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Breaking Barriers: Inclusive Pathways to Organizational Engagement, Collaboration, and Entrepreneurial Ventures

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UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, MERCED

Expanding Horizons: Exploring Entrepreneurship, Workplace Collaboration, and  
Team Dynamics

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree  
Doctor of Philosophy

in

Management of Complex Systems

by

Charles Touma

Committee in charge:

Dr. Russ McBride, Chair  
Dr. John Abatzoglou,  
Dr. Anthony Westerling

2024

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(Dr. Anthony Westerling)

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(Dr. John Abatzoglou)

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(Dr. Russ McBride, Chair)

University of California, Merced  
2024

## Dedication

To my son Matthew and future kids, this dissertation is a dedication to you all from a first-generation college student like myself, a challenging journey filled with the hope of paving the path for your success. May this work serve as a source of inspiration for you to dream big while growing into great people. Every effort I put is for you to have a better life than I did and to make you proud. Love xxx Dad

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# Acknowledgments

To my son, Matthew, this dissertation is a dedication to you. May your father's work as a first-generation college student serve as a source of inspiration for you to dream big while growing into great person. Every effort I put is for you to have a better life than I did and to make you proud. Love xxx Dad.

# Abstract of the Dissertation

## **Breaking Barriers: Inclusive Pathways to Organizational Engagement, Collaboration, and Entrepreneurial Ventures**

By

Charles Touma

Doctor of Philosophy in Management of Complex Systems

University of California, Merced

2024

Dr. Russ McBride , Chair

Modern-day entrepreneurial ventures and workplaces are dynamic ecosystems where traditional boundaries between business setups, employees, teams, and organizational goals are constantly redefined and reshaped. During my PhD journey, I have explored three interconnected dimensions of organizational life: understanding the developing nature of entrepreneurship beyond the limits of high-tech startups, the collaborative dynamics in organizations through technology, and the transformative potential of corporate team-based sports on organizational outcomes. These three studies convey an interrelated narrative about fostering inclusivity and promoting interconnectedness inside and in the organizational ecosystem. The first study, "Entrepreneurship Without Borders," contests the narrow outlook on entrepreneurship as a high-tech startup. This is a reason for a broader and more encompassing definition that includes diverse activities in the entrepreneurship realm. It puts forward a framework for mentoring and education that empowers a wide range of entrepreneurial endeavors. This paper emphasizes that entrepreneurship goes beyond its definition to encompass development and creativity as inclusive endeavors that individuals across various sectors and environments can adopt. The second research paper, called "Share or Not to Share: A Framework for Understanding Coworker Collaborative Consumption," is concerned with sharing behavior in the workplace. It explores the factors influencing coworkers' collaborative consumption of personal and work-related goods and services via organizationally sponsored sharing platforms. Factors affecting employees' eagerness to share include technological factors, attitudes, motivations, and culture. The study advocates a framework for understanding how to connect employee attitudes with actions in collaborative

sharing practices by combining the theory of Psychological Ownership and the Technology acceptance model theory. The study illustrates how psychological ownership attitudes, sustainable consumption norms, and technology usability perceptions influence employees' sharing motivations and intentions in organizations. The ongoing third paper, "The Impact of Corporate Team-Building Sports Programs on Organizational Outcomes," explores the distinctive role of corporate team-based sports programs in shaping organizational outcomes. Grounded in three theories: Social Identity Theory, Self-Determination Theory, and Psychological Ownership Theory, this study argues that organizations that participate in regular corporate sports events can take advantage of fostering a sense of belonging, strengthen team dynamics, and enhance employee motivation. Corporate team-based sports programs go beyond helping employees with their mental and physical health, as in traditional employee wellness programs. They promote interdepartmental engagement, break down hierarchical barriers, and create a more profound sense of identity within the organization. The study gives businesses a broad theoretical framework that could help them innovate and thrive.

In summary, the studies meet on three unifying themes. First, value creation in various uncertain contexts could be transformed by redefining the entrepreneurial concept and its activities and broadening its theoretical framework to be more inclusive. Second, the research on collaborative consumption in organizations shows how technology and shared platforms may foster community and employee involvement while increasing organizational efficiency. Finally, research on corporate wellness initiatives, especially corporate team-based sports programs, highlights employee participation's profound impact on organizational outcomes. When taken as a whole, these studies provide useful information for businesses trying to handle the difficulties and complexities of a workplace that is changing quickly. They emphasize how important innovation, inclusivity, and a common goal are to fostering long-term success and worker satisfaction. The findings indicate how employee and team dynamics and engagement influence organizational outcomes. The papers suggest theoretical and practical implications for organizations to promote teamwork via team-based sports, collaboration through technology, or rethinking entrepreneurship. It encourages a significant change in how businesses are set up, how workers interact with each other, and how resources are shared. Using these tactics can make places stronger, more flexible, and better prepared for success in a world that is becoming more and more connected.

# Chapter 1 Introduction

Entrepreneurship, employee engagement, and cooperation are the core of corporate success in the modern economy. As markets become more dynamic and workplaces more diverse, conventional frameworks and techniques must be more robust to handle the complex problems enterprises encounter today. In an economy that changes quickly and is very connected, it is essential to rethink what it means to be an entrepreneur, make the workplace more engaging, and use collaborative methods. To do well and stay ahead of the competition, businesses must develop new and thorough strategies.

This study explores three interrelated concepts that tackle these urgent organizational concerns. First, it examines how entrepreneurial activities change over time, challenging common meanings and broadening the framework to include a broader range of activities that depend on the situation. Second, it examines how employee wellness programs, especially team-based sports, can boost workplace participation, morale, and unity. Lastly, it examines how technology can encourage people to work together, making sharing resources easier and improving the workplace.

This paper illuminates practical ways organizations can address modern challenges by integrating various theoretical viewpoints and strategies and anchoring discussions in empirical research. These interrelated themes underscore prospects for development while stressing the necessity for adaptive, inclusive, and sustainable methods in contemporary organizational management.

