human input.
- **Advance Equity -** Following President Biden's order, policies should aim to improve racial equity in both education and AI. This includes removing barriers for marginalized groups and scrutinizing AI for bias during creation and use, ensuring fairness.

- **Safety, Ethics, and Effectiveness** - AI in education must protect data privacy and follow legal standards, with adoption based on solid evidence of its benefits, ensuring it meets educational quality criteria.
- **Transparency -** AI should be understandable to those implementing it, acknowledging its limits and ensuring it upholds privacy, fairness, and aligns with educational goals, while allowing for human oversight to guarantee it's used safely and effectively.

The integration of AI in higher education presents a dual narrative of opportunities and challenges. While AI has the potential to revolutionize teaching and learning through personalized experiences and enhanced engagement, it also raises significant ethical concerns that must be addressed. Institutions must prioritize transparency, accountability, and the protection of student privacy as they navigate the complexities of AI integration. Ongoing professional development for educators is essential to ensure they can effectively leverage AI technologies while maintaining their critical role in the educational process. Pedagogical opportunities and challenges of AI:

- AI in education offers personalized learning but requires human oversight for quality and adaptivity.
- Intelligent Tutoring Systems (ITS) have evolved from focusing solely on logical problems to incorporating broader learning aspects with teacher and student input.
- Education should balance using AI for learning and teaching about its societal impacts.
- AI should complement, not replace, elements of the educational system, enhancing teaching and learning within the context of human-led, culturally responsive education.
- Select AI models that align with your educational goals, ensuring human involvement in their application.
- Success in implementing AI hinges on keeping educators central, empowering them with skills to use AI effectively while understanding its risks and benefits.
- This approach supports tailored learning, lesson planning, and strengthens student-teacher communication.

The path of AI in education is not predetermined. It's shaped by our choices, our ethics, and our commitment to equity. As educators, innovators, and lifelong learners, we hold the map to this uncharted territory. Ultimately, by embracing AI as a supportive tool and addressing the ethical implications, higher education institutions can create a more equitable and effective educational environment that prepares students for success in an increasingly AI-driven world. Some final strategies to be considered:

- Aligning AI to Policy Objectives
- Emphasize Human in Loop
- Align AI models to shared vision of education
- Design using modern learning principles
- Prioritize strengthening trust
- Inform and Involve Educators
- Focus on R&D on Addressing Context and Enhancing Trust and Safety
- Develop Higher Education Specific Guidelines and Guardrails.

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PERCEIVED LEARNING CLIMATE:

BUILDING BETTER LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS FOR STUDENT MOTIVATION AND WELLBEING

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Introduction

Prior research on *Achievement Goal Perspective Theory* (AGPT; Nicholls, 1984, 1989; Ames, 1992) has demonstrated the importance of the learning climate for the motivation, enjoyment, and psychosocial wellbeing of learners (e.g., Fry et al., 2012; Fry & Hogue, 2018). AGPT postulates that there are three main drivers of learner motivation (defined as initiation and perseverance of effort -e.g., Maher & Zusho, 2009): (1) a cognitive developmental element that involves the processes the learner undergoes as they acquire understanding of standards of ability and, thus, develop perceptions of their own ability; (b) the learner's own goal orientation (i.e., their personal definition of success), and (c) the learner's perception of the motivational climate in their specific setting (e.g., classroom, sports team, music ensemble, dancing troupe, etc.).

With regard to the last element, AGPT distinguishes two separate but coexisting dimensions of the learning climate: The ego-involving climate (EIC) and the task-involving climate (TIC). The first dimension, EIC, refers to the teacher/coach/instructor placing value on individuals' performance outcomes and relative standings, thus eliciting competition among class/teammates. In a high EIC, mistakes are punished and recognition is given primarily to top performers. In turn, the second dimension, TIC, refers to the teacher/coach/instructor placing value on learners' effort, personal improvement, and cooperation with other class/teammates as well as with the instructor/coach. In a high TIC, mistakes are readily accepted as a natural part of the learning process. As noted above, in AGPT, it is the learner's perceptions of the TIC and EIC that matter.

Perceived EIC and TIC have been found to be associated with motivational outcomes such as the levels of participant effort and enjoyment (e.g., Duda & Nicholls, 1992). They have also been related to psychosocial outcomes, such as participant self-esteem or feelings of inadequacy in the classroom (e.g., Wineinger et al., 2022) and in sport settings (e.g., Hogue et al., 2017). In general, TIC perceptions are associated with greater levels of effort, enjoyment, and commitment to the activity (Duda & Nicholls, 1992, Seifriz et al., 1992, Leo et al., 2009). By contrast, EIC perceptions produce lesser motivational outcomes and are also likely to trigger maladaptive consequences like increased levels of shame, negative affect, exhaustion, stress, or eating disorders (Cook, 1996; Hogue et al., 2013, 2017; Quested & Duda, 2010; Wahl et al., 2019). Thus, AGPT argues that instructors should strive to foster a TIC (Nicholls, 1989).

A group of motivational climate researchers in sport and physical activity settings introduced the caring framework as an extension of traditional AGPT (Gano-Overway et. al., 2005, 2009; Newton et al., 2007). This framework proposes a new dimension of the learning environment: the *caring climate* (CC). CC is defined as a learning milieu where all learners feel comfortable, welcome, and valued, and where they are treated with mutual kindness and respect (Newton et al., 2007). From the perspective of the instructor/coach, Fry & Gano-Overway (2010) describe CC as being characterized by (1) engrossment in listening, accepting, and attending to the needs of learners; (2) motivational displacement from self-interest to supporting the needs and goals of learners; and (3) respect for, and trust in, learners. The caring framework further proposes that the perceived CC will reinforce the positive effects of

the perceived TIC, so that instructors may seek to nurture a caring and task-involving climate (CC+TIC) in place of an ego-involving climate (e.g., Fry et al., 2019).

There is a large and growing empirical literature exploring correlates of the CC, but most of it is circumscribed to sports and physical activity settings. Researchers have found positive and significant associations between perceived CC and motivational (Fry & Gano-Overway, 2010; Hall et al., 2017; Simonton et al., 2022), self-belief (Gano-Overway et al., 2009; Hogue et al. 2013), adaptive interpersonal (Fontana et al., 2017; Gano-Overway, 2013; Gano-Overway & Guivernau, 2017) and psychological well-being (Fry et al., 2012; Simonton et al., 2022) outcomes among sport participants. In comparison, similar research in educational settings is far more embryonic.

