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What Gives Workplaces a Family-Like Atmosphere? An Exploratory Study

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WHAT GIVES WORKPLACES A FAMILY-LIKE ATMOSPHERE? AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

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This dissertation is dedicated to my family. Every time I felt like giving up, which happened more often than I care to admit, you were my inspiration. Now that this monumental task is complete, I cannot wait to enjoy spending more time together.

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ABSTRACT

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Social identity theory suggests identities form through mechanisms established during peoples' childhoods. Those mechanisms operate the processes through which people assess their individualistic qualities. In organizations, similar phenomena occur as employees develop organizational identity. To help organizations foster more beneficial organizational identity, family systems theory is applied to the investigation of employee needs. Lumpkin et al.'s (2008) conceptual work on family orientation offer a solid starting point for such investigations. Their conceptual dimensions of family orientation are blended with concepts related to individual needs. Together, those concepts were used to reflexively code data from a qualitative research design. Eleven interviews were conducted with participants from family firms and nonfamily firms. Results indicate workplaces do reflect certain family-like characteristics. Those characteristics are defined and specific actions reflective of those characteristics are discussed. The manuscript ends with a discussion of future efforts to empirically measure the family-like characteristics.

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

People gravitate toward groups that provide a sense of belonging (Vignoles et al., 2008). Belonging develops as individuals believe their psychological needs can be met through affiliation with certain groups (Vignoles et al., 2006). As a primary group (Walters, 1982), families often act as one group capable of meeting many psychological needs. Given the way cultural norms affect the structure and expectations of family groups (Walters, 1982), it is not surprising that individuals' expectations for future needs fulfillment likely stems from their experiences during early stages of life (LaGuardia et al., 2000). In other words, affiliation with family groups serves as a reference point for many individuals' preferred methods of meeting certain psychological needs, such as the need to belong. Naturally, it would be expected then for individuals to gravitate toward groups capable of meeting belongingness needs.

Several types of groups are capable of meeting such needs. For instance, young adults, motivated by a need to belong, joined protest groups at rates much higher than other age groups (Renström et al., 2021). Children, engaged in regular team-based group activities, generally had higher social skills than children not engaged with those groups (Allen et al., 2015). For some people, affiliation with a specific referent group is so coveted, they will even violate laws (Tunçel &Kavak, 2021) or defy their own ideals (Macdonald & Wood, 2018) to preserve their affiliation with the group. While the previous examples suggest individuals may satisfy affiliation needs through group-memberships, the examples offer little understanding about fundamental needs (e.g. food and water, shelter, clothes). To meet such basic needs, most people, at some point their

life, take on work in exchange for the resources (i.e. money and benefits) required to satisfy their individual needs. In short, people need to work (Paul & Batinic, 2009), and many people spend an average of thirty-three percent of their adult lives at work (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). Consequently, it seems natural for the workplace to be included as another primary group whereby individuals' needs are met.

In turn, families and workplaces both serve as primary groups responsible for meeting individuals' needs. People are drawn to the characteristics they believe help them create positive future versions of themselves (Vignoles et al., 2008). When groups express those characteristics, it is naturally expected for individuals to identify with those groups. Social identity theory (Tajfel, 1974) supports those expectations. At its roots, the theory predicts "an individual strives to achieve a satisfactory concept or image of himself" (Tajfel, 1974, p. 68). On the one hand, functional family systems are symbolized by characteristics like higher levels of attachment, stability, and protection (Rothbaum et al., 2002). Individuals' values, which start at a very early age in life, stem from these characteristics. On the other hand, family firms, compared with nonfamily firms, are more sustainable (Krappe et al., 2011) and more protective of employees (Bjuggren, 2015). Therefore, it should not be surprising if many individuals may be attracted to organizations that have family-like characteristics (Astrachan et al., 2018; Kashmiri & Mahajan, 2010). At a minimum, the similarities between both groups suggest there may be an overlap of the characteristics found in each group. In other words, similar characteristics may prompt individuals to develop similar expectations from both primary groups.

Given the similarities, it may be that some workplaces create a family-like atmosphere with which individuals might want to associate themselves. If families and workplaces have similar characteristics, it would be expected for those characteristics to create similar atmospheres. Before a family-like atmosphere can be described, however, the characteristics of such an atmosphere must be defined. The purpose of this research is to identify and define those characteristics.

Though other benefits will likely emerge from articulating characteristics of a family-like atmosphere, two benefits seem prominent. First, the research empirically tests Lumpkin et al.'s (2008) theoretical arguments for the existence of what they call *family orientation.* Those scholars contend that family systems theory (Bavelas & Segal, 1982) suggests the existence of thematic similarities between families and firms. This research builds on those themes and assesses whether those concepts exist in the workplace. Second, if those concepts exist, their definitions should enrich the conversations regarding the definition of family firms. Family firms have been described many ways. For example, some definitions emphasize who makes organizational decisions (Handler, 1989) or the decision-makers' preferences toward family-based interests (Litz, 1995). Other definitions touch on the culture and involvement of family members (Klein et al., 2005). Some would simply say a family firm is a firm that behaves like family (Chua et al., 1999). This research, by articulating characteristics of a family-like workplace, should help explain what it means for a firm to behave like a family. Other potential benefits will be discussed at a later point in this paper.

This research is organized as follows. First, an overview of the pertinent literature is discussed. Second, theoretical support for the expected family-like characteristics is

outlined. Third, the qualitative interviews used to investigate those characteristics are explained. Fourth, the results of the interviews are discussed, which includes general themes and specific quotes suggesting further research opportunities may exist. Finally, the research concludes with thoughts and recommendations for future research opportunities.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The following review of selected literature streams seeks to establish parameters around the topics of interest for this research. The main purpose of the research is to answer the following question: What characteristics give workplaces a family-like atmosphere? Before investigating this question, streams of literature discussing concepts central to the question should be highlighted. To highlight those streams appropriately, the following questions are posed and answered using the wealth of knowledge already available.

- What are family-like characteristics?

- Why are family-like characteristics expected?

- Can workplaces reflect family-like characteristics?

The first question will be answered with a discussion of individuals' needs. Family groups are responsible for meeting individuals' needs, particularly early in life. Individuals generally develop certain expectations stemming from the methods used to meet their needs. Patterns seem to exist regarding those methods, and the second question is answered using theoretical justification of likely patterns. Those patterns are explained as family-like characteristics and family reflections, which are instances that reflect those characteristics, are discussed. Finally, the third question is answered with an overview of measurements suggesting the likelihood of family-like characteristics in the workplace.

2.1 What are family-like characteristics?

Depending on one's perspective (Carsrud, 2006), the word *family* can mean several things. Historically, people looked at family as a unit of blood-related individuals (Dürckheim, 1933). Hence, family might describe peoples' relations toward those in their same lineage. However, marriage bridges family groups and exponentially increases capacity for familial relations. From this perspective, family might include people with whom other persons are legally connected. Assumptions about marriage, however, are transforming at rapid rates (Ortiz-Ospina & Roser, 2020). People wait later in life to get married, and increasingly more people have decided to avoid getting married altogether (Ortiz-Ospina & Roser, 2020). In regions of the country marked by strong emphasis on marriage, some people are opting to live life as a single person (Himawan et al., 2018). Data from 2019 shows the number of marriages in Australia was down nearly 32%, while the same year boasted a divorce rate of 43% (Australian Business Statistics, 2019). These examples suggest it has become increasingly complicated to define what constitutes a family.

Rather than focus on the legal or lineage characteristics of family, it seems more appropriate to discuss the perceptual characteristics of families. Apart from outlining quantitative requirements for lineage distance or weeding through legislative differences regarding legal recognition of married individuals, another more inclusive approach exists. Smilkstein (1978) described families as a "…psychosocial group consisting of the patient and one or more persons, children or adults, in which there is a commitment for members to nurture one another." (p. 1232). While the motivation behind the definition was clinical, the fundamental tenants support nonclinical settings. It may seem obvious to

mention the role families have on children since families are responsible for facilitating healthy child-development (Foster et al., 2020). But evidence also suggests families play a critical role in adult-related issues such as recognizing health risks (Jain, 2021), supporting rehabilitation efforts (Kim et al., 2021), and navigating financial crises (Skare & Porada-Rochon, 2021). These examples support Smilkstein's (1978) argument that families are simply groups of people committed to nurturing each other. In line with his definition, it is assumed that *nurture* is intended to describe a "function that promotes emotional and physical growth and maturation" (Smilkstein, 1978, p. 1232). In short, families may be defined as a group responsible for meeting its member's needs.

If families are a group responsible for meeting its member's needs, member's needs should provide a window through which family-like characteristics may be viewed. To be clear, this is not to say families are the only group capable of meeting group-member's needs. Other groups will be discussed at a later point in the literature review. In general, however, the following discussion will suggest that families serve as a primary group capable of meeting its member's needs. Therefore, by studying the way families meet their group-member's needs, it may be possible to generalize family-like characteristics for other groups. To assess how families meet individuals' needs, the following section unpacks individual-needs and the connections between those needs and the family.

2.1.1 Overview of Individual Needs

Most people have a fundamental desire to reflect positive self-images (Vignoles et al., 2006). In fact, many individuals continually look for ways to enhance or verify those

images (Sedikides, 1993). In short, individuals want to be associated with positive images, and they hope to avoid being associated with negative images (Vignoles et al., 2008). While individual differences likely affect what those individuals deem as positive or negative images, it can be assumed those assessments are motivated by things that are of interest to the individual (Tajfel, 1981). On the one hand, individual differences are just that—different. On the other hand, psychologists have generated themes in which most individual interests are subsumed (Vignoles et al., 2006). Those themes represent ways individuals' needs are met and once met, those individuals feel more equipped to reflect positive images of themselves.

In general, individuals' needs are studied two ways. First, people categorize humans' basic needs with Maslow's hierarchy (Maslow, 1943b). Within that hierarchy are fundamental points of human needs, which are representations of individuals' motivations (Maslow, 1943a). The hierarchy of needs offers a way to classify levels that build upon each other, like the blocks used to build a pyramid. Those blocks, from foundational to higher-order needs, are physiological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization. Moreover, those levels indicate what should and should not motivate people, depending on their level of needs. Maslow's (1943b) theory assumes the reality of pre-potency, which proposes that certain needs will not arise until other needs are met. In other words, individuals presumably will not be motivated to feel loved unless they have satisfied a need to feel safe. Such a linear outline suggests meeting foundational needs (i.e. physiological and safety) unlocks the space for higher-order needs to serve as motivation. Given the way family groups are typically best suited to handle responsibilities associated with those early foundational needs (Foster et al., 2020), it is

not surprising that individuals' expectations for future needs fulfillment likely stems from their experiences during early stages of life (LaGuardia et al., 2000). In short, because families helped satisfy early needs, individuals likely expect to see future needs satisfied in similar ways. Therefore, the family group serves as an important reference point for investigating, in general, how individuals expect their needs to be fulfilled.

Another way to categorize human needs assumes people are motivated by the need to enhance certain feelings about themselves (Vignoles et al., 2006). Such needs are reflective of deeply held values that likely stem from early development periods of life (Tajfel, 1974). Because the latter approach assumes some needs are more or less influential, as opposed to Maslow's hierarchical approach, the approach outlined by Vignoles and colleagues (2006) is more applicable for this research. On the one hand, the habitual expectations for needs fulfillment, which are created early in life (LaGuardia et al., 2000; Tajfel, 1974), are critical factors for the investigation of family-like characteristics, simply because the family groups establish patterns. Those patterns are expected to be a source from which individuals determine whether their environments are more or less family-like. On the other hand, the theoretical support for this research hinges on individuals' tendency to be drawn to groups they believe possess the qualities capable of improving individuals' self-images (Tajfel, 1974; Vignoles et al., 2008). In short, Maslow's hierarchy suggests that needs can be satisfied in family-like fashion, while Vignoles et al. (2006) suggest themes exist regarding satisfied needs. This research suggests that, together, these approaches map out potential family-like characteristics which are capable representations for meeting group-member's needs. The next portion

unpacks Vignoles et al. (2006; 2008) work and connects their themes with family-like characteristics.

Vignoles et al. (2006) found that individuals, in general, were motivated by certain themes. Those individuals were positively motivated by themes they felt would enhance their future selves. The antithesis was also true. Those same individuals were frustrated by themes they felt might harm their future selves. Put simply, people like to picture positive versions of their future selves, and they identify more with characteristics they feel might contribute to that future version of themselves (Vignoles et al., 2008). The themes provided by Vignoles and colleagues (2006) represent a starting point for understanding characteristics individuals may perceive as more or less family like. Those themes are self-esteem, continuity, distinctiveness, belonging, efficacy, and meaning.

2.1.2 Psychological Needs

2.1.2.1 Self-Esteem.

Everyone has some degree of self-esteem. Though self-esteem has been studied in conjunction with many topics (Kitano, 1989), it is fundamentally described as the combined effect of individuals thoughts about themselves (Rosenberg et al., 1995). More specifically, it has been described as an individual's "judgement of worthiness; an attitude of self-approval" (Gardner & Pierce, 1998, p. 52). Those assessments can stem from objects (e.g. people or groups) as a whole, or from smaller parts of that object (Rosenberg et al., 1995). For example, some individuals will think positively toward their family, despite one specific family member toward whom they have negative feelings. Given the direct emphasis on one's social activity (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992), an

individuals' self-esteem stems, in part, from their perceived connections to their primary groups (Tajfel, 1981). Said differently, primary groups provide the resources required for establishing individuals' self-esteem. Most people naturally recognize the unfavorable association with lower levels of self-esteem (Blascovich et al., 1991). While too much self-esteem can influence individuals to disregard others' feedback (Lew & Harklau, 2018), this research focuses less on the outcomes of self-esteem and more on the activities individuals believe help satisfy their need for self-esteem.

To understand more about those activities, it helps to consider a few ways self-esteem might be influenced. In general, one's self-esteem is influenced by activities that assess, enhance, or verify an individuals' summation of their worth (Sedikides, 1993). Individuals assess themselves by seeking objective information by which they might compare themselves with another person (Sedikides, 1993). Those individuals are more likely to seek objective information by embracing tasks that reduce individuals' uncertainty of their skills (Trope, 1979). Because many individuals will likely select tasks at which they believe they can succeed (Strube et al., 1986), individuals need a space to experiment with low-risk, high mastery tasks (Erol & Orth, 2011). When groups provide such a space, those groups help influence individuals' self-esteem.

As primary groups, evidence suggests both families and workplaces help create those influential spaces. Families balancing responsivity to individuality with demanding expectations (Baumrind, 1987; 1989) saw the development of more capable young adults (Schmidt & Padilla, 2003). Similarly, workplaces may signal worth to employees by implementing complex job designs and less formalized structures (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). A more organic atmosphere likely helps employees perceive themselves as more

competent individuals (Pierce & Gardner 2004). Like the demanding expectations and

individual attention in a family group, a demanding workplace helps individuals interpret

their challenges as opportunities to assess and enhance their self-esteem. In sum, both

workplaces and families help create spaces in which individuals might access

opportunities to verify, enhance, or assess their self-esteem.

2.1.2.2 Continuity.

Building upon individuals' self-esteem, continuity implies a perpetuation of the

conclusions drawn after performing the tasks intended to assess one's self-esteem

(Vignoles et al., 2006). On the one hand, individuals with low self-esteem may avoid

future opportunities to engage in activities assessing their self-esteem (Epstein, 1973).

Despite the positivity surrounding the opportunity to enhance one's self-esteem, the fear

of confirming—or worsening—previous assessments is greater than some individuals can

bear. On the other hand, most people appreciate a sense of predictability regarding their

future selves (Swann et al., 1987). In sum, individuals need a space in which they can, if

they choose to do so, continue assessing, enhancing, and verifying their self-esteem. Such

a need is best described as continuity.

Both families and workplaces seem capable of offering such continuity.

Intuitively, family groups generally continue on with very little thought of severing ties

with group members (i.e. relatives). Said differently, families are not generally expected

to cut out members from the group. Therefore, individuals can expect to maintain a space

for self-verification, simply because the natural perpetuity of family lineages throughout

history suggest individuals can continue expecting membership in family groups. The

social nature of the workplace (Cole et al., 2002), plus the large amount of time

individuals spend at work (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997), suggest individuals likely engage in self-esteem verification processes at work as well. On the one hand, individuals usually seek social interactions they believe will confirm their positive assessments of themselves (Swann & Read, 1981). On the other hand, most individuals tend to analyze violations of their self-esteem with significant bias (Strube et al., 1986). Given these complications, it makes sense why supervisory feedback can be quite difficult (Moss & Sanchez, 2004). These examples are provided, not to imply what kind of self-verification methods are best for individuals, but rather to evidence that individuals do seek opportunities to verify their self-esteem. Therefore, families and workplaces appear to serve as common environments in which individuals' need for continuity can be satisfied.

2.1.2.3 Distinctiveness.

Most individuals are influenced by a paradoxical need for differentiation (Vignoles et al., 2000). The need is paradoxical because simply being different will not satisfy the need. Instead, individuals want to be different *enough* (Brewer, 1991). Thus, identification processes involve comparison of similarities and differences (Vignoles et al., 2000). For identification purposes, individuals certainly need a gauge to determine who they are, which is why it helps to recognize similarities. Then again, without eliminating who they are *not,* individuals may struggle to understand who they are (Vignoles et al., 2000). In short, individuals use their distinctive competencies to justify their worth over and above what other individuals may offer.