## 1.1 Modern Entrepreneurial Activities: Beyond Traditional Definitions

Entrepreneurship is often narrowly associated with high-tech startups and Silicon Valley-style innovation (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). However, this perspective overlooks the broader and more nuanced activities that embody entrepreneurial behavior. McBride and Touma (2021) argue that entrepreneurship should be understood as pursuing economic value under localized uncertainty, encompassing activities beyond high-tech ventures. This broader view fits with earlier definitions that stressed flexibility and resourcefulness, like Baker and Nelson's (2005) idea of entrepreneurial bricolage, in which people find answers with few resources.

Changing how we define business has enormous effects. Looking beyond high-tech paradigms, we can understand the different types of entrepreneurship that lead to economic and social growth. Some examples are small companies, social enterprises, and innovations that are unique to a place. This point of view is critical when trying to fix problems in global entrepreneurship, where resources and opportunities vary a lot from one area to the next. Also, making entrepreneurial education and guidance more open to everyone can help create an environment where everyone feels comfortable starting businesses that fit their specific needs and skills.

These ideas can help organizations and educators transform by showing them that entrepreneurship is more than its present definition. Because of the complexity and linkage of the problems in today's market, this change is needed to address them.

## 1.2 Enhancing Workplace Engagement Through Team-Based Wellness Programs

Employee wellness programs have long been recognized as critical to fostering engagement and productivity in the workplace (Gubler et al., 2017). While traditional wellness initiatives focus on individual health outcomes, team-based sports and activities represent a more holistic approach to employee well-being. These programs leverage Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) to enhance physical health and psychological and social connections within the organization.

Corporate sports events, for instance, create shared experiences that promote camaraderie, trust, and organizational identification (Pierce et al., 2001). Research shows that participation in such activities satisfies basic psychological needs, including relatedness, competence, and autonomy, which leads to increased motivation and engagement (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Team-building activities also break down barriers of hierarchy, allowing teams to work together and creating a sense of unity across different businesses (Brinkley et al., 2017).

Such initiatives are even more critical in a post-pandemic society where people work remotely and contact people less in person. Team-based wellness initiatives can assist companies in reestablishing workplace culture and promoting group success by fostering interpersonal relationships and common objectives.

## 1.3 Encouraging Collaboration Through Technology

Technology is essential in promoting collaborative behavior among employees. Organization-sponsored sharing platforms provide creative solutions to improve collaborative consumption among coworkers. Drawing on the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991) and the

Technology Acceptance Model (Davis, 1989), such platforms address the psychological and logistical barriers to sharing resources within the workplace.

Research highlights the potential of collaborative consumption to build trust, reduce resource waste, and enhance organizational citizenship behavior (Touma & Bhappu, 2023). However, to get these results, we need to deal with the difference between attitudes and actions that often stop people from participating in sharing efforts. Psychological ownership and usability views significantly impact how likely workers work together (Pierce et al., 2001; Davis, 1989). Managers can solve these problems by making platforms that are easy to use and encouraging a mindset of sustainability and teamwork.

In a time of limited resources and increased environmental consciousness, coworker collaborative consumption provides a strategic benefit. Companies can create a more connected and resource-efficient workplace by integrating technological solutions with organizational culture.

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## Chapter 2: Entrepreneurship without Borders

By: Russ McBride & Charles Touma

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Credit Statement: Russ McBride: Conceptualization, Writing. Charles Touma: Writing, Review and Editing.



## Abstract

The teaching of entrepreneurship in universities, as well as incubators and accelerators around the world typically gravitates toward the paradigmatic concept of entrepreneurship based upon the venture-capital funded high-tech silicon-valley-style startup. But there are at least two problems with this. The first is that actual entrepreneurship consists of a set of activities much broader than the subset of activities needed for high-tech startups. The second is that the goals of entrepreneurs often extend into far broader activities beyond those of high-tech startups. In the first part of this paper, we briefly review the history of ‘entrepreneurship’ definitions. In the second part, the implications of those definitions for teaching and mentoring are explored.

Keywords: entrepreneurship, startups, entrepreneurship pedagogy, entrepreneurship mentoring.

## 2. Introduction

Entrepreneurship is the engine that keeps modern economies alive, cleans away less efficient technologies, provides 50% of the U.S. gross domestic product in the form of small businesses, employs 60 million people (47% of the workforce) , and is the steppingstone in the development of large firms like Apple, Google, and Amazon. For how central it is to the modern economy, surprisingly, it has been mostly avoided as a topic of study and a black box to the field of economics itself until recent decades. This is in part due to the confused and conflicting conceptions of what entrepreneurship itself is (Davidsson, 2013). In fact, unlike many well-established sciences that can clearly state what their topic of study is, there is no universal agreement among entrepreneurship scholars about how to define ‘entrepreneurship’. What is physics? The study of matter and energy. What is history? The study of past events. What is entrepreneurship? Well, depending on whom you ask, it could be new ventures (Gartner, 1985), the study of entrepreneurial opportunity (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000), a kind of arbitrage (Kirzner, 1973), bricolage (Baker & Nelson, 2005), or effectuation (Sarasvathy, 2001), among many other things. We lack agreement about what exactly we are studying, and this impedes progress for the field, theoretical development, and fails to provide boundaries for empirical work. The shift from manufacturing and agriculture toward technology and the growth of the internet has resulted in the rise of high-tech companies which have drawn ever more attention in recent decades. The high-tech sector is now taken to be the locus of entrepreneurship. The enormous recent successes in high-tech have resulted in thinking of it as the paradigmatic entrepreneurial sector and so the upsurge in entrepreneurial scholarship and training has gravitated in lock step toward high-tech as the central form of entrepreneurship. It has produced the largest companies by market capitalization, lately. Six of the seven top firms by market capitalization currently are high-tech companies— in order, Apple (\$2.2T), Microsoft (\$1.9T), Saudi Aramco (\$1.9T), Amazon (\$1.7T), Alphabet/Google (\$1.6T), Facebook (\$923B), Tencent/WeChat (\$770B). The oil firm, Saudi Aramco, is the only non-high-tech firm in that list of the top seven.