Education researchers have rather focused on the effects of the institutional (i.e., overall school) caring climate (e.g., Larsen et al., 2023; Simons & Cavanaugh, 1996, 2000), while only a few recent studies have begun to explore correlates of perceived CC in the classroom –i.e., at the level of teacher-student relationships. In particular, Lalama (2016) explored the effect of perceived CC on prosocial behavior in high school bands; while Wineinger et al. (2022) examined effects on motivational and psychological outcomes in college biology lab courses.

The purpose of our research project is to begin to examine correlates of the CC in the context of higher education lecture-based courses. In particular, we explore the relationship between university students' perceptions of the EIC, TIC and CC and their levels of effort, enjoyment, self-esteem, and feelings of inadequacy in class.

This conference paper reports preliminary results with a small sample of initial respondents (n=51), after a first wave of data collection. Given apparent impact on student motivation and wellbeing variables, some tentative conclusions can already be derived from these data about the benefits of implementing task-involving and caring climates. We also discuss the implications of the ego-involving climate, as well as some surprising results with other variables that were used as controls.

Data

Data were collected by means of an anonymous Qualtrix survey administered to students in late Spring 2022. Professors teaching in the Exercise Science, Sports Medicine, Sports Administration, and Physical Education & Sport Performance programs at a large public university in the Midwest were approached for participation in the study. The Institutional Review Board at this university had previously approved the study. Faculty members who agreed to participate forwarded the survey link to students in one or more of their class sections that term. The survey remained open for two weeks. This effort resulted in 58 survey responses. After deleting observations with missing values, 51 observations could be used in the present study.

Measurement

The survey included the following measures, among others: the student's perceptions of the task- and ego-involving motivational climates, as well as of the caring climate, in class; the student's perceived level of effort, enjoyment, self-esteem, and feelings of inadequacy during class sessions; respondent's demographic information; and whether the course was delivered mostly face-to-face as opposed to online.

Perceived Motivational Climate

The *Abbreviated Perceived Motivational Climate in Exercise Questionnaire* (Moore et al., 2015) was adapted to the classroom context, and its two subscales were used to capture, respectively, the perceived EIC and TIC in class. Following achievement goal perspective theory (Nicholls, 1984; Duda & Nicholls, 1992), the 6-item EIC subscale measures the extent to which the instructor is perceived to value and reward high-performers and to gauge student success relative to the performance of other students. A sample item is: "In this class, students are encouraged to do better than other students". In turn, the 6-item TIC scale captures the extent to which the instructor is perceived to value and reward personal effort and improvement rather than (or in addition to) absolute skill level. A sample item is: "In this class, students are rewarded and noticed when they try hard". Participants responded using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree." Cronbach alpha was 0.87 for both subscales. We

averaged item scores to produce continuous measures of EIC (mean = 2.46; stdev = 0.96) and TIC (mean = 4.39; stdev = 0.51).

Perceived Caring Climate

The 13-item *Caring Climate Scale* (Newton et al., 2007) was adapted to the classroom context and used to capture the extent to which the classroom environment was perceived to be welcoming, safe, and a place where students were valued as individuals, and treated with respect and kindness. A sample item is: "In this class, the instructor cares about the students". Responses were collected on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree." As in prior studies, the scale exhibited good internal reliability (α = 0.98). Our CC measure is the average value across the 13 items (mean = 4.75; stdev = 0.43).

Effort

We used the 4-item effort subscale of the *Intrinsic Motivation Inventory* (McAuley et al., 1989) to capture students' perceptions of their effort in the particular course. A sample item is: "I put a lot of effort into learning the material presented during this class", with responses along a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree." Our measure is the average item score (α = 0.95; mean = 4.32; stdev = 0.67).

Enjoyment

We used Duda & Nicholls (1992) 5-item scale to capture respondents' enjoyment of class sessions and activities. A sample item is: "In this class, I enjoy class session activities", and responses were collected using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree." We averaged across items to obtain our measure of student enjoyment (α = 0.92; mean = 4.00; stdev = 0.71).

Self-esteem

The 7-item social self-esteem subscale of the *State Self-Esteem Scale* (Heatherton & Polivy, 1991) was used to capture the extent to which respondents feel self-conscious or reassured about their public image in the particular class setting. A sample item is: "In this class, I feel concerned about the impression I am making", with responses collected on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "not at all" to 5 = "extremely." Items were reversed scored (so that higher values would indicate greater degrees of self-esteem) and then averaged for each respondent to produce a continuous measure of self-esteem (α = 0.90; mean = 4.04; stdev = 0.85).

Feelings of Inadequacy

The 10-item inadequate/deficient subscale of the *Internalized Shame Scale* (Cook, D.L., 1986) was used to capture respondents' feelings of inadequacy in class. A sample items is: "In this class, I feel like I am never quite good enough", with responses on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 5 = "almost always." A continuous measure was created by averaging scores across items (α = 0.95; mean = 1.63; stdev = 0.73).

Control Variables

We included a dummy variable that takes the value 1 when the class in question is being delivered mostly online. We also controlled for the age of the respondent (mean=21.6; stdev = 1.65), and for the number of credit hours of instruction that s/he is undertaking that particular semester (mean = 14.3; stdev = 2.76).

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics and correlations among study variables.

Analysis

We ran separate OLS regressions of effort, enjoyment, self-esteem, and inadequacy against motivational and caring climate variables, plus control variables.

Results

Table 2 shows our regression results. Our model exhibited good goodness of fit in regressions of enjoyment (Adj-R^2 = 0.42), self-esteem (Adj-R^2 = 0.38), and inadequacy (Adj-R^2 = 0.29); but not when regressed against effort.

The perceived EIC was found to be related to lower self-esteem in class (β= –0.29; p = 0.016), as well as to greater feelings of inadequacy (β= 0.25; p = 0.018). By contrast, perceived TIC was related to greater student effort (β= 0.72; p = 0.031) and enjoyment (β= 1.11; p = 0.000). In turn, the CC was found to be related to lower levels of inadequacy (β= –0.56; p = 0.078).

As far as control variables, our stronger finding was that the number of semester credit hours attempted was negatively related to self-esteem (β= –0.11; p = 0.004) and positively related to feelings of inadequacy (β= 0.09; p = 0.006). Conversely, online courses were tentatively found to be related to greater self-esteem (β= 0.38; p = 0.092).

Discussion

This is among the first studies to explore the impact of the perceived caring climate on motivational and psychosocial wellbeing outcomes in the classroom. Although the present findings with a small sample need to be regarded as tentative, they are consistent with theory and therefore we believe they may be indicative of true underlying relationships.

Our key finding is that student perceptions of a caring climate in the classroom are related to lesser feelings of inadequacy. This is consistent with the arguments of the caring framework, and it suggests that a perceived caring climate contributes to a welcoming and safe learning space where students of all skills levels feel valued. Therefore, by fostering a caring climate, instructors will facilitate the development of a truly inclusive community of learners.