Although the concepts of self-esteem and distinction do have overlapping traits, the concepts are different. Described by Brewer (1991) as a fundamental human need, distinctiveness operates separately from the activities related to assessing, verifying, and

enhancing one's self-esteem. In fact, after controlling for group-related identity tasks connected to self-esteem, subjects still reported a significant need for distinctiveness (Brewer et al., 1993). Too much differentiation, however, risks leaving individuals feeling isolated and vulnerable (Brewer, 1991). In short, individuals crave a sense of similarity to other people and, at the same time, want to maintain a uniqueness about themselves (Brewer, 1991). To illustrate the differences between self-esteem and distinction, consider the following example within family groups.

As mentioned already, family groups balance responsivity and individuality with competing levels of demanding expectations (Baumrind, 1987; 1989). On the one hand, a child is treated as their own person, retaining their individual interests and desires. On the other hand, there is pressure to adapt to meet high-standard expectations. Young adults were viewed as more capable individuals when their family groups cultivated similar environments in the family's home (Schmidt & Padilla, 2003). In short, the balance in the home satisfied individuals' paradoxical need similarity and distinction. Said differently, distinction is initiated when one's level of self-esteem suggests they are so similar to someone else, they might be easily replaced by someone else. Therefore, family groups help meet individuals' needs by balancing activities leading to distinctiveness.

In addition to family groups tendencies, such expectations for distinctiveness in the workplace are perfectly reasonable as well. Distinctiveness, from a theoretical perspective, is fundamental to popular theories used for studying organizational identity (Vignoles et al., 2000), primarily due to its influence on social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Though employees' identification with an organization generally produces positive attitudes and behaviors (Lee et al., 2013), evidence exists suggesting a

more balanced approach (Conroy et al., 2017). In short, some individuals may over-identify with an organization, and thereby suffer from a lack distinctiveness. Perhaps then some individuals may achieve more balanced identities when they are permitted to retain some of their distinctive qualities. It would be quite similar to the space family members are given at home. They retain membership to the family, yet they are given space to explore their individual interests. Regardless of how it may manifest itself, distinction does appear to be commonplace—or at least it *should be* commonplace—in family groups and in workplaces.

2.1.2.4 Belonging.

Individuals have a fundamental need to be attached to some relationship (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). This need is best described as a feeling of acceptance by, or closeness to, someone else (Vignoles et al., 2006). Maslow (1943b) insisted the need to belong in a loving relationship is usurped only by one's need to protect their own body (i.e. obtain ample nutrition, stave off attacks) from potential harm. Thus, most individuals will identify with opportunities they believe satisfy a need to be accepted by another person. It is entirely possible that the need to belong to a meaningful relationship is foundational to an individual's development of self-esteem (Leary & Baumeister, 2000). Additionally, several disorders and clinical problems appear to stem from individuals' unmet belongingness needs (Leary et al., 1995). Because individuals are likely to seek positive versions of their future selves, and avoid negative versions of their future selves, the belongingness need represents a mechanism whereby fundamental needs might be satisfied.

The need to belong to, or be attached with, some group creates the potential for both positive and negative outcomes. While the need to be loved usually draws significant attention, the fundamental nature of love and attachment also includes the drive to attach oneself with an object on which to pour out one's love (Freud, 1933). Said differently, individuals need someone *to love* as well be loved by someone. Maslow's hierarchy (1943a) suggests that individuals' "capacity of being useful in the world" (p. 10), or the outcomes associated with higher-order needs, is dependent upon meeting a belongingness need. On the one hand, the positive outcomes surrounding such usefulness to society seem intuitive. On the other hand, individuals craving a sense of belonging may be predisposed to behave rashly, just so their need is satisfied (Maslow, 1943a). Potential examples might exist by considering why some individuals remain in abusive relationships or sacrifice their own wellbeing to help another group or person. Driven by the need to love someone else, some individuals might justify abusive romantic relationships simply because they need someone to love. Additionally, some individuals may do what an organization asks of them, simply because they want to identify with that organization, even if it means making sacrifices detrimental to their personal wellbeing (Conroy et al., 2017). In short, though many positive outcomes correlate with satisfied needs for belongingness, negative correlations likely exist as well.

Both positive and negative outcomes can be seen in the primary groups of interest for this research. Children feel like they belong when they receive attention and feel included, especially when considering stepfamilies (King et al., 2015). In the workplace, belonging was described similarly to the family therapy literature. Employees described belonging at work as participating in activities with other workers, at or apart from the

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workplace, and it was more implicitly described as a process of becoming like the individuals with whom they related socially (Filstad et al., 2019). Like most individual needs, when individuals feel like they belong, they enjoy better relationships (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). On the contrary, when people feel excluded, they are more aggressive (Twenge et al., 2001) and more likely to harm themselves (Thau et al., 2007). As primary groups, families and workplaces are certainly capable of meeting belonginess needs. In fact, it seems as if they may be the most influential groups responsible for helping individuals avoid the deleterious outcomes associated with unmet belongness needs.

2.1.2.5 Efficacy.

People generally develop higher levels of efficacy when they believe they have the competency required to control their situations (Breakwell, 1993). Described differently, self-efficacy develops when people believe they have the competence required to manipulate their situations in such a way so that outcomes mirror their intentions (Tafarodi & Swann, 1995). Though the concepts are distinctly different (Tafarodi & Swann, 2001), it is not uncommon for people to use the words *efficacy* and *self-esteem* interchangeably. As previously mentioned, self-esteem is the summation of one's thoughts about themselves (Sedikides, 1993). Those summations derive when individuals engage social activities, which then provide points of comparison individuals use to surmise thoughts about themselves (Tafarodi & Swann, 1995). What initially leads individuals to assume they might be successful in those activities has been described as efficacy (Gardner & Pierce, 1998). Self-efficacy, to be specific, has been defined as "a belief about the probability that one can successfully execute some future action or task or achieve some result" (Gardner & Pierce, 1998, p. 50). Given the earlier dialogue

devoted to self-esteem, the discussion here will focus on the competency nature of efficacy, which generally results from being able to affect situations to an individual's liking.

Tafarodi and Swann (1995) described competence as someone's general assessment of themselves to be "capable, effective, and in control" (p. 325) of their situations. As people see desirable outcomes resulting from their intentional efforts, their self-competence increases, and individuals develop a higher sense of self-efficacy. On the one hand, it could be said that people will possess more self-efficacy when they accomplish a goal. On the other hand, people seek feedback in different ways, and assessments of another person's opinion of their accomplishments (i.e. feedback) significantly affects individuals' self-efficacy levels (Bosson & Swann, 1999). This means the concept of efficacy does represent a space for individuals' competence levels to be manipulated by others (Krueger & Dickson, 1994). Therefore, it would be beneficial for this research to investigate how family groups and workplaces, specifically, may have some manipulative effect on individuals' efficacy.

Since efficacy is rooted in feedback and learning, it makes sense to discuss how individuals' learning might occur. At a minimum, it can be assumed that the pinnacle of one's learning is the automatic response to something (Stinchcombe, 1990). Said differently, once individuals have mastered a learning concept, they can complete a task without needing to think about it (Cohen, 1991). In short, as individuals learn whether they are capable of doing something, their efficacy is affected. Consequently, the opportunities given to confront what people may or may not know should affect an individuals' efficacy. For instance, Malone (2001) suggests organizations adopt coaching

techniques to bolster employee efficacy. Coaching includes a "practical, goal-focused form of personal, one-on-one learning" (Hall et al., 1999, p. 40) and usually requires ongoing discussion of performance, including feedback and encouragement (Corcoran et al., 1995; Weer et al., 2016). Additionally, peoples' childhood experiences in family groups significantly affect their efficacy levels. When families use feedback mechanisms to alter their developmental interactions with one another, children reported improved efficacy levels (Timmer et al., 2010), and those improved efficacy levels have a significant effect on children's future success (Yuan et al., 2016). In short, families and workplaces both facilitate environments conducive for building individuals' efficacy.

2.1.2.6 Meaning.

One's quest for meaning involves more than simply achieving any one thing. Though often described as a reason to exist (Baumeister, 1991), such reasons need not be limited to a grand omnibus reason. In fact, the need for meaning has been described with four general subgroups of needs. Baumeister and Wilson (1996) summarize those needs as the need for purpose, a need for value and justification, efficacy needs, and a need for self-worth. Purpose represents a framework in which the bulk of individuals' activities might be represented, with activities pointing toward several related themes (Baumeister & Wilson, 1996). For the purposes of this research, self-worth and efficacy needs are already represented in other needs. To guide the discussion toward family-like characteristics, however, a deeper discussion of values and justifications is warranted.

Core values are said to be powerful guides for individuals, particularly when considering their success in organizational settings (Bart et al., 2001; David & David, 2003; Kilpatrick & Silverman, 2005). Many discussions of values mention the values of

the organization, as well as the mission statements describing why organizations exist (Manohar & Pandit, 2014). To explore how need for meaning might be satisfied in family groups and in workplaces, it would be beneficial to explore both the organizational aspect and the individual aspect. Unfortunately, thousands of values exist at the individual level (Vinson et al., 1977). Despite the differences expected between individual values (Vinson et al., 1977), most values share a moral aspect (Baumeister & Wilson, 1996). While assigning some moral relevance to family-like characteristics may be beneficial in other research projects, no effort will be made to assign such moral relevance in this research. Instead, a more appropriate emphasis is to focus on the justifications that guide a person toward finding meaning.

The principle of justification suggests that a reason exists for something else's existence. For example, people search for reasons for engaging in war (Harmand et al., 1993) or dealing with incurable sicknesses (Taylor, 1983), and those reasons provide a coping mechanism for dealing with the harsh realities of the circumstances. In other words, when people find reasons for their circumstances, they can justify dealing with those circumstances. From an identification point of view, people are more apt to identify with something, or someone, when they understand the reason for something's existence (Tajfel, 1974). Described differently, when people recognize why a thing exists, they are more likely to identify with that thing. Without justification for something, people are left to guesses and assumption. To meet individuals' needs for meaning then, those individuals must be given some justification for their situations. Family groups and organizations seem uniquely positioned to offer such justifications.

To consider how primary groups offer justifications to individuals, it helps to consider justification as a fundamental need for communication (Calabrese, 2017). In other words, justifications should be communicated to individuals. Showing individuals the significance of their activities, rather than assuming that significance is understand, helps justify individuals reason for existence (Steger et al., 2008). When families communicate appreciation for a child's existence, such communication satisfies the child's need for meaning (Soenens et al., 2017), which can have a significant effect on the psychological development for the child (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In the workplace, meaning has been attached directly to employees' empowerment (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). When working individuals believe they are empowered to exercise creativity in their work, they naturally feel less replaceable and feel more meaningful to their workplace (Laker et al., 2020). Need for meaning can also be satisfied by showing employees the culmination of their organizational efforts (Carroll, 1979). Specifically, employees feel more meaningful when their organization contributes to societal issues (Matten & Crane, 2005). Thus, family groups and workplaces certainly appear capable of satisfying individuals' needs for meaning.

The purpose of the previous overview of individual needs was to convey, in general, how most individuals' psychological needs are met. Since most individuals develop expectations for satisfactory methods used to satisfy their needs, and those expectations develop early in life, family groups were selected as a model for meeting needs. In addition to family groups, workplaces were also highlighted as groups capable of meeting psychological needs. Given that people will seek out and identify with sources that satisfy their needs, it helps to consider themes by which most individuals' needs may

be generalized. Vignoles et al. (2006) offered those generalizations. In general, it could be said that families are primary groups responsible for meeting individuals' needs. Said differently, many individuals may assume their needs are met in family-like fashion. However, before discussing what family-like characteristics may look like in organization, it helps to discuss why the needs discussed previously might be used to develop expectations for family-like characteristics. In short, it would be helpful to discuss why organizations may be capable of reflecting family-like characteristics. Such a discussion requires a solid theoretical foundation, which will be built in the following section of this manuscript.

2.2 Why are family-like characteristics expected?

The previous section discussed how family groups and workplaces meet individuals' needs. This section explains why the meeting of individuals' needs may be interpreted as family-like, and also outlines theoretical support for the expectation of organization's ability to reflect family-like characteristics. This will be done by discussing family systems theory and social identity theory. On the one hand, family systems theory has been used to model family-like concepts within organizations. On the other hand, social identity theory justifies individuals' attraction to certain groups. In short, the theories suggest certain organizations may reflect characteristics perceived by individuals as family-like.

2.2.1 Family Systems Theory

In the 1950s, family therapists recognized the systematic nature of treating individual issues (Bavelas & Segal, 1982). Before that recognition, issues like schizophrenia or psychopathic disorders had been addressed on an individual level, with treatment targeting the human mind. Systems theory (Bertalanffy & Woodger, 1938; Buckley, 1967) prompted scholars to investigate surrounding causes that might influence effects. The theoretical motive encouraged scientists to look for patterns of organization between effects (Von Bertalanffy, 1972). The identified patterns helped therapists understand how individual issues might be affected by systematic motivators. The result was therapists realized the futility of treating the human mind of individuals for some disorders because those treatments would not be effective if the system in which the human was located went untreated. In other words, the treatments were less effective when targeting specific issues and were more effective when the systematic nature was considered.

Though family systems theory is rooted in therapeutical sciences, it has explanatory power for behaviors within family firms. Lumpkin et al. (2008) used the theory to generate their conceptual dimensions of what they call *family orientation*, and underlying principles of the theory can be seen in similar measures (Doherty & Colangelo, 1984; King et al., 1995). While many discussions of family firms include succession plans (Barnett et al., 2012; Jaskiewicz et al., 2016), power dynamics (Madison et al., 2017; Schickinger et al., 2021; Zellweger et al., 2018), and work-life balance (Helmle et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2015; Leung et al., 2020), systems perspectives are not necessarily a component of those discussions. Instead, many common topics (i.e.

procedural justice, ownership, satisfaction, performance) were investigated. Since this

research seeks to understand more about family-like characteristics in organizations, it

seems prudent to adopt the theory's justification for aggregating concepts. Because the

theory encourages researchers to analyze systematic issues instead of individual issues,

applying the theory to this investigation seems to be intuitive. Consequently, family

systems theory is used to justify aggregating common individual-needs to the

organizational level.

2.2.2 Social Identity Theory

Social identity theory (Tajfel, 1974) outlines a categorization process whereby

individuals create their place in society. As individuals interact with societal groups,

those individuals generate perceptions of their place in society (Berger, 1966). In short,

individuals find their place in society by becoming what society implied they should

become. Such implications stem from contextual information that encourages, and

sometimes discourages, certain behaviors and attitudes. Those informational exchanges,

though more complex than initially thought (Tajfel, 1974), simply lead individuals to

calculate appropriate and inappropriate behaviors and attitudes. Once calculations have

occurred, individuals develop a sense of order for their different group categories.

Consequently, individuals likely categorize themselves into certain groups because those

groups welcomed such categorizations.

Because of the implicit nature with which social identity operates, it is important

to define what constitutes a *group*. Groups reflect the different categories with which

individuals might identify (Tajfel, 1974). A closer look at those categories uncovers a

process whereby individuals identify with a group because the context warrants such identification (Tajfel, 1981). For example, Johnson et al. (2006) found that veterinarians identified more with their organization when they were owners of the organizations than veterinarians who did not have ownership in their organization. Similarly, in organizations, founders normally behave the way they think society expects founders to behave, presumably because the founders want society to think of them as a founder (Whetten & Mackey, 2002). On the one hand, the founders and veterinarians led normal lives and engaged in common activities. On the other hand, when given a specific context with which to identify, those professionals altered their activities. In short, individuals categorize their identity based on the groups within their environment. One of the ways groups are defined, therefore, is by the categorical representations individuals use to order their identities.

In addition to the contextual factors, the potential for identification with groups also requires some level of interest in the group (Tajfel, 1981). In other words, individuals identify with groups when the groups have the capacity to meet needs that are of interest to the individual. Such needs are reflective of deeply held value systems constructed early in life (Tajfel, 1981) and those values, in general, perpetuate themselves through enduring cultural systems (Inglehart & Baker, 2000). In short, individuals develop identities toward groups that reflect the potential for meeting important needs of the individual. The potential to meet important needs serves as interest for individuals, therefore, attracting those individuals to identify with the group.

Family systems and social identity theories provide a solid foundation for this research. Although organizational identity (Albert & Whetten, 1985) seems intuitive for

studying individuals' attraction to organizations, it may be less helpful for exploring

initial characteristics of family-like workplaces. In general, organizational identity

branches into two concepts (Whetten & Mackey, 2002). Those branches are (1) identity

in organizations, which is comprised of organizational participants' shared perceptions of

the organization (Hogg & Terry, 2014) and (2) identity *of* organizations, which implies

organizations have the right and ability to act as a social individual (Coleman, 1974;

Czarniawska, 1997). The second branch, though certainly influential for research on

social responsibilities, does not appear helpful for outlining foundational characteristics

of a family-like environment. Because the first branch emphasizes the shared perceptions

of organizational participants, and the sample for this research does not include multiple

participants from the same organization, it seemed unwise to use organizational identity

theory for this exploratory research. Once more is understood about family-like

characteristics in the workplace, organizational identity theory seems quite useful in

predicting how those characteristics may have a collective effect on the individuals

within the organization. For this research, social identity theory supports the expectation

for individuals to perceive certain characteristics within organizations as family-like, and

family systems theory justifies the attempt to aggregate certain needs into expected

themes representative of those family-like characteristics.