Two factors that have conspired to shift the focus of entrepreneurship study, training, and mentoring toward the hi-tech sector. The first is a lack of a clear definition of ‘entrepreneurship’ itself which might otherwise include a broader understanding of it beyond the high-tech sector. The second is the fascination with the growth and strength of the high-tech sector. It is now the case that core entrepreneurial study, teaching, and mentoring all take for granted the prominence of high-tech startups and presume that the tech startup is the exemplar of entrepreneurship. The most prominent tools, like the LEAN technique, although derived from Toyota manufacturing originally were conceived within the context of software startups (Reis, 2011). Modern university courses on entrepreneurship tend to teach high-tech cases and techniques. And entrepreneurial accelerators and incubators tend to accept more high-tech startups and provide mentors with high-tech backgrounds. In what follows we will briefly explore a definition of entrepreneurship that is more precise but at the same time much broader. If useful, this definition can provide guidance for entrepreneurial training and mentoring. Then we will look at some examples of what might be included in the field of entrepreneurship once we broaden the boundaries beyond the high-tech startup.

## 2.2. Lack of consensus around a definition of ‘entrepreneurship’

Davidsson (2013) noted that 80% of entrepreneurship papers provide no definition of ‘entrepreneurship’. The first recorded use of the term is in Savary’ (1723), *Le Dictionnaire Universal du Commerce*, and is a concatenation of ‘entre’ (between) and ‘prendre’ (to take), translating roughly as one who serves as a go-between. This was usually used to refer to one who did contract work or organized a music concert and is still used as a compound term in French this way—entrepreneur de bâtiment, for example, is a building contractor. The definition has evolved through time without landing on any widely accepted definiens. Cantillon (1755) saw entrepreneurs as non-fixed income wage earners. Jean-Baptiste Say (1803) suggested that entrepreneurs shifted “resources out of an area of lower productivity into an area of higher productivity”. For Schumpeter (1947) the entrepreneur’s destructive innovations cause market disequilibrium. For Kirzner (1973) the entrepreneur restores equilibrium to the market by removing inefficiencies through arbitrage-like activities. As entrepreneurship scholarship increased in the 1970s and 1980s there was an understanding of entrepreneurship as “whatever those people doing what we call ‘entrepreneurship’ are doing” and understanding that subset of people required understanding their psychological uniqueness. But type-identifying their traits proved elusive. In Gartner’s (1988) paper entitled, “Who is an entrepreneur?” is the wrong question,” he said: “I believe the attempt to answer the question ‘Who is an entrepreneur?’ which focuses on the traits and personality characteristics of entrepreneurs, will neither lead us to a definition of the entrepreneur nor help us to understand the phenomenon of entrepreneurship.” Gartner instead advocated for understanding entrepreneurship as venture creation. A continued reaction against the ‘subjective’ approach to entrepreneurship that Gartner decried led to an attempt by Shane and Venkataraman (2000) to make it more of a respectable, ‘objective’ study by equating entrepreneurship with entrepreneurial opportunities. The problem of the circular definition was seen as avoidable by analyzing entrepreneurship as the activity of pursuing entrepreneurial opportunities and defining ‘entrepreneurial opportunities’ as opportunities to buy low and sell high, typically as a result of changes in the political or technological landscape or the discovery of innovations. Sarasvathy (2001) described entrepreneurship as

essentially involving what she referred to as ‘effectuation’, the activity of generating a profit by making the specific goal defeasible and malleable, constrained and determined by the agent’s relatively fixed resources rather than retaining a fixed goal and acquiring the resources to arrive at the goal. Baker and Nelson (2005) borrowed the idea of ‘bricolage’ from the French anthropologist, Levi-Strauss (1962) who used the term in support of his claim that aboriginals were just as entrepreneurial as “civilized” western cultures, and perhaps more so because they creatively combined what resourced they already possessed to engineer a solution, rather than acquiring new resources. Bricolage, they claimed, is the essential activity of entrepreneurship. Effectuation and bricolage are frequently seen as forming a compatible composite idea of what entrepreneurial activity is.

### 2.3. Entrepreneurship as the pursuit of profit in localized uncertainty

Debates continue without any definition having achieved consensus, though there are strands of agreement. Cantillon (1755), for example, suggested that an entrepreneur is a non-fixed-income wage earner because he buys at a known price and sells at an uncertain price. And John Stuart Mill (1848) saw the entrepreneur as one who assumes the risk of the business due to uncertain outcomes. Mises (1951) suggested that entrepreneurship is the pursuit of maximum economic value under conditions of economic uncertainty, and McBride (2018) defined ‘entrepreneurship’ as taking action to generate economic value under conditions that are novel or uncertain for the agent. So, uncertainty has been seen as playing a central role in the activity of entrepreneurship.

This begs the question about what kind of role, exactly, uncertainty might play. There have been extensive discussions of this exact question lately though a detailed treatment of them would lead us too far astray to review here (but see the special issue in the *Academy of Management Review*, and Alvarez, S., Afuah, A. and Gibson, C., 2018). For the purposes here, it is at least worth noting the distinction between uncertainty and novelty for the entrepreneur and uncertainty and novelty for society at large. An example will illustrate this. A new merchant might be entirely uncertain about what products to sell or how to source them while an experienced merchant with decades of practice will encounter little uncertainty or novelty in the process. In this case, there is local, i.e., agent-specific uncertainty for the new merchant. There is also uncertainty about the structure of dark matter in physics. This is not localized to any specific agent but rather a systemic, current limit on human knowledge in general for everyone. This is generalized uncertainty. Innovations require a reduction in societal uncertainty. Starting a new venture requires only the confrontation of local uncertainty. If entrepreneurship is the pursuit of economic value under conditions of local uncertainty for the entrepreneur, this leaves open an enormous landscape of activities that could be considered ‘entrepreneurship’, namely, the pursuit of any economic value that is novel or unknown to the agent. Opening a corner fruit stand, starting a laundromat, opening a hedge fund, designing, and selling a product, and, yes, starting a high-tech firm are all considered cases of entrepreneurship if doing so involves localized uncertainty for the entrepreneur. And we know one category of cases where there is guaranteed to always be uncertainty for anyone—whenever an agent is engaged in novel activities. This implies that anytime anyone is engaged in a novel pursuit of economic value, that person is entering uncertain terrain, regardless of whether other agents in the world have already mastered and understand that terrain. Entrepreneurial uncertainty understood as local uncertainty for the