Consistent with prior tests of AGPT in education settings, we also found task-involving climate perceptions to be positively related to student effort (i.e., motivation) and enjoyment (i.e., satisfaction); while perceptions of an ego-involving climate led to dysfunctional adjustment in the form of lower self-esteem and greater feelings of inadequacy. The consistency with prior findings in the literature lends validity to our preliminary data and findings.

An unexpected but interesting finding from the study is that, similar to the effects of an ego-involving climate, a greater number of credit hours attempted during the semester is also related to lower self-esteem and greater inadequacy. This suggests that as students bite more than they can chew they endanger their psychological wellbeing in class. This finding has direct implications for academic advising.

Future Research

More robust and detailed exploration of the effects of the caring climate will be possible once data collection for this project is completed. Once we have data from more class sections, we will estimate using cluster robust standard errors, by course section. With more degrees of freedom, we will also be able to extend the model with other course-, instructor-, and student-specific control variables. We will also explore interaction effects. In particular, and in line with the premises of the caring framework, we expect the caring climate to magnify the positive motivational outcomes of the task-involving climate. Similarly, if the relationship between CC and lesser feelings of inadequacy is confirmed, we hope to be able to investigate whether this effect is augmented as the diversity in skill level among the student group increases.

Conclusion

This paper is part of a research project that seeks to contribute to the budding empirical literature on the motivational and well-being effects of the perceived caring climate in the college-level classroom. Using a small dataset, we explored the relationship between university students' perceptions of the motivational and caring climate and their levels of effort, enjoyment, self-esteem, and feelings of inadequacy in class. Our main finding is that students' perceptions of the caring climate in class are related to their psychological well-being, in the form of lesser feelings of inadequacy. Therefore, by fostering a caring climate, instructors appear to create a safer and more inclusive learning

space where all students feel valued. Still, the present findings need to be interpreted with caution until confirmed by subsequent analyses using additional data and variables, as well as more robust methods.

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Table 1. Descriptive statistics, alpha coefficients, and correlations[a]

Variable	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Ego-Involving Climate	2.46	0.96	**0.87**								
2. Task-Involving Climate	4.39	0.51	-0.34 *	**0.87**							
3. Caring Climate	4.75	0.43	-0.41 **	0.74 ***	**0.98**						
4. Effort	4.32	0.67	0.08	0.26 †	0.07	**0.95**					
5. Enjoyment	4.00	0.71	-0.10	0.69 ***	0.52 ***	0.53 ***	**0.92**				
6. Self-Esteem	4.04	0.85	-0.48 ***	0.32 *	0.31 *	0.29 *	0.21	**0.90**			
7. Feelings of Inadequacy	1.63	0.73	0.45 ***	-0.21	-0.29 *	-0.17	-0.13	-0.79 ***	**0.95**		
8. Online course	0.26	0.45	-0.11	0.08	-0.04	0.06	0.02	0.29 *	-0.22		
9. Age	21.58	1.65	-0.22	0.08	0.26 †	0.17	0.14	0.28 *	-0.06	-0.08	
10. Credit Hours	14.34	2.76	-0.06	0.19	0.28 *	-0.07	0.24 †	-0.35 *	0.30 *	-0.15	-0.13

[a] N=58. Cronbach alphas for multi-item scales shown in bold in diagonal. † p<0.10; * p < 0.05, two-tailed; ** p < 0.01, two-tailed; *** p < 0.001, two-tailed.

Table 2. Regressions of Effort, Enjoyment, Self-esteem, and Feelings of Inadequacy[a]

Indep. Variable	Effort	Enjoyment	Self-esteem	Inadequacy
Ego-Involving Climate	0.11	0.09	-0.29 *	0.25 *
	(0.11)	(0.10)	(0.12)	(0.10)
Task-Involving Climate	0.72 *	1.11 ***	0.31	0.04
	(0.32)	(0.27)	(0.33)	(0.28)
Caring Climate	-0.42	-0.02	0.24	-0.56 †
	(0.35)	(0.29)	(0.36)	(0.31)
Online course	0.06	0.00	0.38 †	-0.19
	(0.22)	(0.18)	(0.22)	(0.19)
Age	0.09	0.05	0.07	0.06
	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.05)
Credit Hours	-0.01	0.03	-0.11 **	0.09 **
	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.03)
Intercept	1.04	-2.49	2.28	0.90
	(1.81)	(1.49)	(1.84)	(1.59)
N	51	50	51	51
R^2	0.15	0.49	0.45	0.37
F-statistic	1.28	6.98 ***	6.01 ***	4.38 **
Adjusted R^2	0.03	0.42	0.38	0.29

[a] Ordinary Least Squares regressions. Standard errors in parenthesis.
† $p < 0.10$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$; all two-tailed.

RELUCTANCE TO "RETURN TO OFFICE" AFTER "WORK FROM HOME" DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF INFLUENCING FACTORS

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Abstract

This study examines the link between pandemic awareness, digital technology deployment, and reluctance to return to the office post-pandemic. Analyzing data from 214 business managers, it finds a strong correlation between these factors and reluctance to return. However, the moderating and mediating roles of digital deployment were not supported. The results highlight the distinct impacts of employee fear and digital response success, offering insights for organizations managing hybrid work transitions.

Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic has led to widespread adoption of work-from-home (WFH) arrangements, with many U.S. employees continuing to work remotely even as the pandemic threat decreases. This study investigates two key factors behind the reluctance to return to traditional offices: fear from pandemic awareness and the success of digital technologies in enabling remote work. Understanding these dynamics is crucial for organizations navigating post-pandemic work arrangements.

Literature Review: "Work from Home" Phenomenon

Telecommuting, or "Work from Home" (WFH), has long been part of HR practices, evolving with technological advancements. The COVID-19 pandemic accelerated its adoption, highlighting its necessity. Organizations aware of the pandemic's severe consequences quickly adopted WFH, while others were slower. This shift has led to a reluctance to return to traditional office settings. Understanding this reluctance is crucial for researchers, practitioners, and policymakers to develop flexible work policies, enhance employee satisfaction, and shape labor regulations.

The pandemic's impact on remote work is significant, with organizations investing in remote technologies (Brynjolfsson & Horton, 2020). Employees have developed a preference for remote work due to its flexibility and reduced commute times, which enhance work-life balance and productivity (Bloom et al., 2020). However, reluctance to return to the office persists due to health concerns (Brooks et al., 2020), the stress of commuting (Väänänen et al., 2020), and the loss of flexibility, especially for those with caregiving responsibilities (Jankowska et al., 2023).