2.3 Can workplaces reflect family-like characteristics?

In general, organizations reflect characteristics. Those characteristics' existence

can be evidenced, for example, by observing how organizations can change their

environments. Organizations do, in fact, change their environments (Dutton & Dukerich,

1991) and those changes are supposedly brought about because individuals sensed a need

for change (Meyer, 1982). As organizations displayed the ability to address and meet

those needs, individuals found it reasonable to identify with those organizations (Albert

& Whetten, 1985; Ashforth & Mael, 1989). In short, changes occurred because

individuals believed certain characteristics might bring about change. Given the current

aim of this research is to investigate family-like characteristics of workplaces, it seems

intuitive to look first at family firms. In fact, several scholars have discussed

characteristics of family firms and other scholars have designed tools to measure those

characteristics. To get a more informed perspective of potential characteristics of family-

like workplaces, it seems intuitive to consider family firms themselves. The next sections

offer an overview of previous research efforts pointed toward family firms. This

overview will include a look at characteristics of family firms as well as a glimpse toward

measurements of certain concepts within family firms.

2.3.1 Characteristics of Family Firms

Since the purpose of this research is to investigate family-like characteristics of

the workplace, it seems natural to look at a place where family and workplaces merge—a

family firm. Family firms have been described as an object to pass on to succeeding

generations (Ward, 2016), wide-ranging companies (Handler, 1989), and complicated

organizations (Litz, 1995). While the ambiguity surrounding these terms offers little

guidance for understanding characteristics of the firm itself, it does suggest there is space

to simplify some of those ambiguities. Unfortunately, simplification efforts seem

daunting because the composition of both families and firms is different than what it used

to be (Aldrich et al., 2021). To reduce the daunting nature of such endeavors, it may be helpful to consider family-like characteristics in continuum fashion, as opposed to binary categories. In short, characteristics considered more or less family-like may be better representations of workplaces than describing characteristics with either-or definitions. Said differently, workplaces may reflect different levels of certain characteristics. If so, binary descriptions of those characteristics would likely be incomplete explanations of the phenomena occurring in workplaces. This continuum idea is not new, particularly in the family-firm context. Lumpkin and colleagues (2008) proposed the idea of *family orientation,* which suggests a space exists for firms to be more or less family oriented. The next section explains their work and its relation to this research.

Lumpkin et al. (2008) proposed theoretical conceptualizations of family-orientation (FO) and described the concept several ways. For example, they defined FO as "the values and involvement of individual family members in a family business" (p. 128), a window "into issues of intention, involvement, and vision by addressing how individual perceptions of family affect family business processes and outcomes" (p. 128), and a concept "intended to reflect the ways individuals perceive, relate to, and value family" (p. 130). The differences in these explanations do little to simplify the ambiguities described in the initial portion of this section. Simplification does, however, seem plausible as Lumpkin et al. (2008) suggested FO was present in all individuals, not just individuals connected to family firms. This admission, coupled with the social nature of the FO definitions listed above, creates a foundation on which family-like characteristics might be described. The following section connects FO with the theoretical support of this research.

Lumpkin et al. (2008) admit they leaned heavily on Reiss (1981) when they assumed families were unique groups. In fact, it was assumed that the most important criteria for family membership was not a legal or biological issue, but rather Lumpkin et al. (2008) suggest the primary concern for families was an emotional concept. On the one hand, the values stemming from family groups create "family paradigms" (Reiss, 1981), which help individuals process expectations. On the other hand, Lumpkin et al. (2008) argue for the presence of FO in all individuals, regardless of their connection to business or families. In short, what is considered *family-like* may stem more from individuals emotional or psychological roots. If this is true, it could be assumed that individuals may use family paradigms to evaluate opportunities to satisfy their psychological needs. Said differently, individuals may apply the constructs from their family groups to their expectations for other groups. In a similar vein then, it appears as if patterns exist between Lumpkin et al.'s (2008) FO list and Vignoles et al.'s (2006) list of individuals needs. With the theoretical justification of social identity theory, both lists are compared (Table 1) and used to justify characteristics that may be described as family-like characteristics.

In their conceptual work on FO, Lumpkin and colleagues (2008) proposed five dimensions representing how family members affect a business. They suggested individuals with high levels of FO might rely more on "family-centric resources" for doing their work (p. 134). To the extent that most people rely heavily on value systems created early in life (Tajfel, 1981), and those values in general perpetuate themselves through enduring cultural systems (Inglehart & Baker, 2000), it seems reasonable to assume most people will identify with family related values as they progress into their

adult lives. Lumpkin et al.'s (2008) five dimensions (i.e. tradition, stability, loyalty, trust, interdependence) presumably explain how individuals affect the firm. They also seem to be reflective of how individuals might exert their family-related resources in a meaningful way. Those dimensions are briefly discussed next.

Table 1. Comparison of individual needs and conceptual dimensions of family orientation

Identity Needs (Vignoles et al., 2006)		Family Orientation (Lumpkin et al., 2008)	
Need	**Definition**	**Dimension**	**Definition**
Self-Esteem	refers to the motivation to maintain and enhance a positive conception of oneself	**Tradition**	includes recognition of a shared history and the practices that serve to connect family members to one another
Continuity	refers to the motivation to maintain a sense of continuity across time and situation	**Stability**	refers to the sense of permanence that families provide
Distinctiveness	pushes toward the establishment and maintenance of a sense of differentiation from others	**Loyalty**	refers to the sense of commitment and duty that individuals with a strong family orientation are likely to experience
Belongingness	refers to the need to maintain or enhance feelings of closeness to, or acceptance by, other people, whether in dyadic relationships or within in-groups	**Trust**	reflects a willingness to fulfill expectations, share confidences, support one another, and operate within systems of perceived fairness
Efficacy	oriented toward maintaining and enhancing feelings of competence and control	**Interdependency**	built on a foundation of emotional ties that lead to familial closeness, refers to the extent to which family members want to rely on and support one another
Meaning	refers to the need to find significance or purpose in one's own existence		

The five dimensions of FO suggest individuals' perceptions will affect their influence on the family firm (Lumpkin et al., 2008). *Tradition* encompasses cultural aspects of the firm, and predominantly explains why historical aspects of the firm are still considered to be influential. Included in this dimension are important concepts like rituals and routines that clarify what needs to be done and why it needs to be done a certain way (Fiese et al., 2002). *Stability* emerges from the presence of compelling traditions. Stated differently, since people gravitate toward stable situations (Friedman, 1986), they likely use traditions to steer clear of conflicts and other disruptions that likely affect one's stability. The stability dimension also reflects a sense of permanence or homeostasis used to project an enduring aspect of families (Lumpkin et al., 2008). *Loyalty* describes individuals' commitment to the sustained traditions and stability of the family. In short, loyalty reflects the obligatory nature of individuals' willingness to continue following guidelines prescribed by the family. Higher levels of *trust* are often the result of such loyal commitments. Despite conflicts and crises, individuals that remain loyal to their family earn the trust of those family members (Bowen, 1981). *Interdependency* stems from the trust earned. Such dependency implies that individuals recognize opportunity to be supported by a family member, and that they also rely on that support (Lumpkin et al., 2008). Together, these five dimensions affect how individuals decide to engage with the family firm.

This research builds on one of Lumpkin et al.'s (2008) guiding assumptions. They believed more understanding about individuals' values equipped the firm to reflect those values and predict individuals' involvement in the family firm. If this assumption is true, individuals should be more likely to involve themselves in the firm when the firm reflects

what is valuable to the individual. Recent findings support this assumption (Elsbach & Pieper, 2019), suggesting that a promising path toward a measurable framework of FO includes identity-related components. Before such a measure can be constructed, however, more understanding is required of family-like characteristics. To develop such understanding, it is assumed that individuals are likely to value the elements they believe help satisfy the psychological needs which play a role in developing or maintaining positive identities. In short, psychological needs and FO are blended to develop characteristics assumed to be family-like. Those characteristics are explained below.

2.3.2 Family-Like Characteristics

Because the selected psychological needs motivate individuals to identify with family firms (Elsbach & Pieper, 2019), and because the psychological needs have significant overlap with family orientation, it appears as if firms—family or not—may reflect certain characteristics. Those characteristics are grouped into continuum-like dimensions. The dimensions, therefore, appear to represent the extent to which certain needs are and are not met. Those dimensions are inclusivity, support, relatedness, and continuance, which are illustrated in Table 2. The following sections describe those dimensions. Also included is an explanation of how those characteristics might occur in the workplace, described in this research as family reflections. In short, family reflections highlight occurrences when a family-like characteristic exemplifies itself. In other words, a reflection of something deemed family-like is observed. This could be done when an individual experiences the satisfaction of a felt need. Or the opposite may occur. Family reflections may occur when an individual's felt need goes unmet, and therefore,

dissatisfaction is experienced. In short, family reflections represent the organic process whereby family-like characteristics are illuminated. Together, those characteristics represent how firms' reflection of family-like characteristics might meet employees' identity-related psychological needs.

Table 2. Expected family-like characteristics and their definitions, theoretical support, and reflections

Characteristics	Definition	Theoretical Support	Family Reflections
Inclusivity	Combined effect of efforts directed at establishing personal identity and distinction	Family Systems Theory/Social Identity Theory	Celebrating milestones, Encouraging nonwork-related activities
Support	Efforts intended to facilitate continued development of identities and distinctions	Career Development Theories/ Family Systems Theory	Encourage work-life integration & flexibility, Support upskill, Guide through personal crises
Relatedness	Ability to earn favor in the community and establish purposeful work	Family Systems Theory/Social Identity Theory	Encourage involvement in community-related work, avoid obligatory engagements
Continuance	Perceived intent to continue relations, even if problems occur	Agency Theory, Family Systems Theory	Healthy conflict encouraged, Expect relatively unending work arrangement

2.3.2.1 Inclusivity.

Inclusivity includes foundational aspects known to precede other important family-related characteristics (Danes et al., 2002). Inclusion represents a person's

perceptions of their structural connection with something else. Without that structural connection, people are prone to become disconnected. The disconnection manifests itself in family issues (Danes et al., 2002) as well as in organizational issues (Cohen, 1992). To establish a person's structural connections with something else, two tasks must be accomplished. First, people need to understand the way in which they identify with something (Vignoles et al., 2006). In short, identity helps individuals recognize similarities between them and something or someone else. Second, structural connections are formed as people understand their distinctive characteristics (Vignoles et al., 2006). Distinctive characteristics help people retain diverse perspectives that satisfy a need for distinction. Those two ideas and their connection between organizational literature and family therapy literature are discussed next.

Identity

As individuals form their identity through their psychological connections with something else, the connection satisfies a need for belonging. The need for belonging has long been acknowledged as a foundational motivator for humans (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Maslow, 1943a). Early in life, family units satisfy this need for most people (King et al., 2015). As people get older though, they still crave some form of affiliation, which can be signaled in several ways (Ben-Porath, 1980). For example, Ben-Porath (1980) explains how gifts can signal trust and distrust. When large balances are retained between individuals, trust is signaled. On the other hand, when one individual wants to rid the relationship of obligation, a gift may be given to reduce a balance owed. If that gift is refused, it is often interpreted as a signal of mistrust. In a similar fashion, a psychological connection satisfies a need to belong, which, organizationally speaking, outlines the way

individuals' contributions fit into a bigger picture (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). When organizations intentionally commit effort to make employees feel like they belong, it signals trust. In short, those efforts signal the organization is willing to commit resources toward the employee, which establishes belongingness and wellbeing.

Some organizations have recognized and responded to those signals in different ways. Each represent potential family reflections for family-like characteristics. For example, Hilton Worldwide Holdings Inc.'s career section of their website defines their culture as a place that is "fiercely committed" to providing a "sense of family and belonging for every team member" (Hilton, n.d.). In a similar vein, family firms have a unique ability to leverage positive characteristics (Craig et al., 2008). For instance, customers admitted they were more likely to identify with family firms when the firm touted its familiness, simply because the customers perceived the firms as more trustworthy and stewardly (Carrigan & Buckley, 2008). Conversely, some organizations' identification-related activities created a space where employees over-identified with the firm, losing their personal identities in the process (Conroy et al., 2017). Simply meeting one need at the expense of other needs seems counterproductive. Consequently, firms' efforts to satisfy the need for belongingness must also be balanced by efforts toward retaining personal differences, which are discussed next.

Distinction

Individuals are motivated to retain distinctive characteristics (Vignoles et al., 2006). Distinction has served as a hallmark for predicting customer-oriented behaviors and determining strategic advantages (Day, 1994). Without a clear explanation of what differentiates one product (or service) from competitors' offerings, customers lack the

information required to justify purchasing alternative versions of the product. In a similar vein, if capabilities and resources are not distinctly different from competitors' resources or capabilities, firms never achieve competitive advantages (Peteraf, 1993). On a personal level, therefore, individuals need to understand what makes them different from others. In fact, following Ben-Porath's (1980) signaling logic, an organization's intentional efforts to help employees understand and retain their distinctive features likely signals a welcoming space for employees. Said differently, employees likely interpret those efforts as opportunity to satisfy belonging needs, despite their distinctive features.

Inclusivity need not be viewed as the presence of competing concepts, but rather as a complementary combination of both concepts. At first the complementary nature may seem contradictory. In family units, however, succeeding generations commonly adopt the preceding generations' perspectives. Family therapy research indicates stronger family units encourage younger generations to pursue their own interests. Essentially, distinctions build on a person's identity by delineating their dissimilar features such that the person recognizes the value of those distinctions. Thus, inclusivity efforts include both identity-forming and distinction-retaining activities.

Together, the previous concepts represent inclusivity, which this research suggests may be dubbed a family-like characteristic. For this research, inclusivity is defined as the combined effect of efforts directed toward facilitating personal identities and retaining personal distinctions. In line with an orientation-like continuum, inclusivity represents a space where firms may be more or less inclusive. Family reflections of inclusivity may include, but are certainly not limited to, occurrences such as celebrating employee milestones (e.g. birthdays, anniversaries, achievements) and encouraging

employees to engage in nonwork-related activities. Thus, inclusive firms will engage in efforts that satisfy individuals' needs of both belongingness and distinctiveness.

2.3.2.2 Support.

Supportive efforts may be expended as employees continually pursue their identities and distinctions. Darwinian perspectives suggest that, if successes are to be enjoyed, the dynamic nature of society and organizational life must be met with certain adaptations. In short, certain adaptations precede success. It would seem intuitive then, that individuals motivated by success will naturally work through adaptations. On the one hand, some individuals complain to coworkers when their organization requires certain work-related adaptations (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008). On the other hand, those negative feelings dissipate when recognizable figures in the organization engage positively with employees, which generally leads to employees' longer tenure with that organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986; 2002). In other words, the adaptations are not the problem. Rather, the way individuals are expected to adapt may be problematic. Therefore, the support individuals receive as they continually develop their identities and distinctions may serve as an important characteristic of family-like workplaces.

Adaptations are a normal occurrence. In fact, Maslow (1943b) practically *insisted* that individuals' needs would evolve. Obvious points of reference exist in family units. As succeeding generations develop, many individuals progress through K-12 education, develop social skills, and move from one city to another. Parental guidance and support during those adaptations significantly affect adolescents' job pursuits and career aspirations (Fouad et al., 2010). Unfortunately, it is unrealistic to isolate specific times or methods to provide the support required during those adaptations. In fact, the spontaneity

of interactions—not the programmed or forced intimacy—has a much stronger effect for those family members (Wynne & Wynne, 1986). Such spontaneity surrounding supportive behavior complicates how people might perceive support, which may be less complicated by leaning on family therapy literature. From the family therapy perspective, support includes emotional sustenance and instrumental assistance (King et al., 1995). Emotional sustenance satisfies needs for encouragement and attention, whereas instrumental assistance relieves stressors such as scheduling conflicts and household chores. From the organizational viewpoint, support describes employees' "global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 501). In short, individuals need support as they work through required changes in life. Meeting the need then may be described as a family-like characteristic. To help understand how the characteristic might reflect itself, the following paragraph outlines a few ways the family reflection might be seen.

Similar to inclusivity, family reflections of support are possible as well. When employees need flexibility because of issues unrelated to work, they may perceive certain actions as supportive. For example, intentional effort to create a space where those needs can be communicated has already been associated with family environments (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007). Similarly, King et al. (1995) found that individuals appreciate discussing work matters at home. If people, while at home, feel supported when asked to discuss work, it seems entirely possible for them to appreciate discussing home when they are at work. Additionally, given the space to upskill themselves, individuals are more likely to feel supported by their organization (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Individuals feel satisfied when they experience progress. While opportunities to support employees

may exist any number of ways, family reflections may be evidenced by supporting continued education, facilitating flexible work schedules, or offering assistance during personal crises.