entrepreneur rather than global (societal) uncertainty directly implies that entrepreneurship is a rather vast landscape and not specific to the high-tech sector, founding a firm, nor engaging in effectuation, bricolage, LEAN techniques, or any other specific technique. One way to assess whether this understanding of entrepreneurship makes sense is to see whether it coheres with how the term, ‘entrepreneurship’ is typically used, and when we examine use cases it does seem to cohere (McBride, 2016). We consider the agent opening her first fruit stand to be ‘entrepreneurial’ and not the agent who is opening his 400th fruit stand as part of a chain. We consider the inventor selling her first electronic device to be entrepreneurial, but not as easily consider Apple as entrepreneurial. We consider the young boy who starts a lawn-mowing business to be entrepreneurial but not the 20-year-old landscape company that only mows lawns. One explanation for this disparity is that all the former cases are cases where there is ample novelty and localized uncertainty for the agent, but not in the latter cases. So, we have a subset of definitions of ‘entrepreneurship’ that imply that uncertainty plays a core role, which in turn means that the proper domain of entrepreneurship includes any cases where an agent is pursuing economic value in contexts that are uncertain for the agent. This leaves open an enormously broad range of activities far beyond high-tech or standard product or service firms. And this is how both scholars and laypeople alike speak about entrepreneurship. There are diverse pursuits considered to be hi-tech. Further, the brief review of the history of attempts to define entrepreneurship reveals no definition of ‘entrepreneurship’ limited to the tech sector, of course (even in the times when high-tech was what we now consider “low-tech”). There are then, multiple reasons for approaching entrepreneurship scholarship, training, and mentoring as a topic that extends well beyond the tech industry despite the current association between entrepreneurship and tech start-ups.

#### 2.4. What, then, is the purview of entrepreneurship?

This immediately poses a problem. If entrepreneurship is the activity of pursuing economic value under conditions of uncertainty, as Mises (1951) suggested, then the purview of entrepreneurship is enormous. Whether it is Newton famously losing millions (in today’s dollars) in the South Sea stock bubble craze (Graham, 1949), a student starting a lawn-mowing business, Jobs, and Wozniak building the first personal computer in a garage, a commercial real estate venture, or the reselling of partially used cigarette butts in the streets of Karachi, it seems difficult to even begin to categorize the possibilities. Abandoning the paradigm of the tech start-up seems to leave us adrift with little guidance about where to focus our pedagogy. What topics should be considered as ‘basic’ areas if entrepreneurship is understood as anyone attempting to gain profit doing anything novel for them? How should university courses in entrepreneurship be structured? How should entrepreneurship incubators and accelerators be designed? How should mentors for them be chosen and what exactly should they mentor?

According to some, the ‘state space’ of entrepreneurship cannot be calculated in advance. Felin, Kauffman, Koppl, and Longo (2018) discuss the example of a man in Japan who built a business using an iPad to record the pages of people’s books so that they could sell their book libraries and make space in their apartments. This kind of business could not have been predicted before the invention of the iPad. Who would’ve predicted the success of the ‘Pet Rock’ in the 1970? Entrepreneurial activity depends on functions, and functional state space cannot be pre-calculated. Kauffman, one of the early researchers in Complexity theory at the

Santa Fe Institute, uses the example of the screwdriver. How many uses of a screwdriver are there exactly? It can be used to unscrew screws, of course. But it is also used to pry open paint cans, or scrape caulking out of a seam, and could be used as a weapon, or tied to a stick as a fishing spear, or perhaps short-circuit a future time travel machine. The uses cannot be pre-stated. Economic activity depends on human functional use, and in a rejection of Kauffman's own ground-breaking NK Landscape theory (Kauffman & Weinberger, 1989), he has suggested that the landscape cannot be pre-determined. It seems, then that there are no boundaries in entrepreneurship of a kind that could serve as a guide for determining justifiable categories. And without any 'leading categories' it's entirely unclear what specifically should be taught. In what follows we would like to suggest that this isn't a bad thing since it respects the inherent diversity and open landscape of entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship lacks any real kind of fixed borders, often creates surprises, and grounds out only in the needs and desires of people and the functions they deem valuable at any given point—all of which are wildly variable and evolving. As part of the process of acknowledging this border breakdown of entrepreneurship, we will mention a few exploratory topics worthy of consideration for inclusion, among many that have in the past typically been outside of the bright spotlight of entrepreneurial training.

## 2.5. Example topics worthy of highlight in a broader conception of entrepreneurship

The most prominent ventures with the largest returns have always captured attention so it's no surprise that tech startups have been the focus as of late. It's easy to imagine that 20,000 years ago an entrepreneurship incubator held in a limestone cave for hunter-gatherers would have discussed animal trapping techniques or methods of determining high-traffic game trails for those who wanted to trade animal meat or skins. Society today is vastly more complex and there are vastly more ways of being an entrepreneur. At least some of these should be considered for training beyond building a tech startup or building the typical product or service firm. In what follows we highlight a couple that we consider reasonable contenders for inclusion, but the point is to not to suggest that these be replacements but to provide such examples by way of showing how the boundaries can be extended to any of a variety of other entrepreneurial activities. These should be considered "starter examples" under an understanding of entrepreneurship without borders.