Firm-level competitive mindsets can encourage office work and discourage WFH, impacting work-life balance (Golden & Glick, 2020; Afota et al., 2023). Resistance to change, a well-documented phenomenon (Warrick, 2023; Ford & Ford, 2009; Oreg, 2006; Armenakis & Harris, 2002), also plays a role. The shift back to the office represents a significant change for employees accustomed to remote work.

Concerns about communication and collaboration in the post-pandemic office are also relevant. Remote work relies on digital communication tools, and employees may question their ability to collaborate effectively in person (Leroy et al., 2021). Managerial trust and control influence employee reluctance, with those feeling trusted while working remotely resisting a return to a controlled office environment (Murphy, 2021). The psychological impact of the pandemic, including anxiety and burnout, further complicates the transition (Doshi, 2020).

Literature Review: Fear Factor

The fear of contracting or spreading the virus significantly impacts employees' willingness to return to the office (Takeuchi et al., 2023; Agba et al., 2020). This fear, coupled with increased stress and anxiety, influences work preferences, with employees valuing the safety and flexibility of remote work (Caligiuri et al., 2021; Johnson et al., 2020).

Literature Review: Successful Deployment of Digital Gadgetry and Software

Digital transformation has been crucial in enabling remote work. Organizations that embraced digital technologies before and during the pandemic transitioned more smoothly to remote work (Battisti et al., 2022). Virtual collaboration tools have sustained productivity, influencing employees' preferences for remote work (Mitchell, 2020).

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1. Awareness of consequences of loss of life due to pandemic is positively correlated with the reluctance to "Report to Office" after pandemic.

Hypothesis 2. Successful deployment of digital gadgetry and software during the pandemic is positively correlated with the reluctance to "Report to Office" after pandemic.

Hypothesis 3. Successful deployment of digital gadgetry and software during the pandemic moderates the relationship between awareness of consequences of loss of life due to pandemic and the reluctance to "Report to Office" after pandemic.

Hypothesis 4. Successful deployment of digital gadgetry and software during the pandemic mediates the relationship between awareness of consequences of loss of life due to pandemic and the reluctance to "Report to Office" after pandemic.

Methodology and Data Collection

Data was collected from a national survey of 214 business managers responsible for digital transformation during the COVID-19 pandemic. The survey, managed by Qualtrics, included questions on pandemic awareness, digital capabilities, and organizational responses. Respondents were filtered to ensure they had decision-making responsibilities related to digital transformation and were in business during the pandemic.

Measurement of Variables

The dependent variable, Reluctance to "Report to Office," was measured on a 5-point Likert scale. Awareness of adverse consequences of the pandemic and digital innovations were also measured on 5-point Likert scales.

Sample Characteristics

The sample included business managers with IT/IS/Analytics responsibilities (55.7%), operations (24.9%), and other functions. Most had 5-10 years of company experience (38.8%) and 5-10 years of IT/IS experience (32.7%). The sample was almost evenly split between males (51.5%) and females (48.4%), with a majority being White (72.4%).

Data Analysis

Linear regression was used to test Hypotheses 1 and 2. Both awareness of pandemic consequences and successful deployment of digital technologies significantly impacted reluctance to return to the office. However, moderation and mediation analyses (Hypotheses 3 and 4) did not find significant effects, indicating these variables are orthogonal.

Discussion

The findings highlight the independent influences of pandemic awareness and digital technology deployment on reluctance to return to the office. The orthogonality of these variables suggests separate impacts on post-pandemic work preferences.

Limitations

The study's limitations include potential bias from IT professionals and the exclusion of other variables that may impact work structures. Future research should explore specific organizational contexts.

Conclusion

This study examines the reluctance to return to the office post-pandemic, influenced by pandemic awareness and digital technology deployment. The findings emphasize the need for nuanced strategies in managing hybrid work transitions and contribute to the broader discourse on the future of work.

As organizations grapple with the challenges of transitioning to hybrid work models, our findings suggest a pivotal need for nuanced strategies that go beyond the binary relationship between fear and digital response success. The orthogonality observed between employee-level fear and firm-level digital response success underscores the complexity of the decision-making processes involved in returning to physical office spaces.

Looking ahead, our research resonates with the broader discourse on the future of work in a post-pandemic world. It not only contributes to our understanding of the delicate balance between tradition and innovation but also highlights the importance of respecting the past while adapting to the evolving needs of the present. Walt Disney's CEO and Chairman Bob Iger explains how Disney's Mickey Mouse, created one century ago, morphed over time to be resilient with changing times: "You can't allow tradition to get in the way of innovation. I firmly believe in respecting the tradition but making sure it continues to evolve. There's a need to respect the past, but it's a mistake to revere your past."

Practitioners can draw from our insights to inform strategic decisions in managing the transition to hybrid work environments, recognizing the multifaceted nature of employee concerns and the organizational imperative for digital adaptation. Policymakers, too, can benefit from our research by incorporating a nuanced understanding of these dynamics into future workplace policies, ensuring they align with the preferences and needs of a workforce that increasingly questions the traditional notions of office presence.

In essence, our study extends beyond the immediate implications for organizations navigating the post-pandemic landscape. It serves as a catalyst for future research, prompting scholars to delve deeper into the interplay between external influences, organizational responses, and individual choices. By embracing the need for continued evolution, as urged by Bob Iger, our findings contribute to shaping a resilient and adaptive future for the ever-transforming world of work.

References and Results Tables available upon request.

TEACHING WHAT AI CANNOT: THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN UNDERGRADUATE BUSINESS COURSE IN MANAGERIAL COACHING SKILLS

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Abstract

The challenges of automated job functions for many basic technical skills highlight the need for employees who have the interpersonal communication skills that cannot be automated, such as basic coaching skills. This paper reviews the literature on the current conceptualization of coaching as a component of management and leadership, the dearth of coaching skills training for leaders and managers, the potential outcomes employees experience when coaching is available, and the scarcity of coaching skills training in business education. It then describes a managerial coaching course developed for an undergraduate business program.

Challenges to Managers

Recent polling by Gallup highlighted some disturbing trends that impact the role of managers. Managers report more work, tighter budgets, and new teams to manage. In 2023, only 23% of employees reported that they trusted their management, and the same percentage, 23%, felt they were recognized for their accomplishments. Fifty-two percent of American and Canadian employees (compared with 44% globally) felt stressed most of the day at work, and only 31 percent felt engaged. At the time of the survey, 51% of currently employed individuals were actively seeking another job, and only two of ten employees felt connected to their company culture. (Gallup, 2023)

University courses must prepare students for the challenges of a world that is changing on the order of twenty thousand years of progress in just one century (Kellerman & Seligman, 2023). Research by McKinsey anticipates that the rise of AI, the aging population, and the continued growth of e-commerce could cause up to 12 million Americans to be forced to change jobs by 2030 (Zinkula, January 10, 2024). In the face of the unprecedented changes in the economy and workplace that are fueling dissatisfaction, stress, burnout, anxiety, and lack of trust in the workplace, new managers must be equipped with the competencies needed to participate in, develop, manage, and lead thriving teams.