In short, firms might support employees by taking supportive actions aimed to assist workers on and off the job. Supportive guidance through normal adaptions may include opportunities to enhance one's conception of themselves. Additionally, supportive efforts might include providing employees the control required to enhance feelings of competence over their work or schedules. Together, the emotional and instrumental assistance helps satisfy key psychological needs. Because support has been operationalized similarly in family studies and in business studies, it seems appropriate to assume that a similar phenomenon is occurring. It is reasonable to assume, therefore, that employees may perceive supportive signals as family-like.

2.3.2.3 Relatedness.

To the extent which people feel some relatedness to something, they generally also feel like their belongingness and meaning needs are satisfied (Vignoles et al., 2006). The relatedness concept overlaps Lumpkin et al.'s (2008) original conceptualization of interdependency. Together, belongingness and meaning suggest individuals crave a form of association with someone or something they believe is significant (Vignoles et al., 2008). In other words, they want to belong to something bigger than themselves. As for the interdependency component, it was originally explained as the "extent to which family members want to rely on and support one another" (Lumpkin et al., 2008, p. 133). While this idea may seem redundant with the previously discussed concept, support assesses the extent to which individuals believe they receive the support they need. For

this research, interdependency emphasizes the *willingness* to offer such support (Lumpkin et al., 2008). In other words, individuals are opposed to the obligatory or begrudging offering of support (Lumpkin et al., 2008). Relatedness, therefore, is conceptualized as the way firms willingly satisfy individuals' needs to associate with something influential.

Such associations may be accessible in a number of ways. On the one hand, family business literature accounts for social capital, assigning objective value to the family status (Danes et al., 2009; Zellweger et al., 2018). Status may reflect certain socioeconomic benefits employees receive when they identify with a firm. On the other hand, despite the objective value mentioned previously, some family members intentionally neglect the community status of the family firm (Schmidts & Shepherd, 2015). The divergent outcomes suggest firms may have different motivation for relatedness. From a social identification perspective (Tajfel, 1974), individuals' perceptions of the firm are likely preceded by firms' intentional effort to behave responsibly within the community (Peterson, 2004). Those responsible behaviors are consistent with Maignan and Ferrell's (2000) definition of corporate citizenship, which outlines the "the extent to which businesses meet the economical, legal, ethical, and discretionary responsibilities imposed on them by their stakeholders" (p. 284). In short, individuals need to feel connected to a purpose beyond their work.

Such purpose can be found by adopting a couple perspectives, which then act as family reflections. Said differently, specific perspectives should reflect the family-like nature of certain firms. For example, citizenship within a community might offer certain benefits if the firm has certain status levels. This perspective would be directly connected

to the branding literature discussed earlier. To the extent which firms may be perceived

by the community as a vital community source, individuals likely assume their

membership at the firm signals their participation in helping the community. On a

different note, family reflections may be signaled when individuals are given the

opportunity to volunteer in meaningful ways. The volunteer perspective encourages

participation in nonprofit work, community programs, or any number of other societal-

related initiatives.

    While beneficial perspectives may promote family reflections of relatedness,

certain family reflections may be less appealing. For example, family dynamics suggest

certain individuals may feel obligated to participate in certain engagements, even when

those engagements do not feel meaningful (Nahamiet & Ghoshal, 1998). This appears to

be the case in family firms (Craig et al., 2008) and in most family groups (Fouad et al.,

2010; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). On the one hand, individuals want to relate themselves

with something bigger than themselves. On the other hand, the obligatory nature of

helping people with whom a person is closely related (biologically or proximally) may

take away from the satisfaction garnered by the efforts expended. In short, positive

family reflections are signaled when opportunity for relatedness is given. Negative family

reflections, however, are signaled when individuals feel obligated to engage in service

opportunities they would not otherwise do. Those feelings of obligation make some

family reflections less appealing than other family reflections.

2.3.2.4 Continuance.

    Continuance represents commitment to temporally related issues. Vignoles et al.,

(2008) described continuity as a fundamental need for individuals, stemming from

individuals' motivation to preserve their current conceptions of themselves (Swann et al., 1987). That is, individuals want to know there is capacity for reliable future calculations of the self (Shrauger, 1975), and most people believe it is to their advantage to foresee future opportunities (Suddendorf & Corballis, 2007). In short, individuals need to know their current self-conceptions are not at risk, and the future landscape warrants continued opportunity for reliable self-calculations. Said differently, the future appears to be free of major disruptions to current self-conceptions. For individuals to assume continuous relations, at least two important concepts should be considered. First, the expected longevity of relations, and second, the commitment during those relations. Both concepts are explored in the following paragraphs because both concepts play important roles for explaining the temporal nature of continuity.

Because individuals expect a space for some foresight, the expected longevity of interactions deserves attention. People anticipate the future realization of their goals differently (Simons et al., 2004). The extent to which to which those goals will be realized is easily captured in terms of distance from present conditions. Thus, assessments can be made whether goals will be realized in the near, or distant, future (Simons et al., 2004). To the extent which the time individuals spend pursuing and achieving goals will likely affect the firm, several important concepts related to time have previously been investigated (Pieper et al., 2020). Long-term orientations, a hallmark of family firms (Le Breton-Miller & Miller, 2006), help family firms develop advantages distinctly different from nonfamily firms (Brigham et al., 2014). However, intentional efforts to sabotage family status (Schmidts & Shepherd, 2015) suggest some family members may not support long-term efforts. That is, some individuals are not willing to

sacrifice short-term benefits despite the potential for long-term welfare. Given the disparity between short-term and long-term perspectives, it is logical to assess the extent to which firms will prioritize the longevity of interactions with individuals.

In addition to the longevity component, individuals also care about the extent to which committed relations continue despite conflicts. In organizational settings, conflict can occur between work and family, or between family and work (Frone et al., 1997). Conflicts also develop when multiple roles (e.g. parent or spouse, employee) present opposing demands (Greenhause & Beutell, 1985). Said differently, conflicts arise when involvement in certain roles is challenged by required involvement in different roles. If individuals need to know continuous relations exist across many situations (Vignoles et al., 2006), and stability refers to a sense of permanence offered by families (Lumpkin et al., 2008), then both explanations directly affect individuals' perspective of conflict. To the extent that conflicts are inevitable, a willingness to endure those conflicts and continue relations seems to be a family-oriented idea. Given such similarities, investigating the extent to which firms might reflect a commitment through conflicting situations (i.e. roles' competing involvement requirements) seems appropriate.

While many discussions of conflict involve some form of support (French et al., 2018), this research explores a different angle, since support is already mentioned elsewhere. Bettineli et al. (2021) noted that most assumptions of conflict are negative. But in certain instances, conflict may be considered beneficial (Kellermanns & Eddleston, 2004). In other words, the presence of conflict is not necessarily problematic. Rather, what matters is *how* the conflict is handled. Björnberg and Nicholson (2007) suggested a specific style of managing conflict, namely family cohesion, existed within

family firms. They describe cohesion as an ability to hold together through difficulties, a "glue' between individuals (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007, p. 232). Thus, cohesion serves as a type of bonding agent, holding together strained relationships (Cabrera-Suárez et al., 2014). Strained relationships may result from generational differences of opinions, economic crises, individual preferences, and even natural disasters. To the extent then that cohesion and conflict likely coexist (Bettineli et al., 2021), family reflections are likely illuminated during the previously mentioned strains. Together, a sense of permanence and enduring commitment represent the continuance characteristic.

The previous discussion outlined characteristics that, together, reflect a family-like space whereby employees' identity-related psychological needs might be met. Those dimensions were inclusivity, support, relatedness, and continuance. Adopting a family systems and social identification approach, the characteristics were conceptualized as a way to satisfy individuals' psychological needs (Vignoles et al., 2006) in a family-oriented fashion (Lumpkin et al., 2008). Each characteristic likely offers a continuum on which firms may be located. Their location depends on whether the firm has more or less of the specified characteristic. Said differently, individuals' perceptions of the family-like nature of their workplace likely includes different levels of each characteristic. Since other efforts have sought to capture similar concepts, it seems appropriate to offer a brief overview of family-related measurements. Though the measurements have different theoretical and practical implications, their findings can inform this research by explaining how certain family-like characteristics may be interpreted. Additionally, understanding more about previous efforts and the potential gaps between those efforts helps frame the value for this research.

2.3.3 Previous Family-Related Measurements

To effectively delineate previous work from this research, the applicability of previous measures needs to be considered. Because each measure has different foundations and methods of validation, the following review will assess the purpose of the original scale and how it was validated. An overview of family-related measurements can be seen in Table 3. In short, the usefulness of each scale is explained and then compared with the goal of this research. Such comparisons should illuminate why more understanding of family-like characteristics is useful.

Family dynamics are an important consideration when assessing individuals' identification processes. Those dynamics shape the pursuits of individuals (Fouad et al., 2010), as evidenced by the Family Influence Scale (FIS). Authors of the FIS found that family expectations, specifically regarding financial and informational support, led individuals to certain professional choices. The FIS was designed to capture more than parental and sibling influences, as authors recognized divergent compositions of contemporary families (Fouad et al., 2010). Specifically, individuals' cultural upbringings influenced their perceptions of the family's obligations and exploratory analysis supported validity of the FIS. Thus, though variations of perceptions likely exist, most individuals have similar expectations of family members. Of particular interest for the current research is the conclusion that someone's family origins can predict the professional needs of individuals (Fouad et al., 2010). Understanding more about why professionals seek work provides guidance about how firms might satisfy workers' needs. While the FIS explains why people selected their work, it does not, however, consider individuals current perceptions of family-like characteristics at their workplace.

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Table 3. Explanation of validated family-related scales

Scale	Purpose	Theoretical Background
FIS (Family Influence Scale, Fouad et al., 2010)	Assess family's influence on career choices.	Career Development Theories
Family Climates (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007)	Assess how family systems influence the firm.	Family/General Systems Theory
F-PEC (Family Influence: Power, Experience, Culture; Klein et al., 2005)	Assess the extent and the quality of family influence on the firm.	Theory-building (theory of the family firm).
APGAR (Adaptation, Partnership, Growth, Affection, Resolve; Smilkstein, 1978)	Assess five areas of family function to determine root of family-problems.	Family Function Paradigm (e.g. the body's organ system)
FIRO (Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation; Danes et al., 2002; Doherty & Colangelo, 1984)	Assess interpersonal needs that explain group development dynamics.	Schutz Theory of Group Development, Family Therapy
FSIW (Family Support Inventory for Workers; King et al., 1995)	Assess workers' perecieved level of social support provided by their family.	Not Specified

While the FIS explained individuals' initial assumptions and expectations, which are helpful in minimizing violations of those expectations, not all problems can be prevented. To the extent that successful solutions to problems can be developed, the root of those problems must first be located. The Family FIRO assessment (Doherty & Colangelo, 1984), which applied Schutz's (1958) theory of fundamental interpersonal

relations orientation to a family context, helps locate problem's roots. The Family FIRO

rested primarily on the suppositions that most interpersonal activities can be predicted by

one's need for inclusion, control, and affection (Doherty & Colangelo, 1984). The

assumption then, is that future interactions between family members stem from these

needs. To properly apply Schutz's (1958) original model to families, Doherty and

Colangelo (1984) extended the *affection* concept to include divergent articulations of

inclusion and intimacy. Similar to Fouad et al.'s (2010) proposed expectation of support,

Doherty and Colangelo (1984) recognized that communicating deeply protected issues—

a reflection of intimacy—might not occur even when people feel comfortable talking

with one another. They concluded that this issue was evidence of the lack of inclusion.

Consequently, inclusion was considered the number one priority when solving

interpersonal conflicts, followed by control and intimacy, in their respective order

(Doherty & Colangelo, 1984). While the conclusions of these scales do help solve

family-related problems, the contributions and motivations of the scales focus primarily

on managing conflicts. Though this research does include conflict management in one of

the family-like characteristics discussed, a broader understanding of family-like

environments is sought. Therefore, simply offering the FIRO to individuals would not

provide the encompassing answers this research seeks.

For more specific understanding of the effects the Family FIRO model may have

for business, Danes et al. (2002) applied the model to family businesses. Similar to

previous findings (Doherty & Colangelo, 1984), results indicated that inclusion preceded

any meaningful outcomes (Danes et al., 2002). Inclusion represents a person's perception

of their structural connection with something else (Doherty et al., 1991). In the family

context, however, inclusion may also represent how a person is simultaneously

disconnected with something (Doherty & Colangelo, 1984). Thus, inclusion helps people

understand how their personal characteristics fit together so similarities *and differences*

offer important boundaries. Such boundaries enable people to recognize their roles and

still retain individual distinctions. This concept mirrors the earlier discussion of

individuals' identity needs, and thus overlaps a portion of the research goals at hand. The

extension of the Family FIRO to business does not, however, explain broader

characteristics such as continuance. Long-term orientations and commitment through

inevitable conflicts were not included. Without those considerations, a more

encompassing approach to family-like characteristics cannot be achieved. That

encompassing approach may be more clear in the following discussion of Smilkstein's

(1978) efforts.

Smilkstein (1978) developed the APGAR tool to primarily investigate issues

within the home. To locate problems with how the family functioned, Smilkstein (1978)

utilized five dimensions and measured levels of adaptability, partnership, growth,

affection, and resolve. To explain why those dimensions were important, Smilkstein

(1978) said:

> "Since family structure and function play a part in understanding and
>
> managing the complaint of the individual patient as well as of the family in
>
> trouble, the following operational definition of family is recommended for
>
> the physician involved in family analysis: *The family is a psychosocial*
>
> *group consisting of the patient and one or more persons, children or adults,*

in which there is a commitment for members to nurture one another." (p.

1232, emphasis retained from original source)

With special attention given to the supportive and committed themes, Smilkstein (1978)

implied that the absence of certain collaborative components is indicative of family

troubles. That is, without a pledge to nurture one another, the structures called "families"

struggle to function properly. Despite the complicated nature of defining a family,

Smilkstein's operationalization of the APGAR can be easily transitioned toward a

business environment. Even though the APGAR is rooted in family psychology and

therapeutical literature, the tool locates root causes for familial issues that mirror

concerns within corporate organizations. For instance, if individuals assume the pledge to

nurture one another is reciprocal, their perceptions of low support or continuance may be

problematic. An example of this recognition may exist when perceptions of obligatory

actions are signaled. While the APGAR discusses such possibilities, it does not connect

those possibilities to the workplace, which is the aim of this research.

More recent attempts to measure family-related concepts include the F-PEC scale

(Klein et al., 2005), which includes quantitative representations of family involvement.

Built to capture "the extent and manner of family involvement in and influence on the

enterprise" (Astrachan et al., 2002, p. 47), the F-PEC scale includes items (e.g.

"percentage of family share ownership" and "what generation is active on the governance

board") that assess founding family members' levels of involvement in the firm. The

work assumes that the presence, or absence, of founding family members will affect the

firm in different ways. Unfortunately, the findings were so different that some

meaningful outcome variables (i.e. performance) are not able to be successfully predicted

(Rutherford et al., 2008). Those discrepancies suggest that founding family members' involvement does not necessarily guarantee certain outcomes. In other words, simply including founding family members in the firms' operations does not answer why family firms behave differently. Though quite useful for comparing family firms and nonfamily firms (Chrisman et al., 2005), which was not necessarily the goal of this research, the F-PEC questions were included as part of this research design. While the questions are less representative of family-like reflections, they may help explain differences in individuals' perceptions of family-like characteristics.

In a slightly different vein, the Family Support Inventory (FSI) primarily assessed different factors in the home that predict workers' success at the firm (King et al., 1995). Basic propositions assumed that family members would affect the way workers performed on the job, which has been supported in several ways. For example, social support, an exceedingly popular topic within organizations (French et al., 2018), was influential in predicting work-life balance in small and medium-sized enterprises (Leung et al., 2020). Moreover, work-life balance, another increasingly popular topic (Hirschi et al., 2019), is affected by situations at home (Michel et al., 2011). Since the firm and the family have consistently been identified as influential factors in peoples' lives (Frone et al., 1992; Michel et al., 2011), the FSI does provide helpful information. As mentioned previously, however, support is only a portion of the more comprehensive phenomena occurring in the workplace. Therefore, the FIS may provide helpful pieces of information in studying support, but it does not include other important family-like characteristics.

In a more specific attempt to investigate the work-life balance within family firms, Björnberg and Nicholson (2007) developed a multilevel tool to assess family

climates. Such climates depict six dimensions (i.e. open communication, adaptability, intergenerational authority, intergenerational attention to needs, emotional cohesion, and cognitive cohesion) that portray the way family members interact with each other in family firms. Several of these climates seem to overlap with the expressed desires of many workers, which serve as a point of interest for this research. By their very nature, climates have been described both as a "set of characteristics that describe an organization" (James & Jones, 1974, p. 1097) and as something reflected by an organization's culture (Denison, 1996). Both descriptions fit the purpose of this research. Therefore, incorporating important aspects of the family climate tool should enrich the previously discussed family reflections by providing the characteristics expected when working inside family firms. The climate scale does not, however, speak to the possibility of family-like characteristics outside the family firm. Similar to the F-PEC, the Björnberg and Nicholson's (2007) climate scale is informative for this study, but it does not offer the encompassing understanding this research seeks.