### 2.5.1. Acquiring a business

Purchasing a business rather than building one from scratch is not considered a standard entrepreneurial activity and has typically fallen under the domain of "mergers and acquisitions" in MBA programs, usually delivered under the presumed context that a relatively large and established firm is considering the acquisition of another well-established firm. The instructional material often tries to answer the question about what the decision space should look like, whether the firm under consideration offers a strategic advantage, and how a hostile or friendly deal should be structured. This is approached from classic strategy theory, finance theory, and management theory. But there is ample entrepreneurial opportunity to acquire small and medium-sized profit-generating assets and businesses. Why

should a budding entrepreneur acquire a business rather than follow the standard entrepreneurial playbook of building one? The standard entrepreneurial start-up success rate is not encouraging. Depending on the survey source, between 70%-90% of new start-ups fail within the first 5 years. According to the Small Business Association, first-time founders have a 90% failure rate, previously unsuccessful founders have an 80% failure rate, venture capital-funded firms have a 75% failure rate, and previously successful founders have a 70% failure rate. These numbers are not encouraging. And in the process of failing, one still has to work hard building out all the components of the business from nothing—the product or service, the founding team, marketing, inventory, client acquisition, financing, etc. Buying an already-proven profitable asset or business is less risky, and provides an instant business model with instant customers, sales, systems, employees, management structure, inventory, delivery, and sales. Further, financing a proven business is much easier than finding investors for a new venture. According to DealStats (Pratt's Stats), the investment of equivalent funds used to purchase a business vs. starting a new one typically results in a 5X higher valuation and 5X earnings, assuming the startup even survives long enough to become valuable. And on average, the risk of failure for an acquisition is 2% instead of 70%-90%. One of the same techniques used in M&A's—acquiring at a given profit/revenue multiple, improving the revenue, then selling for a profit—works just as well when buying a \$200,000 laundromat, a \$20,000 cleaning service, or a \$1,000 YouTube channel, as it does with a \$100M tech company. Only 20% of small and medium-sized businesses that go on the market actually sell (according to BizBuySell Insights, 2019). Educating a generation of buyers to help improve that number would also improve the economy. There's no reason that a standard M&A course can't be rebuilt into a more practical course that trains entrepreneurs how to acquire small assets and businesses, instead of large-scale M&A.

### 2.5.2. Licensing a product

Incubator and accelerator students often assume that brainstorming a new product idea requires building an entire business to design, manufacture, and distribute that product (and all the work that is involved around building a venture from scratch to do all of that) if they want to profit from it. This is inaccurate. Many firms will pay annual royalties, typically about 7% of gross sales, for a good product idea. Some simply enjoy the process of conceiving a new product but don't enjoy the business building side. With the rise of open innovation, where companies are seeking innovative product ideas from outside the firm, this is easy to do and typically the largest risk is in the time it takes to conceive of the idea and contact firms. Stephen Key has discussed product licensing extensively (2011, 2015) and mentored hundreds of students to successful licensing contracts. We have also included it in our entrepreneurship courses for the last 4 years. Unlike entrepreneurial venture builds, product licensing affords something more like an algorithm, a recipe that includes: market exploration; designing a product, producing a "sell sheet"; filing a provisional patent; and contacting firms that are receptive to open innovation. In addition, the terms of a licensing contract have become more or less standardized in recent years. All of this makes it much easier for a university or incubator student to understand and pursue. Of course, some still want to build a venture from scratch. But product licensing provides a nice option for those who do not want to do so.

### 2.5.3. Part-Time Businesses and ‘Side Hustles’

Some are not interested in a career as an entrepreneur but still want to build a small business or side-hustle while they finish their degree or get a standard job in an established company. There’s no reason these should be ignored, and students should be given guidance and encouragement, even though they are not planning a \$1B tech start-up. Everything from a car detailing business, a hair-cutting business, an e-book, a dog-breeding business, a fish-breeding business, a 3D gun holster printing business, game card reselling, and a smoothie business to a caviar import business has been pursued in our entrepreneurship courses and benefitted from mentoring specific to the needs of that venture, most of which escape the broader guidelines of standard management theory and strategy advice. The guidelines for students become more scattered than those for small business acquisitions or product licensing, and any mentoring runs the risk of becoming so diversified as to effectively require a different course for each student’s venture. This is part of the challenge of entrepreneurship without borders.

## 2.6. Conclusion

We have looked briefly at the history of definitions of ‘entrepreneurship’ and noted the lack of consensus. This lack of consensus speaks to the lack of a delineated boundary to entrepreneurial topic areas. Further, at least one subset of definitions depends critically on uncertainty for the entrepreneurial agent, implying, not just that there is no clear boundary but that there definitively is no boundary, since any attempt to generate economic value under conditions that are uncertain for that agent is an attempt at entrepreneurship, and there is no limit to what an individual can be uncertain about. Though recent pedagogy and mentoring has orbited around the tech start-up because of their recent well-known successes, we have evidence in favor of a much broader conception of entrepreneurship, one that affords the ability to better match the needs and values of a much wider range of would-be entrepreneurs. Using the tools from established entrepreneurship pedagogy, as well as the established theory from management and strategy where appropriate, while at the same time offering much deeper training in categories of entrepreneurship outside of hi-tech, or large product or service companies, has the potential to be more rewarding for students, help improve the economy, and increase the desirability of university courses and incubator and accelerator training. We have suggested a couple of examples of what might be included under this broader conception. We encourage others to consider further categories that might be pertinent to their audience and to help extend entrepreneurship without borders.

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# Chapter 3: To Share or Not to Share: A Framework for Understanding Coworker Collaborative Consumption

By: Charles Touma & Anita Bhappu

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## Abstract

We extend prior research by empirically demonstrating employees' attitude–behavior gap when sharing goods and services with coworkers using platform technology. We also integrate theories on psychological ownership and territoriality in organizations with the theory of planned behavior and the technology acceptance model to develop an individual-level framework for understanding employees' adoption of organization-sponsored sharing platforms, or lack thereof. Specifically, our abductive analysis of interview data from a field study illustrates how psychological ownership attitudes, sustainable consumption norms, and technology usability perceptions influence employees' sharing motivations and intentions. Our findings and framework provide organizations with a roadmap for increasing employee engagement and corporate social responsibility through coworker collaborative consumption. Managers should promote sustainable consumption in their organization and strengthen related employee norms to facilitate the sharing of goods and services among coworkers, which helps build community at work. Managers should also ensure that the chosen organizational-sponsored sharing platforms are easy to use so that employees perceive this technology as useful and feel confident using it. The implementation of these strategies should enable organizations to successfully extend the sharing economy to the workplace. Future research could also leverage our contextualized construct definitions to develop survey measures for quantitatively testing and refining our framework.