Coaching Competency Embedded in Leadership

The literature strongly supports competency in coaching as a core professional skill. Leadership experts have touted the idea of coaching embedded in leading since it was first introduced by Mace and Mahler in 1958 (Digirolamo and Tkach, 2019). Management education often conceptualizes two roles-- manager and leader. Digirolamo and Tkach (2019) define these roles as "working with team members to accomplish daily tasks and meet organizational goals" (manager) and "guiding in a direction and motivating team members to work toward a vision (leader)." Both of these functions, when approached with a participative leadership style, require coaching skills. Boyatzis et al (2006) argued that coaching is integral to leadership development because it supports the emotional health of the leader as well as the development of the person being coached. According to Ibarra & Scoular (2019), "Successful executives must increasingly supplement their industry and functional expertise with a general capacity for learning and they must develop that capacity in the people they supervise….they need to reinvent themselves as coaches whose job it is to draw energy, creativity, and learning out of the people with whom they work." (p. 11)

Coaching Training for Managers

By 2016 more than 80% of organizations used a coach approach to management or leadership, and most planned to expand the use of this method. (Human Capital Institute & International Coach Federation, 2016) In 2018, Milner et al. surveyed 580 managers in Australian organizations with more than 200 employees and found that 30 to 40 percent had received some form of training in coaching. However, 40 percent of them expressed a desire for initial and/or further training.

Although managers and leaders are routinely asked to coach, research shows that more than 23% of managers have less than a day of training in coaching skills (Human Capital Institute & International Coach Federation, 2016). In contrast, professional coaches have lengthy and detailed training and supervision before being certified. Coaching as a function of leadership may be even more challenging than traditional client-based coaching because it requires the deft handling of competing priorities and roles. In other words, the manager-as-coach must balance her concern

for the well-being of the coached employee with the often competing needs of other employees and stakeholders and of the organization itself.

Offering coaching training, similar to that which professional coaches receive, is one way to improve the effectiveness and efficacy of leader-embedded coaching. Seemann et al. (2020) surveyed managers who took a coaching training course and found that after the training, managers used the coaching skills of active listening, asking questions, and establishing trust with their employees two to three times a week. Most indicated a desire to continue to improve their coaching skills. Further, the managers who received the coaching training and implemented it into their leadership reported that after the training they can think more positively, have more confidence in their subordinates, cope better with stressful situations, and allow employees to take on more work responsibility. They also reported that they felt more at ease at work because they gave their employees more freedom to resolve their own conflicts. (p. 6)

Similarly, Boak and Crabbe (2018) evaluated a coaching program that was implemented after a major corporate reorganization. The corporation offered training to 25 of its managers and partnered with a university to deliver the content which was based on one portion of a postgraduate certificate in coaching. Over eight months, participants met in two groups for five one-day workshops. Between the workshops, participants completed learning activities, including practicing coaching, observing, reflecting, and reading (p. 4). Participants were interviewed and participated in a focus group to determine the impact of the training program. They reported growth in their skills of listening and asking strong questions, feeling more self-confident, and feeling more valued by their organization. They also identified corporate benefits such as better communication, stronger relationships, and better understanding across the organization (p. 14). The researchers found that by training individuals in coaching skills, it was possible to improve the skills needed for cooperative working and mutual problem-solving.

Goleman (2000) acknowledged that while coaching is a necessary leadership skill, it comes naturally only to a few. Most people must practice for three to six months to become adept at using coaching skills in their leadership (Grant, 2010). Grant and Hartley (2013) found that the transfer of coaching skills can be supported by choosing a strong theoretical framework; designing practical program content; aligning the program with the organization's goals, values, and language; providing strong logistical support; and championing the program by esteemed individuals inside the organization. Morel and Cushman (2012) advocated for the use of coaching champions in implementing a coaching program. Shared experiences with and instruction in coaching skills can support organizational culture goals.

Coaching and Employee Outcomes

In the context of high employee demand and low supply, organizations are increasingly concerned about employee satisfaction and mental health. In a meta-analysis of 18 high-quality quantitative studies, Theebom et al. (2013) found that the data supports coaching as a means to improve performance, well-being, work attitudes, coping, and goal-directed self-regulation. Ali et al. (2018) found that managerial coaching positively impacts employee engagement, job satisfaction, leader-employee relationships, and turnover intentions and that this, in turn, impacts job performance.

Multiple studies have shown the impact of coaching practices on employee performance. Ribeiro et al, (2021) surveyed 198 employees from diverse organizations, asking them to assess the coaching skills of their managers and to report their own individual performance and organizational commitment. Survey results indicated a positive impact of managers' coaching skills on the employees' affective commitment to the organization and thus to improved performance. Similarly, Pousa et al. (2018) found that managerial coaching skills improved employee customer orientation, which was then positively correlated to improved employee performance. Dahling et al (2015) tested a multilevel model that linked both manager coaching frequency and coaching skill to attaining sales goals. The researchers studied 136 sales teams of 1,246 sales representatives in a pharmaceutical company. The coaching skill of the managers of these teams was evaluated in a coaching exercise during the training portion of the study. The study found that the managers' coaching skill was directly related to the annual sales goal attainment of the teams that they supervised.

Carvahlo et al. (2023) outlined six common obstacles managers who coach face: time, willingness, ability, employees' ability and willingness, or coachability, societal expectations, and technology intrusions. Some of these obstacles can be addressed with a well-designed coaching skills training curriculum that addresses the coaching efficacy of the manager, the development of a coaching culture even at the team level, and the skillful use of time and presence in a coaching session.

Coaching Skills Training in Management Education

The field of management is focused on helping organizations to improve their performance. The undergraduate management curriculum strives to give leaders the skills and knowledge to make decisions, manage

resources, and set and meet organizational goals. As Kosslyn (2019) pointed out, teaching students the ”soft skills”, now often characterized as “professional” or “power” skills, is imperative if management education is to continue to be relevant. Morel and Griffiths (2018) defined these skills as non-cognitive, interpersonal and/or intrapersonal in nature that include social skills, coping skills, adaptability, and professional habits of mind that are broadly applicable across industries, fields, cultures, and the timespan of careers. Pontefract (2023) calls professional skills the “bedrock” of organizational leadership.