2.4 Literature Summary

This literature review began with three questions (i.e. (1) What are family-like characteristics? (2) Why are family-like characteristics expected? (3) Can firms reflect family-like characteristics?) and the subsequent paragraphs answered those questions. In short, the literature review sought to explain the following information. First, family-like characteristics are defined as the concepts individuals perceive to be more less family-like. In short, those perceptions develop early in life and models of interpretation are adopted. Second, theoretical underpinnings suggest individuals likely use those models to

assess whether opportunities can satisfy their individual needs. Given the family-related nature of their models, family-related themes likely explain how individuals generally expect their organizations to meet their needs. Third, several previous efforts to capture family-related concepts were discussed. Those efforts, though not as encompassing as the goals of this research, do suggest firms are capable of reflecting certain characteristics that may be more or less family-like.

By combining family therapy and organizational literatures, this research attempts to assess how firms might influence employees' identity-related needs. Regardless of involvement from founding-families, family firms are positioned to influence employees in ways that provide mutually beneficial outcomes. But is entirely possible that nonfamily firms may influence employees similarly. From an economic point of view, it is widely accepted that firms do not survive if organizational performance is not prioritized. On the other hand, organizational performance generally increases when employees are viewed as key stakeholders (de Bussy & Suprawan, 2012). It appears, therefore, as if the needs of one unit may not necessarily be mutually exclusive from other units. In other words, the firm benefits by devoting attention to meeting employees' psychological needs. If more is understood about satisfying those needs, firms and employees will likely enjoy better workplaces. To investigate those needs, this research seeks to develop a foundational framework of family-related characteristics that may represent how workplaces satisfy individuals' needs. The following section explains how the investigation was executed.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

This section explains the methodology used to investigate the aims of this research. Explanations are included for the selected approach, sample, data collection, and data analysis. As an overview, a qualitative approach is used to investigate the research questions. The following dialogue explains specific approaches used to increase transparency and legitimize the findings.

3.1 Approach

The purpose of this research was to explore whether workplaces have family-like characteristics. As previously discussed, what is considered *family-like* by one individual may differ from another's considerations, sometimes only in a limited way and others in which perceptions are quite different. Given these differences and the social nature of the identification processes under investigation, the methodological design can be described as a qualitative and interpretivist architecture.

An interpretivism architecture assumes individuals assign meaning to their experiences, meanings which may not always provide objective representations of the phenomena of interest (Hair et al., 2019). To learn more about those phenomena, a phenomenological approach (Sanders, 1982) was adopted. On the one hand, qualitative investigations have been dubbed by some scholars as a messy, even irresponsible, design (Morgan & Smircich, 1980). On the other hand, appropriate outlines for qualitative processes can lead to explicit and meaningful understandings of individuals' experiences (Morgan & Smircich, 1980; Sanders, 1982). By following more structured outlines,

results from qualitative research can offer new understanding and uphold standards of rigor in research. Following recent guidelines for phenomenological research (Gill, 2014), the next section outlines how family-like characteristics in the workplace were explored.

In general, most phenomenological research designs adopt one of two perspectives (Gill, 2014). First, designs are inspired by Husserl's (1973, 2012) descriptive techniques aimed at describing "the essence of experiences" (Gill, 2014, p. 119). Second, more interpretative methodologies stem from Heidegger's (1996) approach, which assumes research cannot be done apart from interpretation (Gill, 2014). Since the nature of this research included exploring the family-like characteristics individuals experience in the workplace, a more descriptive technique was selected.

To facilitate meaningful profiles and descriptions that could be assigned to categories, data obtained from participants and assumptions about data were grounded in theoretical support. While most grounded theory approaches adopt inductive techniques (Martin & Turner, 1986), sufficient empirical and theoretical support existed to warrant tentative expectations for the investigation. In sum, the expectations were generated by existing theory and then applied to facilitate interpretation and description of the data. While more explanation for data analysis is described in subsequent sections, for this research a blended approach was adopted. That is, following established guidelines (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006), a hybrid approach which blended inductive and deductive techniques was adopted. Fereday and Muir-Cochrane (2006) recommend using pre-established codebooks, formulated with expectations stemming from the literature

review, to reflexively interact with codes emerging from the data. Those recommendations were adopted for this research design.

3.2 Sample

Similar to most qualitative research (Alsaawi, 2014), the objective of this research was to gain more understanding about specific phenomenon, not provide broad generalizations. Given these aims, the best for selecting participants for this research was to assess their interest in sharing their ideas, considered by social sciences scholars to be better than randomly selecting uninterested participants (Alsaawi, 2014). In other words, potential participants, known by or connected to the researcher or identified by recognized family business scholars, were approached with lead-ins regarding the purpose of the study (approved by the IRB and available in Appendix A). To ensure broad perspectives were represented, a maximum variation approach was selected. Maximum variation as defined by qualitative research scholars means participants with substantially different perspectives on critical dimensions for the research were recruited (Guest et al., 2006; Suri, 2011). Therefore, the researcher recruited participants who were (a) known to be connected with family firms, or (b) known to have previously described their workplaces with family-like descriptions.

As is the case with most qualitative research, sample size is an important and essential consideration. In quantitative empirical research, several invaluable tools help researchers predetermine power and effect sizes. For qualitative research, however, there is no magic number whereby sufficiency of analysis can be predetermined (Alsaawi, 2014). In fact, if recommendations for sample sizes in qualitative research were expected

to mirror quantitative studies, the nature of analyzing hundreds of qualitative interviews and focus groups would likely discourage any researcher from attempting such feats. Instead, qualitative researchers are encouraged to deeply analyze smaller samples instead of superficially polling large groups of people (Bondas & Hall, 2007; Jones, 2004). On the one hand, samples might simply include one case for analysis. On the other hand, an endless number of individuals could be recruited. To balance out the exchange of quality for quantity, the following description outlines the targeted sample size in this research.

Phenomenological approaches, a derivative of which was adopted in this research, offer three main expectations for determining sample sizes (Gentles et al., 2015). Sample size can be determined a priori, in response to ongoing collection of data, or a combination of both. In phenomenological studies specifically, researchers have been encouraged to plan to interview anywhere from ten to thirty participants (Cohen et al., 2000). With this as a guiding rationale, a total of ten interviews were targeted for this exploratory research.

3.3 Data Collection

Since the objective of this research is to explore phenomena in the workplace, data were collected from individuals in the workplace. Given there are no magic formulas, classifications, or standardized verbiage for describing qualitative research (Pratt, 2009), the following guidelines are provided with the intent to convey transparency of the data collection process in this research. In general, interviews are considered a primary source of collecting qualitative data (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). Given the aim of the research is to learn more about workplace characteristics,

particularly those considered family owned or philosophically managed, but not necessarily limited to family type businesses, individuals in the workplace in general were interviewed. The interviews provided individuals a space to describe their experiences, as well as interpret their perspective of those experiences that would not have been possible if structured surveys had been the method of data collection. Although case studies represent a common method whereby family-firm data are collected (De Massis & Kotlar, 2014), much of the literature for this research suggested the characteristics of interest may exist in nonfamily owned firms. Therefore, case studies were not considered the best approach for the exploratory nature of this research.

In contrast to quantitative research, qualitative research adopts a sense of reflexivity (Bluhm et al., 2011). That is, researchers may pivot in other directions when their findings imply differences with the original intent of a proposed research design. Since the purpose of this research was exploratory in nature, pivots were not expected but were not totally dismissed. Therefore, collected data focused on informing future research. In short, the data were collected primarily to inform future work, and not to confirm pre-existing hypotheses.

Qualitative research typically is grouped into one of two categories. On the one hand, a generalized-to-specific technique (i.e. deductive) helps ensure academic rigor through testing hypotheses grounded in theory (Bitektine, 2008). On the other hand, Locke (2007) characterized most deductive approaches as "premature theorizing" (p. 867) that "retard the progress of science" (p. 868). In short, neither approach seemed *best* in its own right. Rather, the reflexive nature of qualitative research (Bluhm et al., 2011) suggests blending the strengths from both approaches. Such blending, however, should

not be arbitrary. Therefore, this research design was modeled after a hybrid approach (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006) used to blend the inductive and deductive approaches. This hybrid design will be explained more deeply in the subsequent section.

When developing qualitative research designs, scholars have been encouraged to borrow successful tactics from other scholars (Pratt, 2009). During his investigation of social entrepreneurship, Roundy (2014) found participants engaged in deeper and more rich conversations when the researcher selected more personal tactics of communication (e.g. in-person vs. phone calls). For this reason, video calls (i.e. Zoom) were used to reduce the "distance" between participants and the researcher. Video calls were the most suitable option, as in-person interviews were not realistic given the geographic distance between participants and the researcher, as well as potential health hazards and regulations imposed due to a global pandemic.

To ensure participants fully understood their rights, each participant electronically signed the information/consent form (available for reference in Appendix A). Before recording the interview, the researcher verbally confirmed participants' awareness for recording the interview. Following recommended practices (Bluhm et al., 2011; McIntosh & Morse, 2015), semi-structured interviews were used, and the list of questions used for those interviews can be found in Appendix A. Some of the questions were written for this specific research, whereas a few of the questions came from Klein et al.'s (2005) F-PEC scale. Klein et al. (2005) measure what they call *familiness* as composed of power, experience, and culture. Since a portion of the sample were employed in family firms, these questions were asked to assess different levels of familiness. While it was expected that individuals will experience family-like characteristics in many types of

firms, whether family owned or not, similar to Lumpkin et al.'s (2008) idea of FO,

familiness may predict family-like characteristics. Therefore, the F-PEC questions were

added to the list of interview questions, and participants signed a consent form agreeing

to answer those questions if they could do so.

As is common with semi-structured interviews (Mann, 2011), the researcher

asked the same questions to each participant and then probed with additional related

questions when appropriate. Following the recorded interviews, audio recordings were

transcribed. After transcription, documents were saved in password-protected storage to

protect participants' confidentiality, and recorded audio files were destroyed. The entire

interview with each individual was saved in a secure electronic file. To more accurately

compare data, new files were created which included participants' answers to specific

questions. A separate folder was developed for each question and all participants'

responses to that specific question were included in the folder. The folders with responses

to individual questions were the primary source of data. In the following section, analyses

of the data will be explained.

3.4 Data Analysis

The data were analyzed by following the stages recommended by Fereday and

Muir-Cochrane (2006) for hybrid approaches (i.e. inductive and deductive) to qualitative

data analysis. Those stages are: (1) develop a code manual, (2) test the reliability of

codes, (3) summarize data and identify initial themes, (4) apply template of codes and

additional coding, (5) connect codes and identify themes, and (6) corroborate and

legitimize coded themes. The first and second stages were completed following the

literature review, and the code manual, described in Table 2, is available for reference in the literature review.

To complete stages three, four, and five, the ATLAS.ti software was used. ATLAS.ti software provides web-based and application-based services. Web-based services were less costly, as they require monthly leases of the software licensing instead of purchasing an entire package. Application-based services operate without internet access and offer better storage options as well, both of which were attractive features for a large project such as this one. Since the web-based services offered fewer capabilities than the application-based services, the application-based services were used for this research. The ATLAS software provides space whereby researchers can easily and intuitively code qualitative data. Rather than impose pre-determined codes upon the data, a thematic approach was used.

Thematic analysis involves assigning a name to themes observed in the data (Daly et al., 1997), and the researcher must intently analyze participants' descriptions to uncover those themes (Rice & Ezzy, 1999). Thus, the coding began by investigating themes, which were generally coded as family-like environments and family-like characteristics. ATLAS.ti made this process much easier, as it offered highlighting and grouping of similar concepts. The software also retains group totals and counts the number of times selected descriptions are used. This tool was especially useful for the current research, as the aim of the research was to explore whether certain characteristics are present within a workplace. As characteristics were coded, descriptions of the characteristics could be explored across participants' answers, which helped generate understanding of those characteristics.

Finally, stage six consisted of comparing the coded data with the code manual devised in the early stages of the research. Figure 2 from the literature review is used to corroborate the legitimacy of findings in the data. Participants were asked to explain examples of events or situations they believed constituted family reflections. Their explanations were explored and organized to categorize answers. Some answers were exactly as the codebook predicted. Other answers were similar but somewhat different, and in those cases, justification was provided for adapting the characteristic. Further explanation of the findings can be found in the following section.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

The primary purpose of this research was to answer the following question: What characteristics give workplaces a family-like atmosphere? To answer this question, data were obtained through interviews with eleven individuals, which is one more interview than anticipated, per the previously mentioned methodological design recommendations (Cohen et al., 2000). Table 4 includes general demographic information of the participants.

Table 4. Descriptive information of the sample participants

Participant ID	Gender	Age	Work Assignment	Avg. Weekly Hours	Tenure	Current Title	Tenure w/Title	Industry
1	Male	22	Home Only	47	15mo	Business Development Representative	10mo	Technology
2	Female	23	Hybrid	40	10mo	Asst. Real Estate Manager	10mo	Real Estate
3	Female	24	Hybrid	45-50	18mo	Audit Staff	18mo	Accounting
4	Female	33	Office Only	60	5yrs	General Manager	16mo	Hospitality
5	Female	24	Hybrid	40	18mo	Human Performance Research Coordinator	8mo	Technology
6	Female	23	Office Only	40	2 years	Marketing Director/Legal Assistant	5mo, 2 years (respectively)	Legal
7	Male	30	Hybrid	40-55	3 years	Revenue Manager	1 year	Hospitality
8	Male	46	Hybrid	50	28 years	Vice president	10 years	Manufacturing
9	Female	38	Office Only	35-40	13.5 years	Attorney	13.5 years	Legal
10	Male	83	Office Only	30	20 years	Salesperson	16 years	Retail
11	Male	38	Hybrid	50	2yrs 10 mo	Controller	2yrs 10 mo	Accounting

The following paragraphs include three major sections. First, stage six of the hybrid approach (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006) outlines the thematic nature of family-like characteristics. Second, reflections of the family-like characteristic are discussed. Participants described specific instances they believed signaled something they

interpreted as family-like. Those instances are synthesized and described as family reflections. Third, data were separated based on the family influence characteristic of their firm. Participants were from both family and nonfamily firms. Discussing the perceived family influence of the firm should inform future research focused on family-like characteristics.

4.1 Codebook Corroboration

As mentioned previously, a codebook (Table 2) was developed for corroborating the codes used to categorize data. The data show thematic groups found in participants' explanation of family-like characteristics. Given the reflexive nature of the hybrid approach adopted analyze data, corroboration included examining data through the lens of the codebook as well as looking at the codebook through the lens of the data. On the one hand, the codebook offered a framework to categorize participants' descriptions. On the other hand, some data could not be easily categorized by the codebook's definitions. As a result, the corroboration process identified some inconsistencies between the data and the codebook. When inconsistencies emerged, the outcome favored the participants' descriptions. In other words, when definitional inconsistencies arose, participants' explanations of family reflections were used to interpret how the characteristic might be best categorized. In a few instances, explanations indicated definitions of previously articulated characteristics needed to be adapted. Given the need for those adaptations, the summary portion of the results section offers an improved table of family-like characteristics. The following sections explain the results of the corroborated data.

4.1.1 Inclusivity

Inclusivity was previously defined as the combined effect of efforts directed at establishing personal identity and retaining distinctions. The literature review indicated inclusivity could also be described as providing a sense of belonging. When participants' dialogue suggested distinctions, used identity-related verbiage, or simply used a base form, or derivations, of *inclusivity* or *belonging,* those data were coded to belong with the inclusivity characteristic. A few examples of data coded as such are available below:

> (Participant 7) "When I think of my team as my family, I think of the closeness.

> (Participant 1) "There has to be, I guess, a sense of belonging in [the] organization."

> (Participant 3) "…being able to talk to anybody in the firm is very important. To be able to like…an open-door policy is always good I feel like. And just knowing that the people at the top actually do care about their employees, that's important."

Some spots were not quite as simple to categorize. For example, Participant 11 said "[boss] understood that people are important." Given the context, Participant 11 was describing what other organizations could do to become more family-like, and the quote above was a comparison to an organization deemed family-like by Participant 11. Although nothing specific about the quote fit the definition for *inclusivity,* the context of dialogue yielded more interpretability. To support the brief quote above, Participant 11 said the following:

> "I think, companies need to define—we talked about needing to define the win right—what are companies trying to do? And I think that provides a lot of clarity to the organization if companies can very precisely define, hey here's how…here's what winning is and here's how we're going to do it…And so I think, from a business perspective, that provides lot of transparency and clarity. From a people side, I think that rallies the troops."

The last two sentences indicated Participant 11 felt individuals may feel more included

when the organization demonstrated transparency and clarity. To the extent organizations

demonstrated such efforts, individuals then understood their place in the organization. In

other words, clear explanations of individuals' purpose and place in the organization

reinforced Participant 11's admission that "people were important." Thus, the context of

this admission led to coding the data as part of the *Inclusivity* characteristic.