**Keywords:** employee attitude-behavior gap; sharing economy; sustainable consumption; digital platforms; technology adoption.

## 3.1. Introduction

By facilitating the utilization and recirculation of existing material goods (Carfagna, 2014), the sharing economy offers environmentally conscious consumers a way to decrease their ecological footprint (Juho et al., 2016; Phipps et al., 2013; Prothero et al., 2011; Sacks, 2011). Through social networking afforded by digital platforms in the sharing economy, consumers can access and exchange material goods and provide related services (Phipps et al., 2013). The rapid growth of this peer-to-peer consumer practice, called collaborative consumption (Botsman & Rodgers, 2010), has led many organizations to rethink and redesign their retail business models (Guttentag, 2015; Pedersen & Netter, 2015). However, Bhappu and Schultze (2018) argue that organizations have yet to fully realize the potential for collaborative consumption to increase employee engagement and corporate social responsibility (Bhappu & Schultze, 2019). Their research highlights how organization-sponsored sharing platforms enable employees to exchange goods and services with coworkers in a private online community, extending the sharing economy to the workplace. Coworker collaborative consumption facilitated by organization-sponsored sharing platforms can increase trust and organizational citizenship behavior among employees (Bhappu et al., 2020). However, getting employees to actively use an organization-sponsored sharing platform is not an easy task even though most of them are positively predisposed to consuming collaboratively with coworkers (Bhappu & Schultze, 2018; Bhappu et al., 2020; Schultze & Bhappu, 2022). In this paper, we investigate employees' attitude-behavior gap when sharing goods and services with coworkers using platform technology. Integrating prior research on the sharing economy with the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991) and the technology acceptance model (Davis, et al., 1989), we first identify constructs that could predict collaborative consumption among coworkers using an organization-sponsored sharing platform. We then describe the study and interview data that we used to contextualize these constructs and develop our theoretical framework to better understand when employees are likely to consume collaboratively with coworkers and when they are not. Using qualitative analysis, we illustrate how employees' psychological ownership attitudes, perceived technology usability, and subjective norms for sustainable consumption influence their intentions and motivations to share goods with coworkers. We conclude by discussing our findings and future research.

### 3.1.1 Coworker collaborative consumption

Collaborative consumption is the peer-to-peer consumer exchange of material goods enabled by digital platforms in the sharing economy (Botsman & Rodgers, 2010). By circulating their possessions for others to use, as well as using others' belongings, consumers engage in the act and process of sharing (Belk, 2007). Sharing has been societies' most basic form of economic distribution for thousands of years (Price, 1975). It is non-reciprocal, pro-social behavior (Benkler, 2004) that connects people and creates feelings of collective bonding and solidarity (Belk, 2010; John, 2013). Sharing encourages collaboration by influencing others to be generous and selfless (Reagle, 2010). Sharing creates and recreates community within a group of people (Eisenstein, 2011), thereby manifesting the commons in a sharing economy (Lessig, 2008). Even when interacting with unseen and unknown others, sharing connotes interdependence, community, trust, selflessness, giving and caring (John, 2013). One type of sharing, which Belk (2010) calls "sharing-in", is prototypical within a family where material goods are perceived as owned in common. Family members do not ask for permission to use kitchen appliances, turn on the lights, or take a bath. In other words, things shared by family members are considered joint possessions. Sharing-in generates no reciprocity or debt because no one keeps track of members' consumption or tries to strike a

balance between giving and taking (Godbout & Caille, 1998). However, sharing-in obligates family members to take care of their joint property, which includes not overusing or damaging shared goods, so they are left in a similar state of readiness for another family member to use.

Coworker collaborative consumption resembles sharing-in because employers typically pay for the goods and services used by employees to perform their work, including technology access to an organization-sponsored sharing platform and any related transaction fees (Bhappu et al., 2020). Employees are also expected to take care of organization-owned assets so that these goods are ready for use by coworkers and not damaged by negligence. However, some organization-owned assets are assigned to and possessed by individual employees who have psychological ownership of them (Bhappu & Helm, 2018). To gain access to these assets, coworkers must request to borrow them from employees who control them. In contrast, organization-owned assets available for use by any employee are usually stored in common areas and open spaces.

### 3.1.2. Attitude-behavior gap

Coworkers who consume collaboratively using an organization-sponsored sharing platform have citizen and consumer motives (Bhappu et al., 2020). Similarly, consumers in the sharing economy also have prosocial and materialistic motivations (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012). Many seek alternative ways to consume because they are critical of capitalism, how markets operate, and how economies are structured (Schor et al., 2016). Schultz et al. (2018) argue that individuals might be inclined to consume more sustainably when they see other people participating in such behavior. However, when information about normative sustainable consumption is not widely available, sharing goods and services is often motivated by just economic gains (Juho et al. 2016).

Regardless of why people may be predisposed to sharing, empirical research on collaborative consumption among consumers (Phipps et al., 2013; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006) and coworkers (Bhappu et al., 2020; Bhappu & Schultze, 2018; Schultze & Bhappu, 2022) substantiates the existence of an attitude-behavior gap (Ajzen, 1991). In other words, individuals' positive attitudes and behavioral intentions regarding collaborative consumption do not always translate into actual sharing behavior (Juho et al., 2016). In the case of consumers, this sharing attitude-behavior gap may be due to a "crowding-out" effect over time wherein extrinsic motivational factors (e.g., social status) override initial intrinsic ones (e.g., citizenship) (Frey & Jegen, 2001). However, when it comes to collaborative consumption in organizations, the attitude-behavior gap may reflect employees' perceived risks of sharing goods with coworkers (Bhappu et al., 2020).