While employers, the military, and universities widely agree that professional skills are necessary for professional success, these competencies were not explicitly taught or measured in traditional higher education until the last decade when the competency-based education movement began to fill the gap between what schools teach and what employers say they want from graduates (Morel & Griffiths, 2018). To address this gap, many business colleges and academic business departments have integrated professional skills and competencies into their curricula and co-curricula over the past several decades (Warner, 2021; Ritter et al., 2018).

Despite these advances, an ongoing critique of management education is that it pursues theory and conceptual knowledge to the detriment of demonstrable management skills. Baldwin et al (2011) defined applied managerial knowledge as the ability to analyze a situation, identify the salient issues, and choose appropriate managerial actions. They assessed more than 21,000 managers and 2,600 students and found the applied managerial knowledge to be consistently low in both groups. Rubin and Dierdorff (2017) surveyed 8,633 incumbent managers across 52 managerial occupations and found that competencies considered to be most critical to management performance are the very competencies least represented in required MBA curricula.

The long history of coaching in business would seem to indicate that business schools would focus on coaching competencies in the curricula. However, educational applications of coaching skills in graduate and professional programs in the US continue to be limited, despite the emphasis on other professional competencies (de Haan et al., 2020). AACSB, a global organization that provides quality assurance to more than 950 accredited business schools worldwide and the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) surveyed 241 employers of business graduates and 273 AACSB-accredited business schools concerning the most important competencies they believed were needed for graduates. Employers cited competencies related to coaching and people management more frequently than business schools did (AACSB, 2021). The same survey showed that most business schools (58%) felt coaching/mentoring was the most effective leadership development activity they provided to their students, but graduate programs have not widely implemented professional coaching for students (AACSB, 2021).

Managerial Coaching Course in Undergraduate Business

To address the competency gap that new graduates from my college were facing as they entered the workforce during and just after the global pandemic, I developed a 3-credit hour elective course in Managerial Communication first offered in the spring of 2023. The course centers on the following competencies:

- Design and practice a daily mindfulness routine that leads to a full presence, resilience, thriving, and effective work performance.
- Demonstrate listening skills that lead to a deeper understanding of colleagues, clients, mentors, sponsors, coaches, and managers in the workplace.
- Demonstrate the communication skills of paraphrasing, reflective questioning, and positive presuppositions.
- Demonstrate effective feedback skills, including asking for and acting on feedback from teams and supervisors.
- Demonstrate basic meeting planning and team facilitation skills by planning and leading a team meeting.
- Demonstrate effective communication skills in strategic conversations with colleagues and supervisors in team meetings and individually.
- Demonstrate coachability in group and individual coaching sessions.
- Develop a long term learning plan to improve coaching skills.

For each competency, students complete a Content Focus lesson to gain declarative or functioning knowledge of the skill. This includes some theory, but is primarily research on the definition and impact of the competency. Then, students engage in an Interactive lesson in which they practice with their peers, This may be an assignment such as giving feedback to a roommate or asking for feedback from a boss. After this experience, they complete Critical Thinking assignments that require them to anticipate potential problems that could arise from using the skill and evaluate times, places and situations that might call for additional skills. Students are then prepared for the Production

or real world phase in which they have a formal demonstration of the competency evaluated by the instructor via video or face to face. After feedback on their performance from the instructor, students enter the Problem Solving learning phase in which they determine what they will do differently next time or in a different situation. Finally, they reflect on the experience. This same process is followed with each of the competencies, adding the prior competencies to the expectations of each of the following demonstrations of learning. Throughout the process, students are encouraged to apply the Values of the College of Business: Service, Credibility, Creativity, Purposefulness, and Boldness.

This course was designed to be taught in a small hybrid workshop format. Students and the instructor meet face-to-face (or via video conferencing) for coaching, group interaction and practice. Weekly exercises, video lectures, and reflection exercises are conducted asynchronously on a learning management platform. Students practice the skills with other students and instructor at a time that works in their schedule via videoconference or face-to-face options. Individual coaching, small group coaching, and practice sessions are conducted synchronously via videoconference or in person. Students are assessed in competency-based simulations and real-world practice sessions.

After two semesters of the course, feedback from students was overwhelmingly positive. The following comments are representative of feedback from students in both sessions:

- We received only relevant information for our assignments and communication skills that we needed to develop. I appreciated not having busy work or unnecessarily long lessons/reading materials. I have already improved as a manager.
- The recent assignment we had to record was beneficial for my relationship with my boss, and I received vital feedback that I would not have thought to seek out. I celebrate my progress/growth in my career through these new communication skills.
- I would like to celebrate learning the importance of giving feedback properly. This class has been filled with lots of practical to real life applications. I look forward to applying these skills.
- This class has been so beneficial and applicable to everyday life which is not always something we get to learn in school!
- My communication skills have developed over this semester and I am conscious of it when talking to others.
- It has been one of the most interesting classes I have taken. I have always been a people person, but sometimes it can be hard to know what to say and when to say them and this class taught me exactly that and so much more, thank you!
- One thing I have gotten from the class is having more confidence in giving feedback and being more comfortable in difficult conversations.
- I'm grateful for this class and for the experience I've learned and I'll probably use for the rest of my life. I'm also very grateful with all my classmates especially the ones that I worked with for making this experience way more meaningful.
- I am thankful for this class and what I have learned this semester that I will use for the rest of my life and career.
- I haven't always been much of a people person, but I have really enjoyed learning about different negotiation methods and other ways of communicating within the business setting.
- This class has taught me true life skills. Without this class, I don’t think I would be as confident as I now am speaking to people. This was a great class for communication and I can’t wait to learn more in the future.
- This class has taught many important skills that anyone in leadership should possess. Most importantly, I've learned the power of presuming positive intent. At first, I did not grasp the concept, but I am thankful for continued practice which allowed me to comprehend it. This course was packed with value for anyone that will be in leadership in any shape or fashion (which is almost everyone!)
- I am thankful that this class has allowed me to get to know other students in this course. I valued our discussions and the opportunity to grow my communication skills. I believe the course will be of great value to many students allowing them to grow and become better communicators. I look forward to continuing to improve these skills and take what I have learned and apply it post-graduation.

Next Steps

For decades, businesses have asked for business education to address coaching skills. While there is still much to learn about the ways and contexts in which coaching improves leadership and organizations, there is extensive evidence that using coaching skills can be linked to improved managerial performance in many settings and that it is worthwhile for organizations to consider coaching training in tandem with the development of a coaching culture to improve employee engagement, satisfaction and organizational performance. Colleges of Business can support this initiative by exposing undergraduate business students to basic communication skills required for coaching and teaching the application of these skills in a safe and nurturing environment.