Another complicated situation occurred when participants' vernacular describing

one characteristic overlapped with the vernacular the codebook used to describe a

different characteristic. For instance, when asked if other organizations might become

more family-like and what should occur if they were to do so, two participants said:

> (Participant 1) "There has to be some way that the individual can relate to what is
> done there, or what is come about through the organization. So the first thing that
> I guess is they have a place to belong. Be able to relate with them."

> (Participant 10) "When I worked for Sears, I worked there for 34 years, we had a
> good rapport there too. You know, [we had] rapport with everybody in there."

Descriptions including words like "relate" and "rapport" initially seemed to fall under the

Relatedness characteristic. The context, however, of the previous quotes suggested

participants believed understanding one another's distinctive attributes helped them relate

better with each other. Such interactions stimulated a sense of belonging, which more

appropriately explains *Inclusivity* than the original conceptualization of *Relatedness*.

Consequently, correction of these semantic issues will be discussed in the results of the

Relatedness characteristic.

The continuum-like nature of family-like characteristics suggests characteristics

likely have positive and negative associations with the characteristic. While positive

associations with inclusivity are natural, several participants described situations that were coded as a negative representation of *Inclusivity*. To the extent that participants used derogatory tone or verbiage to describe some experience relating to a sense of belonging, the data were coded as "negative inclusivity." The following quotations illustrate specific situations individuals believed represented a space to be more inclusive.

> (Participant 6) "I know that I'm younger, but [coworker] umm kind of talked down to me…The legal world [has] a clear hierarchy of like, okay here's the attorneys and here is everybody else."

> (Participant 7) "I think, you know, the old style of business is very much one of 'these are my employees and my workers' and that's just it. Like, all they are is just a person I'm paying to get a result."

> (Participant 4) "I [think] we need to start with critical race theory. In large organizations there is a huge disconnect and if white people cannot acknowledge their whiteness, we will never move forward."

These quotes suggest some individuals believed their workplace adopted some form of exclusivity. In short, participants explained situations they felt highlighted opportunity to be more inclusive. On the one hand, the positive codes of *Inclusivity* represent ways organizations might satisfy individuals' need for belonging. On the other hand, the negative codes suggest certain activities that may violate individuals' desire for inclusion. Together, the positive and negative codes provide a comprehensive understanding of *Inclusivity*. With this understanding, a more informed definition of inclusivity can be offered. Therefore, in the context of family-like workplaces, inclusivity may be defined as the result of intentional efforts designed to construct a space for individuals to recognize the value of their distinctive contributions and understand where and why they belong to the group. Any activities that may hinder or discourage those recognitions would encompass exclusivity's deleterious nature.

4.1.2 Support

Support was initially defined as the intentional effort to equip individuals with continued development of identities and distinctions through necessary adaptations. The literature review suggested individuals need some form of assistance through their inevitable contentions and adaptations. Therefore, data were coded with *Support* when participants described concepts related to sharing emotional weights, easing workloads, assisting with required tasks, and a fundamental commitment to understanding individuals shifting needs during personal situations. When asked to describe specific examples where they felt their firm reflected family-like characteristics, individuals responded with the following:

> (Participant 1) "If you have a strong ability to relate with your coworkers, you're going to have more "family atmosphere" I think…When [we're] going through tough things, you know, we share that offline…We have the ability to relate outside of work, it doesn't directly involve work, even though we don't hang out outside of work because we're, you know, we all work remote, I think, to relate to each other [provides] sibling harmony."

> (Participant 2) "I think familiness, in a work environment, would just boil down to a team honestly. Like, picking up the pieces—where you don't succeed, other people come around and lift you up."

> (Participant 3) "I would say a family is just a group of people who love and care for each other. Usually you're related, like biologically; but we're family and we are related because we work under the same organization."

> (Participant 4) "You want [from a family member] that ability to listen, to have a sounding board to talk through things."

> (Participant 7) "If I can share my life with them, and they can share their life with me, then we can find ways to help each other and grow each other and we're both going to be better for it, you know?"

> (Participant 10) "…Getting along with all of us. You know, enjoy each other's company. Helping each other out when we got a problem. It's basic."

(Participant 11) "[through changes] I'm going to treat the department or my area of responsibility as a family and we're all in it together."

These statements suggest the initial definition of *Support* may have been theoretically sound. The practical nature, however, of participants' vernacular indicate a definition may benefit from more specific references to concepts. For example, several of the quotations above share ideas related to care and concern through difficulty. Multiple participants referenced their appreciation for assistance received when they felt confused or overburdened. In fact, two participants mentioned specifically the supportive nature they felt during times of vulnerability. Those occurrences are below:

> (Participant 5) "People are more open and willing to be vulnerable when you don't have such a structured, overly professional environment…It naturally brings this willingness to be vulnerable, which has not always been easy for me, especially in other jobs. It was just such a structured setting where people had their defined roles, their defined expectations, and they didn't feel that they were capable of kind of breaking out of that to get to know each other on a personal matter."

> (Participant 2) "You got to know that person more…I would just say that that really just opens you up. You become more vulnerable. But you also just learn that person and their weaknesses and their strengths and what they're actually able to do for you when you do reach out…It creates a better team environment I think."

Such descriptions imply *Support* may involve vulnerability at a more intimate level than originally expected for the characteristic. Given the confirmatory nature of individuals' psychological needs, the deeper levels of vulnerability make sense. For instance, the previous discussions of self-esteem and self-efficacy suggest individuals do work through internal conflicts. The dialogue above indicates participants felt family-like support when their workplace provided space for transparency and vulnerability. In other words, support involves a reciprocal commitment to uphold individuals through their

difficulties. The difficulties may be work-related, or they could be related to personal

issues away from the workplace.

Some difficulties, however, may not be appropriately handled in the workplace.

While the general dialogue coded as *Support* was positive, there were negative

expressions as well. One participant said the following:

> (Participant 7) "I think there's a line. You can kind of go a little bit too deep you know…If you're going through marriage troubles, I'm not going to necessarily give you a counseling course or anything like that. But, if you want, I might be open to saying 'hey, let's go have a chat. I'm your friend…let's go get some coffee after work if you want and I'd be happy to talk with you.'"

One participant (Participant 4) suggested families simply punished or grounded children

when mistakes were made. Those activities were compared to workplaces, and it was

implied that workplaces should avoid those behaviors and offer coaching or counsel

instead. In a similar vein, Participant 7 said the unwillingness to coach individuals

implied a restrictive mentality. In other words, the unwillingness to develop people

through their difficulties suggested an unwillingness to see individuals succeed, even if

that success was to be enjoyed via employment elsewhere.

To corroborate the coded data with the initial codebook, a few inconsistencies had

to be corrected. While the codebook helped initially classify responses with the *Support*

code, the vernacular used in those codes indicated support was more specific than the

codebook outlined. Participants' dialogue generally indicated support was felt when they

received a form of guidance, felt others' empathy to their predicaments, received

developmental and task-related coaching, and altogether felt comfortable during learning

processes (e.g. mistakes). Those specific descriptions offer conceptual boundaries that

were not originally included in the codebook. Thus, the data suggest *Support* may be

better defined as a commitment to individuals' learning and growth, both professionally and personally. Though brief, this definition highlights multiple opportunities for workplace-support, and those opportunities will be illuminated when the family reflections are discussed in a later portion of this dissertation.

4.1.3 Relatedness

The codebook shows *Relatedness* as intentional attempts to satisfy individuals' need to associate with something influential. During a review of the literature, it was determined that most individuals crave a sense of meaning. In short, people want to know their efforts matter. Initial attempts to code data were guided by the codebook's references to intentionality, association, and influence. Perhaps not surprisingly, the participants' vernacular highlighted top-management teams and the mission and purpose statements. A few examples can be seen below.

> (Participant 4) "To me, in my industry, culture is building-specific. It is not company-specific. I really believe culture is not prescribed—culture comes from your people. And I believe culture starts top-down…If it's toxic from the top-down, it's going to be toxic everywhere.

> (Participant 5) "I think what the word 'family' here means is you have individual members and those members should be contributing to affect the whole of the company."

> (Participant 6) "I think ethics are a really big thing. I think if an organization were really to focus on ethics, that would be a big deal, and I think that really sets the tone."

> (Participant 7) "I ask myself 'What is my defined vision and my defined culture— have I outlined that?' and then I [line up] that with my systems and processes. If my systems and processes don't align with my culture, then it's just for show…the values and the mission statement, it's just for show."

> (Participant 9) "My dad…is very well respected and so I kind of, fairly or unfairly, just inherited that—where people just know we're easy to work with and

know that we are going to do things the right way…I've been doing this 13 years now, so since then, obviously, people, they have figured out that they can trust me in that same way to just stand for the people that we work with regularly."

These quotations indicate individuals felt an obligation to perpetuate reputational aspects they believed were reflected by parent-like figures in their workplace. If a manager or predecessor behaved ethically, then individuals felt an obligation to uphold an ethical image. When asked to describe what other organizations might do to implement family-like characteristics, participants mentioned the references above highlighting individuals' synergistic effect on the workplace group. Said differently, individuals felt understanding their portion of responsibility in the collective group was indicative of a family-like workplace. In short, showing people their place in a group felt family-like.

Such a family-like nature was particularly true with workgroups that were more oriented toward positive societal impact. For instance, when asked to relate with non-work-related groups capable of offering meaningful participation, participants said they would look to groups such as churches (Participants 1 & 2) or disaster-relief teams (Participant 6). Some mentioned an attraction to groups occupied with youth-development in underdeveloped, underserved, overburdened communities (Participant 4) or similar nonprofits (Participant 5). In short, participants believed workplaces were family-like when they reflected concern for others the way the previously mentioned examples might reflect concern. Furthermore, participants felt their contributions "towards a goal that benefits other people" (Participant 6) provided a sense of relatedness with something bigger than themselves. Therefore, it seems like the original code

(Relatedness) may not necessarily contain the semantic qualities of the societal associations described by participants.

It is prudent, therefore, to revisit the original code for the *Relatedness* characteristic and redefine its initial description. The redefinition provides a more semantic clarity for future work. Satisfying individual's need to associate with something influential was originally categorized as *Relatedness*. Words such as *network* and *contribute* were included in phrases coded as *Relatedness,* the word *relate* was also used, and had co-occurrences with *Inclusivity.* Co-occurrences were phrases that had multiple codes assigned to them. To reduce possible overlaps with other characteristics, the term *Cooperation* seems more appropriate for the characteristic originally called *Relatedness.* Given participants' references to concepts like top-to-bottom co-laboring, contribution to group-oriented process, and partnering with other socially focused groups, the cooperative nature appears more semantically precise than using a word like *relate* to describe the family-like characteristic. Moving forward then, the characteristic will be referred to as *Cooperation,* defined as the opportunity to partner with the organization, engage in efforts directed toward improvement, and assist with endeavors not attainable by individuals alone.

4.1.4 Continuance

Continuance was initially defined as perceived intent for long-term, continued relations and a healthy approach to managing conflicts. The review of literature indicated family-like membership assumes an unending relationship, despite the inevitable conflicts which may occur. On the one hand, individuals may believe conflicts represent

problems. On the other hand, however, individuals may recognize the existence of helpful techniques for handling conflicts. To the extent then which individuals may perceive the long-term nature of their workplace relationships, it could be assumed those individuals may be more willing to engage in conflicts they believe will help cultivate stronger relationships. Described differently, the literature review suggests perceptions for continued relations may alter individuals' approach to engaging in workplace conflicts. The participants' dialogue below suggests these assumptions may be accurate.

> (Participant 1) "You might compete with [them] hard and you might get really bummed out that they're beating [you] in, say, sales and metrics…but the same time, at the end of that, you can look back and say…I still love you. Let's press on to the next week."

> (Participant 7) "I need to set up maybe weekly meetings…so I can check [on my team] and I can let them express their concerns about my leadership to me. So it's not just 'I'm checking in on you' but it's also 'in the past week or so, is there any concerns about my leadership?' I've not seen a ton of [leaders] do that—open themselves up for attack basically—you have to be willing to do that."

> (Participant 11) "I think you need transparency and clarity at the executive level to have the people with the ideas feel like they can come forward with [ideas]."

Additionally, signaling a willingness to listen to employees was common, as nearly half of participants (Participants 1, 3, 5, 7, and 11) suggested "openness" or "open door policies" felt more family-like. As a matter of fact, common verbiage used throughout the data coded as *Continuance* were words like "trust" (Participants 1 and 8), "loyalty" (Participants 9), "mutual respect" (Participants 4 and 9), and "selflessness" (Participant 8). In short, the codebook and participants' explanations seem to mirror one another.

While most of the dialogue coded with the *Continuance* characteristic was positive, there were a few instances of negativity as well. For instance, when discussing

family-like environments at work, a couple participants mentioned situations in which they adopted family-like concepts to preserve long-term relationships. Those examples are below:

> (Participant 6) "You learn how to work with [coworkers], even if maybe you guys don't necessarily just click. You develop relationships…and you've learned how to move around [problems] and work with them because, similar to family, you don't have much option about who you work with. So you just kind of have to deal with it, and you know you can either choose to make a big fight about it, or you can say 'okay—you know, whatever.'"

> (Participant 7) "Sometimes [organizations] have openness, but sometimes they can be a little bit too open, right? Like, they are going to give you that unsolicited advice on your marriage, and that can create some toxicity there."

The codebook's references to balanced conflict-management seem to be appropriate. The reflexive nature, however, of the hybrid analysis method allows researchers to tentatively code data with the codebook and then view the codebook from the data's perspective. Reflexively approaching data coded under *Continuance* indicated participants' responses generally mentioned conflict more than the expectation of future employment. In fact, the quotations above suggest participants' primary concern for continued relations was managing conflicts. Said differently, participants did not seem to be concerned with long-term employment when conflicts were managed appropriately. In short, it appears the expectation for long-term employment led participants to view certain conflicts as petty or trivial. Put another way, participants felt the future employment relationship was more valuable than engaging in some conflicts.

Given participants' answers differed slightly from the original aim of the *Continuance* characteristic, two adaptations are appropriate. First, the characteristic's definition deserves alteration. Originally, the definition's primary focus was long-term

employment, which helps satisfy safety needs. Those needs are satisfied by reduced

uncertainty about the future. Such a focus was expected because long-term orientation is

a hallmark of family firms, and thus it was expected to be a family-like characteristic.

The data, however, indicate participants' perception of conflicts were less focused on

long-term employment, and more focused on preserving relationships. On the one hand,

participants said they invited healthy conflict if they thought it made their workplace

better. On the other hand, participants said their workplace was more peaceful if they let

potential conflicts pass along uncontested. Participants even suggested the family model

provided a framework for determining which conflicts deserved attention. Put another

way, participants believed appropriate use of conflicts reflected a family-like

characteristic of their workplace. In fact, the references to long-term work relations were

justification for engaging in or avoiding conflicts. Thus, a more appropriate definition for

the characteristic seems to require more attention to those references. Accordingly, the

characteristic may be defined as individuals' willingness to disregard some contentions,

or engage in some conflicts, for the benefit of future relations.

Second, altering the definition suggests the vernacular of the characteristic's title

should be revised. Similar to the changes in the previous characteristic (i.e. *Relatedness*

became *Cooperation*), *Continuance* implies more temporal aspects than the data

suggested. The data indicated participants primarily concerned themselves with deciding

which conflicts were worthwhile. If engaging in the conflict seemed to benefit future

relations, participants believed the conflict was positive. If they felt a conflict may hurt

future relations, participants said they would overlook the issue. Therefore, a more

encompassing term for the previously defined characteristic is *Preservation*. To the

extent participants wanted to preserve future relations, they decided which conflicts deserved attention and which conflicts they should avoid altogether. Thus, this term seems to be a better summarization of the previously altered definition.

The previous paragraphs outlined coded data. The data were coded with the codebook, and then the codebook was corroborated and extended with reflexive attention to the definitions of the characteristics. Such reflexivity confirmed certain portions of the codebook and suggested other portions would benefit from a few adaptions. A similar process follows in the next section, where specific reflections of the family-like characteristics are discussed.

4.2 Family Reflections

The observed nature of family-like characteristics was previously described as family reflections. The term was used to identify activity individuals believed reflected a family-like characteristic. To the extent workplaces have family-like atmospheres, those workplaces should also provide evidence of the family-like characteristics participants suggested made the workplace family-like. Family reflections serve as such evidence. Building upon the previous section's explanation of characteristics, this section outlines observable activities participants believed reflected family-like characteristics. Though some data emerged from other sections of the interview, most data were from participants' answers to Question #3.