Generally speaking, attitude-behavior gaps are explained by the theory of planned behavior (TPB; Ajzen, 1991), which is based on the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975), self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977), and expectancy theory (Robey, 1979). TPB suggests that the inconsistency between an individual's behavioral intentions and subsequent behavior can be explained by their attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control. Regarding technology-mediated environments, in particular, the technology acceptance model (TAM; Davis et al., 1989) extends TPB to explain attitude-behavior gaps related to use of information systems such as digital platforms. TAM accounts for the perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness of technology to understand why individuals may not use information systems. We, therefore, use both TPB and TAM to theoretically explain coworkers' attitude-behavior gap when consuming collaboratively using an organization-sponsored sharing platform (see Figure 1). Therefore, the constructs in our

theoretical framework are categorized as attitudes, subjective norms, and technology usability. We now discuss them in more depth.

### 3.1.3. Psychological ownership attitudes

Psychological ownership, including affective and cognitive attitudes (Pierce et al., 2001; Pierce et al., 2003), influences peer-to-peer sharing behavior (Bhappu & Helm, 2018; Pasimemi, 2021; Pino et al., 2022). An individual develops psychological ownership of a tangible or intangible thing when it enhances their sense of efficacy, identity, and/or place (Bhappu & Helm, 2018; Pierce et al., 2001). Furthermore, they can have possessive attitudes (Dittmar, 1992; Furby, 1978), which are reflected in commonly used phrases such as, ‘this is my car’ or ‘that is my office’, regardless of whether they legally own the associated object or space (Wilpert, 1991).

Psychological ownership may negatively impact collaborative consumption if individuals’ attachment to objects and spaces in their possession induces the tendency to protect and limit others’ access to them (Hall, 1966; Wilpert, 1991). On the other hand, psychological ownership of an organization can lead to a variety of constructive behaviors (Nuttin, 1987; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004) such as increased personal sacrifice, felt responsibility, and organizational citizenship (Beaglehole, 1932; Brown et al., 2014; Dipboye, 1977; Furby, 1978; Korman, 1970). Additionally, employees who feel psychological ownership towards their employer may perceive themselves as organizational stewards (Davis et al., 1997) and increase coworkers’ access to their possessed objects and spaces if this collaborative consumption benefits their organization (Pierce et al., 2001).

We now review the literature on three specific psychological ownership attitudes and their relationship to collaborative consumption.

#### 3.1.3.1. *Functional attachment*

Some consumers develop a functional attachment to a material good based on its perceived usefulness (Onel et al., 2018). They tend to appreciate an object for its utility (e.g., protection and shelter) and the resources used in its production (e.g., raw materials and human energy). For these individuals, goods are valuable because they fulfill a need rather than a desire, and not because they represent economic or social status (Carr & Vignoles, 2011; Rauschnabel et al., 2015), or an extended self (Belk, 1988). People who are functionally attached to material goods experience joy and personal satisfaction when they share them with others because they believe that this sustainable consumption extends the usefulness of goods (Onel et al., 2018). Therefore, employees who are functionally attached to objects and spaces in their workplace should be inclined to share them with coworkers.

#### 3.1.3.2. *Possessive attachment*

Employees may, however, develop possessive feelings towards tangible or intangible objects (Beaglehole, 1932; James, 1890) that they legally own or not (Wilpert, 1991). Such possessive attachment is often coupled with feelings of mastery and control (Kleine & Baker, 2004), which are characteristics of materialism (Belk, 1985). An individual who develops a possessive attachment to a material good may be reluctant to share it with others and will instead seek to control and protect it (Pierce et al., 2001). Therefore, possessive attachment should impede coworker collaborative consumption in organizations. However, studies on brand communities (Muniz & O’Guinn, 2001; Mathwick et al., 2008) indicate that possessive attachment and collaborative consumption may be reinforcing and compatible (Belk, 2010).

Therefore, employees who belong to brand communities may find that their possessive attachment is enhanced by sharing goods with coworkers who admire the same brand.

### 3.1.3.3. *Community attachment*

Employees who perceive themselves as part of a work community often act as stewards (Davis et al., 1997). Their community attachment drives them to engage in organizational citizenship behavior and coworker collaborative consumption, which they perceive as a culturally normative, prosocial activity (Bhappu et al., 2020). Community attachment should, therefore, enhance coworker collaborative consumption in organizations.

### 3.1.4. Subjective norms for sustainable consumption

Aside from psychological ownership attitudes, subjective norms also influence individual behavior. Perceived social pressure to perform expected behaviors constitutes a subjective norm (Azjen, 1991), and empirical research in many different contexts has demonstrated that individuals act in accordance with the behavioral expectations of subjective norms (Azjen, 1991; Watters, 1989). Therefore, we now review the literature on three subjective norms that should encourage coworkers to consume collaboratively.

#### 3.1.4.1. *Pro-environmental behavior*

According to Bamberg and Moser (2007), pro-environmental behaviors reflect an individual's self-interest and concern for their surroundings, the next generation, other species, and/or whole ecosystems. Such behaviors include reduced consumption and recycling of material goods, water and energy conservation, and transportation with low/no emissions. Engagement in pro-environmental behaviors "that harm the natural environment as little as possible or even benefit the environment" (Steg & Vlek 2009, p. 309) reflects an individual's subjective norm for sustainable consumption. Therefore, employees who engage in pro-environmental behaviors should be positively predisposed to coworker collaborative consumption.

#### 3.1.4.2. *Sharing Economy Participation*

According to Carfagna et al. (2014), participation in the sharing economy also indicates a subjective norm for sustainable consumption. People who engage in sustainable behavior feel obligated to help and share with others (Prothero et al., 2011; Sacks, 2011). When engaging in coworker collaborative consumption, employees have citizen and consumer motives (Bhappu et al., 2020). Therefore, those who have previously participated in the broader sharing economy should be more likely to consume collaboratively with coworkers.

#### 3.1.4.3. *Organizational culture*

Employees also learn about subjective norms for sustainable consumption through their organization's culture, which is the shared basic assumptions of coworkers about the right way to solve internal, external, and environmental problems (Park et al., 2004). Each organization's culture is unique and develops over time to reflect its collective identity's visible and invisible dimensions (McDermott & O'Dell, 2001). The visible dimension of culture is represented in the organization's mission, goals, and values, whereas the invisible dimension is reflected in employees' perceptions and actions. Prior research indicates that coworker collaborative consumption is higher in organizations that offer employees multiple options for sustainable consumption than in those that promote only a few options (Schultze

& Bhappu, 2022). Therefore, employees should be more likely to engage in coworker collaborative consumption if they perceive that there are subjective norms to do so in their organization.