Student feedback shows students appreciate the content of coaching skills. However, the outcomes have not yet been studied rigorously. Future plans to study the job performance, job satisfaction, and work engagement of students who take the course are being developed. The course was designed to be a honors, senior level course. It would be beneficial to offer the course to a wider student population and research its impact with students with lower academic performance.

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THE IMPACT OF HETEROGENEOUS PERSONALITY GROUP FORMATION ON PERFORMANCE

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Abstract

In an increasingly complex world, groups are often formed to solve complex problems on short timelines. In that situation, groups are expected to produce results rapidly without having the time to develop into cohesive group and come to shared understanding. This study examines the impact of the personality of the individual group members on the overall group's performance in complex projects with short timelines. Personality is assessed in terms of left vs. right brain dominance and personality type using the NERIS® model. Data is collected from 374 students participating in a Pitch Competition as part of a Principles of Entrepreneurship course. A series of t-tests were completed comparing the results of groups with the personality type with those groups without the personality type. We found significant differences in these comparisons for groups with at least one moderate left member (left vs. right brain dominance classification) and with groups with at least one member who scores in a diplomat type (NERIS® model classification): With Moderate Left ($M = 0.1141$, $SD = .3190$) and Without Moderate Left ($M = 0.0364$, $SD = 0.1900$); $t(162) = 2.1299$, $p = 0.0347$ and With Diplomat ($M = 0.1529$, $SD = .3621$) and Without Diplomat ($M = 0.0504$, $SD = 0.2197$); $t(128) = 2.3228$, $p = 0.0218$. Analysis found that groups with at least one member who had moderate left-brain dominance were more likely to perform better than groups without these types of members. Groups with at least one member who was classified as a diplomat personality type were more likely to perform better than groups without these types of members. Given these results, those in managerial and leadership positions may more confidently work with ad hoc groups knowing that they can be formed or trained to mitigate the drawbacks of complex, time sensitive work.

WCFL: THE VOICE OF LABOR AND ITS ROLE IN UNION OWNERSHIP OF BROADCAST MEDIA

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Abstract

In the 1920s the invention and the introduction of the radio proved to be one of the most effective tools of communication ever developed. It was direct, personal, and extremely timely. Many business organizations, groups as well as many individuals found radio to be an important tool to advertise products, influence public opinion, and help gain political advantage. One interested group that considered radio an effective method of promoting its goals and agenda early on was American Labor. In one specific case, while radio had its acknowledged advantages, a significant debate raged between the American Federation of Labor (AFL) and its affiliated unions in Chicago as to the value of media ownership. To some, the city of Chicago and the Midwest was and is one the strongest labor markets in the country. As a result, a power struggle for the best way to influence the citizens of the area was waged between the Chicago Federation of Labor (CFL) and the AFL. This is a study that acknowledges that debate and the outcome would have significant implications for labor in the Chicago market as well as for America for over a century.

Introduction

The use and ownership of a radio station or a network of stations was discussed as early as 1922 but was ultimately rejected by the AFL during its 1925 convention (AFL, 1925). The leadership of the American Federation of Labor (AFL) at the time wanted nothing to do with over-air broadcasting. According to the AFL, it was an endeavor not desired or to be pursued in any American market. AFL President William Green and others believed unions themselves were the best tool in securing a position of power and they didn't need to subject themselves the burden of media ownership and to broadcast censorship (Godfried, 1987). However, the Chicago Federation of Labor (CFL) thought better of the instrumentality of radio programming to promote its agenda and support its image with the public. Therefore, the Chicago labor group committed its resources to the founding of WCFL which was one of the earliest radio stations in Chicago and in the United States.

Bringing the Labor Message to Radio Broadcasting

Under the leadership and the insistence of CFL President John Fitzpatrick and Executive Secretary Edward Nockels, the CFL Executive Board in 1924 gave the CFL full authority to pursue the establishment of a radio broadcast station (Chicago Federation of Labor, 1931). The initial vision of Nockels was that WCFL would be a non-profit station supported by contributions from workers that would awaken the slumbering giant of labor through influence and education of the public mind to correct wrong impressions about labor. This goal would be achieved by having the power to directly get out the truth about labor and its progressive ideas to benefit the well-being of the nation (Cohen, 1990). From early on WCFL became known as the "Voice of Labor" and was one of the last non-profit stations to go on the air during this period of time (Godfried, 1987). From its start on June 19, 1926, the Voice of Labor would exist until 1978 as a unique venture in labor broadcasting not seen elsewhere. The station began using broadcast towers and antennas erected by CFL mechanics on the Navy Pier (known then as the Municipal Pier) and then eventually built towers in Downers Grove with operations shifted there in 1932 (Chicago Federation of Labor. 2003). As early as 1926, WCFL broadcasting at AM 610 (eventually AM 1000) was a force and voice of labor in the economic and sociological landscape of Chicago. With the will of Edward Nockels, WCFL became the voice of labor for the Chicago Federation of Labor to support and represent the role of labor in the economic heartland of America's Midwest for over a half-century. Over the decades the station struggled to stay on the air because of tight budgets and lagging financial support (Godfried, 1987). To counteract some of its financial difficulties, throughout the 1920s and 1930s, WCFL tried a variety of programming ideas to get the word out about the value of labor in society including launching the WCFL Radio Magazine in 1927 and entering into an agreement with the Farmer's Educational and Cooperative Movement of America in 1928 to provide a service to farmers, in addition to airing general commercials (Federation News, 1929). The station worked hard to survive the late 1920s and the difficult Depression-era 1930s by broadcasting a weekly program called "Junior Federation Club," which was a cooperative effort with the city's teachers unions. In addition, other programming included classical music, vaudeville and live dance hall music, public

affairs programming and as an early pioneer of baseball broadcasting of both the Chicago Cubs and Chicago White Sox games (Godfried, 1978; Jorgenson, 1949). Beyond that, WCFL also was broadcasting special events such as the Tunney-Dempsey championship boxing match from Soldier Field in 1927 and trying new ideas such as by entering into an agreement to broadcast as part of the NBC Blue Network (Godfried, 1987; WCFL, 2010).