Participants observed *Inclusivity* when they witnessed actions that helped individuals understand their place and their value in the group. For example, Participant 1 observed an executive team member offer life advice to a colleague who had solicited the

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advice. Participant 2 said "Wherever I was, [coworkers] made me feel confident enough to reach out for help." Participants 3 and 6 said their birthdays and life accomplishments were celebrated. The previous examples are not all-inclusive and other reflections certainly exist. These examples, however, suggest activities directed toward providing individuals a sense of belonging represent *Inclusivity.*

Given the nature of *Support*, reflections of the characteristic may be more wide-ranging than other family-like characteristics discussed. On the one hand, Participant 9 identified supportive family reflections when people at work covered work-shifts so a parent could care for their sick child and Participant 10 said their work-team supported a member suffering from a housing crisis. On the other hand, Participants 7, 8, and 11 recognized supportive family reflections occurred at work when executives intentionally solicited employees' opinions about matters both related and unrelated to work. To complicate the reflections even more, what may have been coded as *Support* for one participant could just as easily be coded as *Inclusivity, Cooperation,* or *Preservation* for other participants. In short, the reflections of *Support* occurred when individuals felt the need to be supported. Put a different way, workplaces' attention and commitment to individuals' developing needs signaled a family-like support. Specific reflections of that *Support* likely exist to a point this research may not sufficiently cover. More explanation for further investigation is discussed in a following section.

Cooperation was reflected when individuals saw specific instances of collaboration and synergy. For example, contributing thoughts and ideas to organizational goals (Participant 5) links individuals to the bigger purpose of the organization. Instances where workplaces helped people, both at work and outside of work, were also mentioned

as family reflections of *Cooperation*. More specifically, when individuals recognized how coworkers benefit from someone covering their work-shifts (Participant 9), they felt they had achieved a family-like atmosphere in their workplace. Some individuals, however, may not be capable of seeing those reaching effects of covering a coworker's responsibilities. Consequently, it could be assumed that workplaces trying to create a family-like atmosphere should also work to provide a space where individuals recognize those effects of cooperating with others at work.

Several instances exist whereby *Preservation* was reflected. In short, *Preservation* represents how individuals decide to act in the present with regard to their assessment about the future. For example, Participant 1 said executives had to lower employees' salaries by 50 percent. Naturally a move like that could incite hostile conflicts. To reduce the conflicts and preserve future relations, the executives eliminated their salaries completely. In this instance, present actions were influenced by intentions for the future. In a similar vein, Participant 6 said a coworker was rude and demeaning with performance-related advice. Since future harmony was prioritized, Participant 6 simply let the coworker vent, choosing not to engage in an argument. Participant 7, knowing a lack of transparency may complicate the future of their workplace, specifically told a colleague to explain why the colleague disagreed with a decision. At a minimum, these examples suggest individuals believed some activities represented family-like preservation of future relations. The positive or negative nature of the activities depends, in part, upon the expectation for future relations.

Family reflections for the outlined characteristics were evident throughout participants' dialogue. The observable nature of family-like characteristics offers a

promising direction toward measuring those characteristics. Further explanation for moving toward this direction will be given in the conclusion of this manuscript.

4.3 Codebook Summary

An explanation of the corroborated data helps answer primary research questions. The purpose of this research was to investigate what characteristics reflected a family-like atmosphere in workplaces. The literature review suggested several characteristics may be expected, and those expectations helped develop the codebook. The data were initially coded with the codebook and then data were reflexively used to interpret the codebook's strengths and weaknesses. Table 5 outlines the corroborated findings.

Table 5. Family-like characteristics and their family reflections

Characteristics	Definition	Family Reflections
Inclusivity	The result of intentional efforts designed to construct a space for individuals to recognize the value of their distinctive contributions and understand where and why they belong to the group.	Integrating aspects of life at and away from work, Celebrating milestones and achievements.
Support	A commitment to individuals' learning and growth, both professionally and personally.	Creating flexibility for life-integrations, Giving resources to needy individuals, Listening to employees.
Cooperation	The opportunity to partner with the organization, engage in efforts directed toward improvement, and assist with endeavors not attainable by individuals alone.	Collaborating with colleagues to benefit each other and their communities.
Preservation	Individuals' willingness to disregard some contentions, or engage in some conflicts, for the benefit of future relations.	Encouraging the sharing of dissimilar opinions, avoiding trivial contentions, selecting actions with future relations in mind.

Simply viewing the previous characteristics in isolation, though perhaps interesting, does little to help improve workplaces. Given the family nature of the data, and because participants worked for family firms and nonfamily firms, it seems appropriate to discuss the nature of participants' workplaces. The family influence at participants' firms may have an effect on participants' perceptions of family-like characteristics. Such understandings would help provide a foundation for further investigation of those characteristics. Consequently, the next section reports differences in participants' responses based on their firm's family influence.

4.4 Firms' Family Influence

The purposeful sampling technique allowed for intentional selection of participants. Of the eleven firms at which participants work, seven were family firms. Of those seven firms, two firms were publicly traded, and the other five firms were privately owned and operated by members of the founding family. More specific information can be seen in Table 6. The four nonfamily firms, or firms not owned or operated by any specific family, provided an avenue whereby family-like characteristics may be investigated in firms not connected to a founding family.

Table 6. Family influence on firms based on answers to questions from F-PEC scale

Public/Private	Ownership	Governance	Owning Generation	Management	Active Participants
Public	81.40%	23%	1st (primarily), 2nd	Unsure	Unsure
Public	48.89%	0%	2nd & 3rd	Unsure	Unsure
Private	100.00%	100%	2nd & 3rd	Unsure	2
Private	100.00%	100%	2nd	~ 50%	4-5
Private	100.00%	33%	Unsure	~33%	1
Private	100.00%	100%	1st and 2nd	1	4
Private	100.00%	100%	1st and 2nd	1	2

Given the diverse levels of family influence on the firms at which participants worked, diverse perceptions of family-like characteristics would seem intuitive. Such diversity, however, was less prevalent than perhaps may have been expected. Figure 1 includes the number of quotations coded with different family-like characteristics and compares whether participants were from family or nonfamily firms.
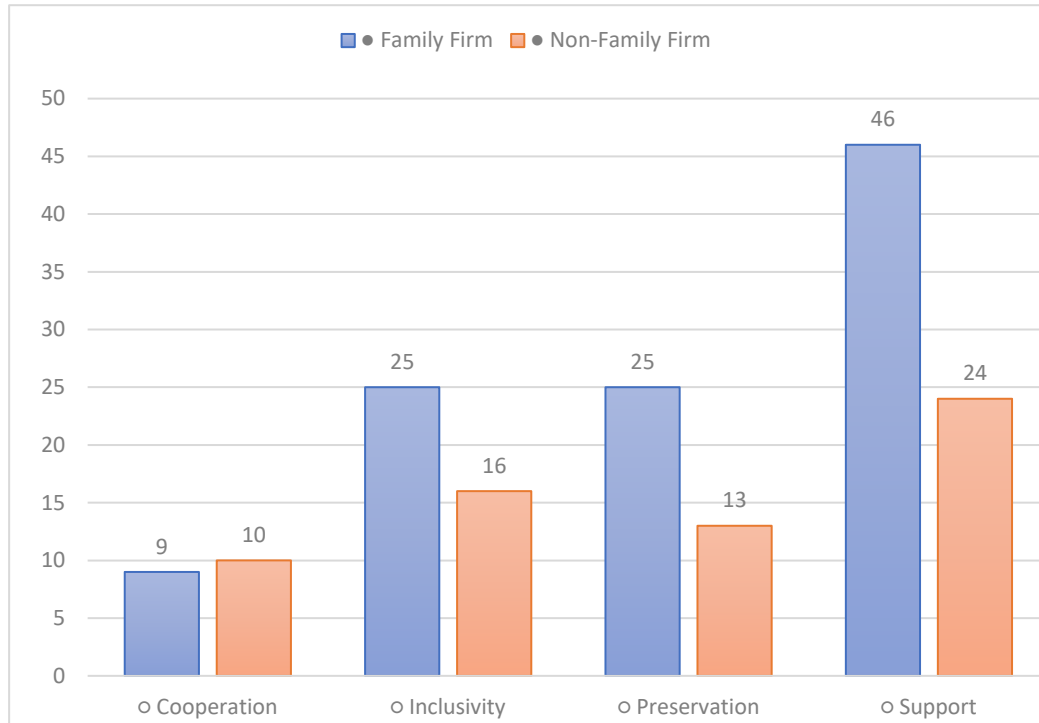
Figure 1. Coded mentions of family-like characteristics comparing family and nonfamily firms.

At first glance, it does appear as if family-like characteristics were discussed more by participants from family firms than they were discussed by participants from nonfamily firms. Considering participants were from seven family firms and only four nonfamily firms, however, it would be expected to see higher numbers from family firms. In fact, given that just over 36% of the sample worked at nonfamily firms, a mathematical perspective of Figure 1 would indicate participants from family firms should be expected to claim roughly 64% of the mentions. In total, however, participants' mentions from nonfamily firms accounted for 39% (Inclusivity), 34% (Preservation), 34% (Support), and 52% (Cooperation) of the mentions. Put simply, the data indicate family influence on the firm had little to do with participants' mentions of family-like

characteristics. Said differently, participants, regardless of their workplaces' familial

influence, seem to describe family-like characteristics with similar regularity.

The nature, however, of participants' descriptions of family-like characteristics

looked different than the regularity of the mentions. For example, Figure 2 uses family

influence on the firm to compare participants' positive and negative descriptions of

family-like characteristics.
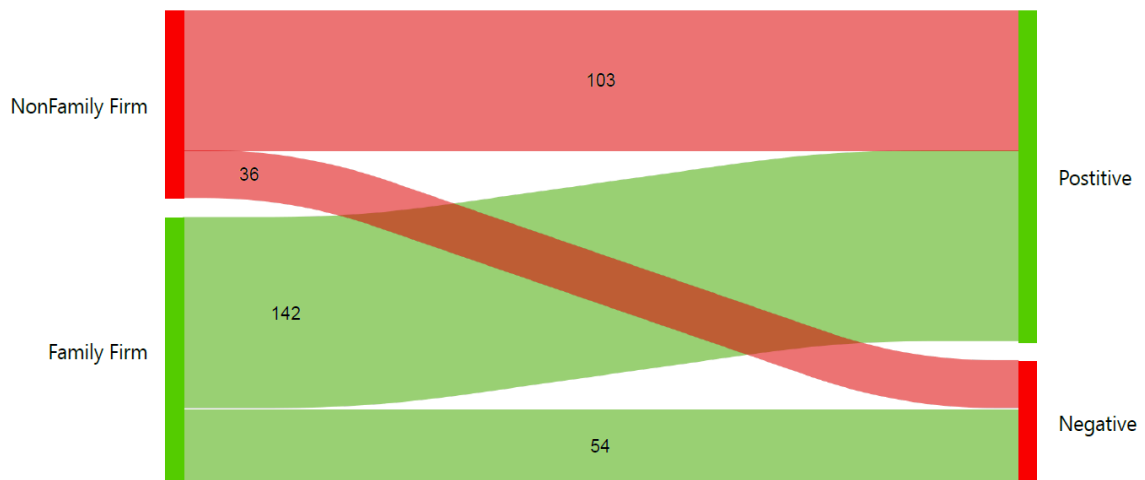
Figure 2. Positive and negative descriptions of family-like characteristics separated by family influence on the firm.

As seen above, participants from nonfamily firms accounted for 42 percent of the

Positive sentiments and 40 percent of the Negative sentiments regarding family-like

characteristics. Those percentages are intriguing, considering that only 36 percent of the

sample is represented by participants from nonfamily firms. In short, fewer participants

were responsible for more than their share of sentiments. Said differently, participants

from nonfamily firms seemed more expressive in their sentiments toward family-like

characteristics than participants from nonfamily firms. While no assumptions of causation can be made given the design of this research, data suggest more consistent expressions of family-like characteristics could be expected from individuals at family firms than individuals from nonfamily firms.

4.5 Implications of Results

Data helped illuminate answers to the research questions this investigation sought to answer. The investigation began by recognizing Lumpkin et al.'s (2008) argument for the existence of family-oriented themes in the workplace. Those authors suggested family systems theory (Bavelas & Segal, 1982) may predict the existence of the family-oriented themes. This research confirmed Lumpkin et al.'s (2008) predictions. Workplaces do appear to reflect family-like characteristics. To the extent those characteristics exist then, this research sought to define and explain those characteristics. Data supported the existence of family-like characteristics, and the coded data helped define those characteristics. Such findings represent the foundation for a measurement which could be used to assess the processes and outcomes Lumpkin et al. (2008) forecasted in their conceptual work.

Additionally, the diverse nature of the firms at which participants worked offers interesting results as well. Participants, from both nonfamily firms and family firms, had similar descriptions and expressions of family-like characteristics. Such similarities suggest a family-like framework for satisfying individuals' needs at work may be appropriate. In fact, the framework may be appropriate regardless of the family-influence of the firm. In short, workplaces, regardless of family-influence, appear to reflect family-

like characteristics. These findings enrich the long-held discussion regarding the problems with the definition of family firms (Astrachan et al., 2002). For instance, Chua et al. (1999) said family firms were best defined as firms that acted like a family. The data discussed earlier, however, suggest individuals' perceptions of family-like characteristics were quite similar. On the one hand, family-like characteristics are inherently family-like. On the other hand, results indicate workplaces had family-like characteristics, even when the workplace was not a family firm. In short, there appears to be some discrepancy between the results and Chua et al.'s (1999) definition. The following paragraph offers what, perhaps to some, may be an interesting explanation of that discrepancy.

Assuming the results indicate all firms are family firms would simply be unreasonable. It does, however, seem reasonable for a space to exist in which all firms may be more or less family-like. While the results may conflict with Chua et al.'s (1999) definition of family firms, other definitions have been widely accepted, such as the method by which this research delineated family firms from nonfamily firms (Klein et al., 2005). Therefore, the results enrich the discussions of family-firm definitions not because the definitions deserve recalculations, but because building upon pre-established definitions paves the way for more promising implications. In short, rather than view the results as a contradiction of Chua et al.'s (1999) definition, consider perhaps whether their definition may offer a promising space for further investigation. It may be that all firms, regardless of family influence on the firm, reflect family-like characteristics to some degree or another. Results suggest this may be true. Future research will be required to confirm such suggestions.

CHAPTER 5. SUMMARY

This exploratory research was designed to investigate the existence of family-like characteristics in the workplace. Results indicate those characteristics do exist. To the extent they do exist, the findings revealed certain themes within those characteristics. Table 5 displays the thematic nature of the characteristics as well as definitions and reflections of the characteristics. As is the case with most research projects, particularly qualitative exploratory approaches, the investigation provided current situational descriptions and perceptions as well as interesting paths forward for future studies. As with any research project, however, this investigation does include limitations. Those limitations and future directions are briefly summarized next.

5.1 Limitations

The results of any research investigation should be interpreted realistically. Given the natural constraints whereby researchers must conduct their work, every investigation is likely limited in some fashion. This investigation was no different. For instance, sample size should always be considered when interpreting the results of investigations. By some standards (Cohen et al., 2000), the sample size for this investigation ($n = 11$) may seem relatively small. Given the similarities as well as differences among participants' answers (Malterud et al., 2016), however, the sample is sufficient to provide both fundamental core perceptions as well as several ideas for other directions in future studies. In other words, though the likelihood exists that new information would be identified from additional interviews, a point of sufficiency was established for this

investigation that provides a foundation for meaningful findings. In short, more interviews might suggest future directions to extend the findings summarized in Table 5, but the current study sample size was deemed sufficient to accurately describe current perspectives and point out directions for future research. Thus, sample size could be considered a limiting factor, but the results clearly provide directions for better understanding the current situation as well as how to conduct future research.

The cross-sectional nature of the adopted qualitative approach should also be considered. Since the data were not gathered over an extended period of time, it is possible individuals' perceptions of family-like characteristics may shift over time or due to socioeconomic pressures. The enduring nature, however, of deeply held values can generally be expected to extend in perpetuity (Inglehart & Baker, 2000). Therefore, the cross-sectional design seems less limiting to the findings and more limiting to the broad generalization of those results. In other words, the results should not be generalized to populations at large. Before the results can be inferred to larger populations, more research endeavors should be pursued. The following section outlines recommendations for such endeavors.

5.2 Future Directions

Given the limitations, it is not prudent for the findings to be applied to investigations seeking answers to cause-and-effect research questions. In other words, causal mechanisms may not directly benefit from the particular results of this study. The result do, however, offer the foundation required for additional research focused on family-like characteristics. One prominent avenue seems most realistic. The exploratory

nature of this research offered results sufficient to specify content domains. Hinkin

(1998) suggested specification of the content domains is the first step toward creating a

measure for abstract concepts. Given the abstract nature of family orientation (Lumpkin

et al., 2008), the concept has not yet been empirically measured. This is likely due to a

lack of theoretically rooted content domains by which scale items may be generated.

Results from this research offer those content domains. Thus, following Hinkin's (1998)

recommendations, researchers might use the specified content domains to establish items

of family orientation.

To increase the likelihood of establishing content validity, it seems prudent to

draw from pre-established scales, at least as a starting point. Several scales have validated

constructs bearing similar concepts to family orientation. For example, the identity-based

nature of *Inclusivity* suggests a scale of family orientation might benefit from scales

inherently focused on identities and distinctions. Thus, future investigations including

previously used pilot indicators should borrow items from Luhtanen and Crocker (1992)

and Yanagida et al. (2014), which assess identity and distinction, respectively. Other

scales might be used when concepts from similar domains have already been validated.

Examples of such potential scales that may be helpful for a pilot study of family

orientation in future research can be found in Appendix B.