WCFL and the Federal Government's Efforts to Reform U.S. Broadcasting

Shortly after the development of radio and over the air broadcasting began, the radio broadcasting industry exploded on the scene into the 1920s. It appears that early license applications were not reviewed with sufficient attention causing an overabundance of radio stations which created very crowded airwaves. Among those many applications was WCFL which was approved to broadcast at 610 kHz (Chicago Federation of Labor. 2003). Therefore, throughout the early years of broadcasting in the 1920s and 1930s, WCFL, as well as many other radio stations, was faced with constant challenges from the United States Chamber of Commerce licensing authority known as the Federal Radio Commission (FRC). The FRC had a series of issues with WCFL as a broadcast station such as being a "station of special interest propaganda" and because it determined that its license was deemed unconstitutional because of its labor-biased philosophy in a time of chaos during a glut of excessive applications not properly vetted when first considered for approval (Davis, 1928; FRC 1929). Eventually, the furor related to broadcasting oversight settled down and WCFL, as well as many other stations, were able to survive the intense scrutiny of the time (Morgan, 1933).

The Voice of Labor and Beyond

Over the years a persistent and major problem for the U.S. labor movement has been in effectively communicating its message to its members, interested parties and the general public. In order to deal with this reality organized labor tried a variety of methods to get across their message through traditional means such as general media coverage via newspapers, television and commercial radio news broadcasts and as well as internal means such as member newsletters and announcements. As an example, the Chicago Federation of Labor (CFL) published *New Majority* (later renamed the *Federation News*), a weekly newspaper which began in 1919 as well as establishing a labor new service which existed well into the 1920s (Godfried, 1987). In attempts to be even more progressive, the CFL resorted to the latest technology available to get the message out whether it be development of radio broadcasting in the 1920s or through today's methods of social media. When it comes to the early use of radio, there is no doubt that WCFL in Chicago was the prime example of not only depending on sponsored radio broadcasting to get its message out but also actually owning and operating its radio station for over fifty years. Because of the general belief by labor that media would only find labor issues to be minor and incidental along with a hostility toward unions who would be a threat to organize media sources, some unions found the best way to address this reality was through direct broadcast media ownership (McChesney, 1992).

Throughout the 1930s WCFL lived up to being the "Voice of Labor" by continuing to provide supportive coverage of labor organizing efforts related to the campaign to organize packers in 1933 and an effort related to steelworkers in 1934 (Newell, 1961). However, it was increasingly evident that the station was evolving into a conservative operation not unlike its capitalist rivals in competing for important advertising dollars and as a result, the station did finally show a profit in 1940 (Jorgenson, 1949). The shifting away from predominant labor programming was becoming abundantly clear with the death of Nockels in 1937 as WCFL seemingly was abandoning its unique role in broadcasting to becoming more of a central and dominant part of Chicago and U.S. working-class culture (Cohen, 1990). Over the next 30 years WCFL would become a contradiction to its labor roots with minor acknowledgements of labor coverage, trade union and community service coverage. By the 1970s, WCFL feel victim to the same forces that were plaguing the labor movement in terms of a clear labor message and the interest and support of the public. This resulted in the station programming more commercially oriented entertainment as a leading rock music station to promote itself as "Big 10 Super CFL" to compete with cross-town rival station WLS, Radio 89 (Kunichoff, 2017; Lenehen, 1974). After years of struggle and a lack of financial success, the once great station of labor communication was described as Chicago's "sewer of news and public affairs" in 1976 which led the Chicago Federation of Labor selling the failing station in 1978 (Deeb, 1976). Over the next nine years ownership of WCFL changed along with trying various programming formats such as talk, adult music, and religious formats until 1987, when it ceased operations entirely and was sold again. After the sale the call letters of the station were changed to WLUP and then in 1993 to the current WMVP to reflect its programming emphasis on sports as an ESPN/Disney affiliated station for a time (Feder, 1998). The station is now under the current ownership and operation of Good Karma Brands (Feder, 2019).

Conclusion and Recent Labor Promotion

WCFL was a fifty-year experiment that was based on the idea that labor could help enhance its image and power through broadcast media. While it was the first to do so, WCFL introduced the idea that labor had alternative

ways to communicate its message. Although its existence and purpose were better known and understood in the early years, this creation of the CFL as part of the American Federation of Labor continued to be an active part of everyday life in Chicago for decades. Its origins in labor power and influence slowly became a faded backdrop subject to the many attempts to become commercially successful in the field of media broadcasting. Looking back along the way it is clear that it lost its focus and energy to continue as a voice of labor as it fell victim to the forces of the market to try to stay relevant and engaged and financially viable. The ultimate irony seems to be that, contrary to William Nockel's vision to be a beacon and a (the) voice of labor, in the rare occasion these days that anyone thinks about the station it is because of its popularity in its rock programming in the 1970s and not because of its initial purpose to promote the American labor movement in Chicago and the Midwest.

For a significant part of fifty years, and especially since the 1960s, many listeners of WCFL who grew up in the Midwest and had no idea that one of most popular rock radio stations was actually a unique media source of labor influence even though much of its existence since the mid-twentieth century was a period of rich labor history which had a major impact in the American economic system. As a force in AM broadcast media, many listeners we're basically unaware of its roots and early beginnings. Other than identifying itself as the "Voice of Labor" in its station identifications and call letter jingles, it was better known as a contemporary radio station competing in a strong market fighting for young adult listeners more interested in rock and roll than supporting any kind of labor ideology.

Recent attempts to convey the labor message via radio programming is even more of a struggle to be heard and survive as many are dying on the vine and the future of labor and progressive radio is bleak at best (Weinger, 2014). The decline of radio and traditional labor promotion has given way to other means. Despite the resurgence of labor power in recent years as seen from some impactful strikes and several successful organizing campaigns such as at Amazon and Starbucks, a great deal of labor promotion is now achieved using virtual union organizing and through the utilization of social media and digital communication (Orechwa, 2021). Just as interesting, many employers are now using social media to counteract the effects of unionization and through attempts of actual union busting campaigns (Green, 2022). With recent technical developments and the explosion of available information related to all topics, it only seems to make sense that labor-related promotion has moved to the digital platform. It was well documented that about 80 percent of each of the groups of people such as Baby Boomers, Generation X, Millennials and Generation Z use social media at least one time per day (Choudhury, 2021). Regardless of the type of media, be it radio or social media, there is a real felt need to continue to get out the word on behalf of labor to counteract the push of anti-labor sentiment at the federal and the state levels over the years.

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APPENDIX

WCFL
Radio
Magazine
1928
SPRING
EDITION
The
Voice of Labor
Price 35 Cents

WCFL
THE VOICE OF LABOR
DALEY REMINDER
KEEP CHICAGO CLEAN
JAMES McHUGH CONST. CO.
BRIGHTON CONST. CO.
Residential
Commercial
Recreational
800 APARTMENTS
AIR CONDITIONING

the Next Car is
tuned to WCFL
...Why not you?
WCFL
1000
DIAL
CHICAGO FEDERATION OF LABOR

RADIO
WCFL 10
VOICE OF LABOR-CHICAGO