In addition to adapting items used in previously validated scales, it may also be

fruitful to conduct more qualitative investigation. While the approaches and techniques

for this investigation served their purpose, content validity may benefit from asking

participants different questions. For instance, the balanced positive and negative

sentiments in this data suggest negative family-like characteristics may be more prevalent

in workplaces than was originally conceptualized in this research. Therefore, a more extensive description of the characteristics may be available if more comprehensive questions were asked. Because a few participants spoke about experiences they perceived to be negative, future questions would be more comprehensive if the question specifically addressed negative experiences. While the interviews did give participants space to describe their perceptions and experiences, future interviews may offer new insights if participants were asked to consider any negative experiences.

5.3 Conclusions

The purpose of this research was to explore whether workplaces had family-like atmospheres. It was determined that family-like atmospheres seem to have similar characteristics. Those characteristics are inclusivity, support, cooperation, and preservation. In general, participants described those characteristics with more positive sentiments than negative sentiments. However, negative sentiments were consistent across several interviews. Given the diverse family influence on participants' firms, results suggest firms, apart from family influence on the firm, may be capable of reflecting family-like atmospheres. Thus, future research should build on the content domains provided by this research and test whether the content domains are valid. Such an instrument would then provide a tool to assess important processes and outcomes for both family firms and nonfamily firms.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: IRB Materials

A.1 IRB Approval

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INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
February 7, 2022

Principal Investigator:	Justin Scott
IRB # and Title:	IRB PROTOCOL: 22-009
	[1860130-2] What gives workplaces a family-like atmosphere? An exploratory study.
Status:	APPROVED Review Type: Limited Review
Approval Date:	February 2, 2022 Submission Type: Response/Follow-Up
Initial Approval:	February 2, 2022 Expiration Date:
Review Category:	45 CFR 46.104 (d)(2): Research that only includes interaction involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior (including visual or auditory recording):
	iii. The information obtained is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that the identity of the human subjects can be readily ascertained, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects, and an IRB conducts a limited IRB review to make the determination required by 45 CFR 46.111(a)(7).

This panel, operating under the authority of the DHHS Office for Human Research and Protection, assurance number FWA 00001602, and IRB #00000286 or #00011574, has reviewed the submitted materials for the following:

1. *Protection of the rights and the welfare of human subjects involved.*
2. *The methods used to secure and the appropriateness of informed consent.*
3. *The risk and potential benefits to the subject.*

The regulations require that the investigator not initiate any changes in the research without prior IRB approval, except where necessary to eliminate immediate hazards to the human subjects, and that **all problems involving risks and adverse events be reported to the IRB immediately!**

Subsequent supporting documents that have been approved will be stamped with an IRB approval and expiration date (if applicable) on every page. Copies of the supporting documents must be utilized with the current IRB approval stamp unless consent has been waived.

Notes:

A.2 Information/Consent Form

Project Title: What gives workplaces a family-like atmosphere? An exploratory study.
Principal Investigator: Justin Scott
Contact Information: 904-759-7216; js1922@jagmail.southalabama.edu

You are invited to voluntarily participate in a research project. The project seeks to learn employees' perceptions of workplace characteristics that create a family-like atmosphere.

The purpose of the study is to learn more about the characteristics that give a workplace a family-like atmosphere. Learning what employees think creates a family-like atmosphere is a critical first step toward understanding what makes workplaces more accommodating for individuals seeking a family-like work environment. Many family-like characteristics stem from the direct involvement of families as owners, managers, and employees, which suggests family firms may have more family-like atmospheres. However, even family-firms seem to differ in the extent to which they display family-like characteristics, with some being very family oriented and others being less or not family oriented at all. Learning more about family-like characteristics should help build a foundation on which recommendations for family-like workplaces might be built. The interview should take about 30 minutes to complete.

Procedure:
After signing this consent form, the researcher will initiate an interview. Upon meeting with you, the researcher will ask you to verbally confirm that you have consented to recording, and then begin recording the interview. You will be asked a series of questions. You have the right to refuse to answer any questions you do not wish to comment on, and you may choose to end the interview at any time.
To ensure confidentiality of your interview is maintained, audio recordings of the interview will be stored in the researcher's password-protected Google Drive account until the recording can be transcribed. After successful transcription, recordings will be deleted, and the transcriptions will be saved in the researcher's password-protected Google Drive account.

Benefits and Risks:
Benefits*:* The information you provide will help to better understand the characteristics that make a workplace feel more family-like. Your opinions will be used to develop recommendations for improving workplace atmospheres.
Risks: To the best of our knowledge, the risk of harm and discomfort from participation is no more than would be experienced in daily life, although the potential for use of your name in dialogue may occur. Should this occur, during transcription of the interview audio recordings your name will be replaced with "[name]."

All answers/information you share will be used for research purposes only. Answers will be stored under password-protected devices accessible only by the primary researcher and may be used for future research purposes.

You can withdraw at any time without consequence. Please contact me at 904-759-7216 or the Institutional Review Board at the University of South Alabama at (251) 460-6308 if you have questions about your rights as a research subject.

Project Advisor:
Dr. Matt Howard
mhoward@southalabama.edu

IRB Project # 1860130-2

Approved: February 2, 2022

A.3 Advertising Materials

Telephone Script: " I am interested in learning more about characteristics that give workplaces a family-like atmosphere. I would love to understand more about what you think makes your workplace more or less family-like. Would you be willing to answer a few questions? It should not take more than 30 minutes."

Given that the sample of participants is a convenience sample, the researcher already has contact numbers with which to contact participants.

Email Script: "Hello (name of individual)! I am interested in learning more about characteristics that give workplaces a family-like atmosphere. I would love to understand more about what you think makes your workplace more or less family-like. Would you be willing to answer a few questions? It should not take more than 30 minutes."

Given that the sample of participants is a convenience sample, the researcher already has email addresses with which to contact participants.

Advertisements (LinkedIn page): " Hello (name of individual)! I am interested in learning more about the family-like characteristics of the workplace. If you would be willing to share your thoughts about the characteristics that make your work environment feel like a family, please direct message me."

A.4 Interview Questions

Lead in:

I am interested in understanding to what extent an organization can take on family-like characteristics, and how these characteristics are perceived. I will be asking you a few questions and we will discuss this phenomenon together.

1. To what extent do you think the organization you currently work for operates like a family? Please tell me a little bit more about . . .(concepts participant mentions).
2. What does "family" mean to you as part of this organization?

If no answer, probe: Sibling-harmony? Sibling-rivalry? Defend one another?

3. Please give me several specific examples of the actions, decisions, or behaviors that reflect a family atmosphere in your organization?
4. To what extent do you think organizations other than the one you work for can duplicate these characteristics? Why? Why not?
5. To what extent do you think your organization would be different if the family-like characteristics you mentioned earlier were absent?
6. If you were not employed by your current organization, what other group would you affiliate with that might have similar family attributes?
7. What can other organizations do to become more family-like, in your opinion? Please mention 2-3 specific examples.

If no answer, probe: Create a space to get to know each other? Spend more time together outside of work?

Family influence (adapted from Klein et al., 2005)

8. Is the organization you work for owned or controlled by a family?

If necessary, explain: (Ex. #1) Ford family owns a great deal of stock in Ford Motor. (Ex. #2) Siblings may manage the firm their parents founded.

9. If yes, to what extent is the owning family involved in the organization? For example:
   a. In ownership (% of equity held, who are the other owners?)
   b. In governance (% of board seats held by family)
   c. In management? Different level of management?
   d. Other positions?
10. How many family members actively participate in the business?

For example: How many are actively employed by the organization? Serve on advisory committees or board of directors?

11. Which generation of the family owns the company? If multiple generations, what proportion owned by each different generation?
12. What does the presence of the family add specifically in terms of family atmosphere? Please give some examples. How would this be different in your opinion if the family was absent from the business? In other words, to what extent do you think other organizations, that are not family controlled, could/should duplicate these characteristics?
13. What specific values of the family are reflected in the business, and how? Please give me some specific examples. How would this be different in your opinion if the family was not involved in the business? In other words, to what extent do you think other organizations, that are not family controlled, could/should encourage family-type values on the organization? Why?

Demographics

1. What is your gender?
    a. Male
    b. Female
    c. Other
2. What is your current age in years?
3. How would you describe your current work assignment?
    a. Office only
    b. Home only
    c. Fieldwork
    d. Hybrid
4. How many hours per week do you typically work for your current employer?
5. How long have you worked for your current employer?
6. What is your current title? How long have you had this position title?

Inclusivity

Identity. Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992, Collective Self-Esteem Scale
Membership:

      I am a worthy member of the social groups I belong to (1).

      I feel I don't have much to offer to the social groups I belong to (5)R.

      I am a cooperative participant in the social groups I belong to (9).

      I often feel I'm a useless member of my social groups (13)R.

Private:

      I often regret that I belong to some of the social groups I do (2)R.

      In general, I'm glad to be a member of the social groups I belong to (6).

      Overall, I often feel that the social groups of which I am a member are not worthwhile (10)R.

      I feel good about the social groups I belong to (14).

Public:

      Overall, my social groups are considered good by others (3).

      Most people consider my social groups, on the average, to be more ineffective that other social groups (7)R.

      In general, others respect the social groups that I am a member of (11).

      In general, others think that the social groups I am a member of are unworthy (15)R.

Identity:

      Overall, my group memberships have very little to do with how I feel about myself (4)R.

      The social groups I belong to are an important reflection of who I am (8).

      The social groups I belong to are unimportant to my sense of what kind of a person I am (12)R.

      In general, belonging to social groups is an important part of my self-image (16).

NOTE: The number in parentheses indicates the sequence of items in the scale. The "R" following some parentheses indicates the item should be reversed for scoring.

Distinction: Yanagida et al., 2014, Self-Group Distinction Scale
Two question blocks (perceived group opinion vs. personal opinion) comprise the same seven items: What does your class think … / What do you think …
(1) … of classmates asking for advice when they have a problem? (advice seeking)
(2) … of solving tasks in groups? (group activity)
(3) … of classmates holding a different opinion than the teacher does? (independence)
(4) … of classmates, who do not want to participate in group activity? (group activity)

(5) … of other classmates, who want to push through their own opinion? (independence)
(6) … of classmates solving a difficult task completely on their own? (independence)
(7) … of a classmate refusing to change his or her opinion, even though all the others think differently than he or she does? (independence)

Support

Eisenberger et al., 1986, Perceived Organizational Support

1. The organization values my contribution to its well-being.
2. If the organization could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary it would do so.
3. The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.
4. The organization strongly considers my goals and values.
5. The organization would understand a long absence due to my illness.
6. The organization would ignore any complaint from me.
7. The organization disregards my best interests when it makes decisions that affect me.
8. Help is available from the organization when I have a problem.
9. The organization really cares about my well-being.
10. The organization is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability.
11. The organization would fail to understand my absence due to a personal problem.
12. If the organization found a more efficient way to get my job done they would replace me.
13. The organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.
14. It would only take a small decrease in my performance for the organization to want to replace me.
15. The organization feels there is little to be gained by employing me for the rest of my career.
16. The organization provides me little opportunity to move up the ranks.
17. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice.
18. The organization would grant a reasonable request for a change in my working conditions.
19. If I were laid off, the organization would prefer to hire someone new rather than take me back.
20. The organization is willing to assist me when I need a special favor.
21. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.
22. If given the opportunity, the organization would take advantage of me.
23. The organization shows very little concern for me.
24. If I decided to quit, the organization would take advantage of me.
25. The organization cares about my opinions.

26. The organization feels that hiring me was a definite mistake.
27. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.
28. The organization cares more about making a profit than about me.
29. The organization would understand if I were unable to finish a task on time.
30. If the organization earned a greater profit, it would consider increasing my salary.
31. The organization feels that anyone could perform my job as well as me.
32. The organization is unconcerned about paying me what I deserve.
33. The organization wishes to give me the best possible job for which I am qualified.
34. If my job were eliminated, the organization would prefer to lay me off rather than transfer me to a new job.
35. The organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible.
36. My supervisors are proud that I am part of this organization.

Fouad et al., 2010, Family Influence Scale

<u>Informational Support</u>
1. My family shared information with me about how to obtain a job
2. My family discussed career issues with me at an early age
3. My family showed me how to be successful in choosing a career
4. My family showed me what was important in choosing a career
5. Watching my family work gave me confidence in my career
6. My family provided guidance on which careers would be best for me
7. My family has given me information about obtaining education/training
8. My family supported me asking career-related questions

<u>Family Expectations</u>
9. My family expects me to select a career that has a certain status
10. My family expects me to make career decisions so that I do not shame them
11. My family is only willing to support me financially if I choose a career of which they approve
12. My family expects that my choice of occupation will reflect their wishes
13. My family expects people from our culture to choose certain careers
14. My family's career expectations for me are based on my gender

<u>Financial Support</u>
15. My family expects me to contribute financially to my career education and training
16. Because my family supports me financially, I can focus on my career development
17. My family has not been able to financially support my career decisions
18. If I wanted to get additional education after high school, my family would provide financial support

19. If I were to experience a difficult career situation, my family would support me financially

Values/Beliefs

20. My family expects that I will consider my religion/spirituality when making career decisions
21. My family explained how our values and beliefs pertain to my career choices
22. My family expects my career to match our family's values/beliefs

Cooperation

Meaning: Marsh et al., 2003, Purpose in Life Scale

1. Usual level of boredom versus excitement
2. Whether life seems exciting versus routine
3. Clarity of goals in life
4. Sense of meaning and purpose in life
5. Whether each day seems new or the same
6. Satisfaction with this life
8. Progress toward life goals
9. Happiness versus despair about life
10. Worthwhileness of life lived so far
11. Sense of a reason for existing
12. Sense of meaningful place in the world
13. Whether a responsible person
16. Whether ever contemplated suicide
17. Ability to find meaning and purpose in life
18. Sense of personal control over life
19. Pleasure in daily tasks
20. Purpose and meaning in life found so far

Association: Maignan & Ferrell, 2000, Corporate Citizenship Scale

Economic citizenship
– We have been successful at maximizing our profits.
– We strive to lower our operating costs.
– We closely monitor employees' productivity.
– Top management establishes long-term strategies [. . .].

Legal citizenship
– The managers of this organization try to comply with the law.
– Our company seeks to comply with all laws regulating hiring and employee benefits.
– We have programs that encourage the diversity of our workforce (in terms of age, gender, and race).

– Internal policies prevent discrimination in employees' compensation
and promotion.

<u>Ethical citizenship</u>

– Our business has a comprehensive code of conduct.

– We are recognized as a trustworthy company.

– Fairness toward co-workers and business partners is an integral
part of the employee evaluation process.

– A confidential procedure is in place for employees to report any
misconduct at work [. . .].

– Our salespersons and employees are required to provide full and
accurate information to all customers.

<u>Discretionary citizenship</u>

– Our business supports employees who acquire additional education.

– Flexible company policies enable employees to better coordinate work
and personal life.

– Our business gives adequate contributions to charities.

– A program is in place to reduce the amount of energy and materials
wasted in our business.

– We encourage partnerships with local businesses and schools.

Preservation

Cohesion: Smyrnios et al, 2003, Family Cohesion & Conflicts

<u>Family Cohesion</u>

To what extent does your family spend special time together?

To what extent does your family have commitment to each other?

To what extent does your family have effective communication?

To what extent does your family deal effectively with crises?

To what extent does your family express appreciation to each other?

<u>Work-to-Household Conflict</u>

Do your business obligations interfere with your time in meeting responsibilities
you have for members of your family?

Do your business obligations interfere with your time in keeping up with
household chores?

<u>Work-to-Interpersonal Conflict</u>

What effect does working in your business have on your social life?

What effect does working in your business have on your relationship with your
spouse/partner?

What effect does working in your business have on your relationship with your
children?

Temporal Orientation: Pieper et al., 2020, Short-term/long-term &
Importance/Achievement

<u>Short-term Importance</u>

I am likely to sacrifice to achieve this goal

1. High return on investment (gain from investment divided by cost of investment) relative to main competitors
2. Higher profits than our main competitors
3. The business has high productivity relative to our main competitors
4. Well-developed business systems
5. A company that is attractive to business buyers

<u>Long-term Importance</u>

I will not be satisfied unless this goal is achieved

1. For members of the owning-family to identify with the business and have a strong sense of belonging to the business
2. For members of the owning-family to participate in business decisions
3. Members of the owning-family identify with their family
4. For our customers to perceive our business as a family business
   [Note: Item was asked "I am likely to sacrifice to achieve this goal"]

<u>Short-term Achievement</u>

How would you rate the achievement of this goal?

1. High return on investment (gain from investment divided by cost of investment) relative to main competitors
2. Higher profits than our main competitors
3. The business has high productivity relative to our main competitors
4. Well-developed business systems
5. A company that is attractive to business buyers

<u>Long-term Achievement</u>

How would you rate the achievement of this goal?

1. For members of the owning-family to identify with the business and have a strong sense of belonging to the business
2. For members of the owning-family to participate in business decisions
3. Members of the owning-family identify with their family
4. For our customers to perceive our business as a family business.
   Note: Item was asked "I am likely to sacrifice to achieve this goal"

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