### 3.1.5. Technology usability

In addition to attitudes and subjective norms, employees' perceptions of a sharing platform's technology can influence their engagement in collaborative consumption of coworker. Technology usability is defined as users' effectiveness, satisfaction, and efficiency in achieving identified goals in a specific technological context (Scolari, 2009). Technology usability is correlated with decreased cognitive and physical burdens for users and hence, increased usage of technology (Crane, 2017). We now review the literature on perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness of technology because these TAM (Davis et al., 1989) constructs explain attitude-behavior gaps related to use of information systems such as an organization-sponsored sharing platform. We also discuss perceived behavioral control, which is a TPB (Ajzen, 1991) construct, because it has been shown to predict individuals' technology adoption (Venkatesh et al., 2003).

#### 3.1.5.1. *Perceived usefulness & ease of use*

When examining how technology usability influences individual behavior, perceived usefulness and ease of use are well-known constructs that predict individuals' adoption of information systems (Compeau & Higgins, 1995; Rogers & Williams, 1983). According to Davis et al. (1989), perceived usefulness is the degree to which an individual believes that his or her job performance would be enhanced by a particular information system. On the other hand, perceived ease of use is the degree to which an individual believes that using an information system would be effort-free. Davis et al. (1989) also argue that perceived usefulness and ease of use are correlated; the easier it is to use technology, the more valuable it will be. Prior research (Casalo et al., 2010) indicates that there is a direct relationship between perceived usefulness and employees' intention to participate in online travel communities sponsored by their employing organization. Therefore, employees should be more likely to consume collaboratively using an organization-sponsored sharing platform if they perceive it to be valuable and easy to use.

#### 3.1.5.2. *Perceived behavioral control*

Perceived behavioral control reflects whether an individual believes they have access to the resources and opportunities necessary to perform an action (Ajzen, 1991), which measures their self-efficacy (Pavlou & Fygenson, 2006). Perceived behavioral control, therefore, captures an individual's concerns about internal and external factors that may hinder their use of information systems. In fact, a recent study by Yi et al. (2020) found that perceived behavioral control influences consumers' intention to adopt sharing economy platforms. Therefore, employees should be more likely to consume collaboratively using an organization-sponsored sharing platform if their perceived behavioral control is sufficiently high.



## 3.2. Data and methods

Having identified critical constructs from prior research that could predict collaborative consumption among coworkers using an organization-sponsored sharing platform, we now describe the unpublished interview data from a study conducted by Bhappu et al. (2020) that we used to contextualize these constructs and develop our theoretical framework.

### 3.2.1. Organizational sample

For their study, Bhappu et al. (2020) piloted an organization-sponsored sharing platform at a U.S. public university with a solid commitment to campus sustainability and community engagement. The university had a complex organizational hierarchy consisting of many departments and functions across multiple buildings and locations, which resembled large corporations' matrix structures and organizational dynamics. Among the university's approximately 1700 employees, 54% were female, 24% were faculty, 67% were staff, and 9% were in other academic positions. In terms of ethnicity, the two most prominent groups were White (50%) and Hispanic (23%). The study was approved by the university's Institutional Review Board, and participants consented to share their de-identified interviews and survey responses for subsequent research such as ours.

### 3.2.2. Platform technology

The piloted organization-sponsored sharing platform consisted of two mobile applications designed to enable all university employees to engage in sharing exchanges with coworkers. The Share@Home mobile application facilitated employee sharing of goods and services for personal use. The Share@Work mobile application facilitated employee sharing of goods and services for professional use. Both mobile applications recorded users' logins, messages, and sharing exchanges and any data that users inputted or deleted about their goods, services, and profile. The mobile applications did not store any location or search data or have reputation or performance ratings.

To use either of the mobile applications, employees had to first authenticate themselves using the university's single sign-on system, then accept the study consent form and finally agree to the technology provider's terms of use. Once they did that, employees could set up a profile with their contact information; a profile photo was recommended but optional. No money was exchanged when lending goods or volunteering services via mobile applications; all items were shared for free. To offer a good or service on mobile applications, employees had to provide descriptive information and calendar availability for the item and upload at least one photo. When deciding what to offer, employees could review and respond to coworkers' posted needs or list a good or service they felt comfortable sharing. To find what they needed or browse listed goods and services, employees could search for newly offered items or search by keyword or category. They could anonymously message coworkers who were offering items that interested them; these coworkers were anonymous to them too. They could also post a need for a good or service not currently offered. When an employee submitted a request for a good or service using either of the mobile applications, the platform sent a push notification to the coworker who had offered to share it. This coworker could review the employee's profile information, their requested start and end dates, and exchange location. If the coworker denied their sharing request, the employee received a push notification of this

decision, but the coworker remained anonymous. If their sharing request was accepted, the employee received a push notification and gained access to the coworker's profile information for coordinating the scheduled exchange. As sharing exchanges progressed, the platform sent both the employee and the coworker push notifications and status updates including reminders of scheduled meetups and prompts to confirm completed actions (e.g., good was picked up, service has started).

### 3.2.3. Platform technology

To gain insights from early users of this platform, the research team emailed a survey to all 35 university employees who had registered to use the Share@Home and/or Share@Work mobile applications during the first two months of the study. They were also invited to participate in an individual interview with the research team. Only one employee had taken the survey after three days, so the research team forwarded their original email to the other 34 employees with a personalized message. This second email included the employee's name, a statement emphasizing the importance of their insights, and a clarification that interviews would be conducted remotely using Zoom software.

A total of 7 employees (20% of early users) completed the survey and were interviewed within four weeks of the original email invitation. They were interviewed by a research team member who used the same semi-structured protocol to probe how these early users came to use the mobile application(s), their technical and interpersonal experiences, their attitudes about risk and trust, and suggested improvements for the platform technology. After confirming consent and allowing the employee to ask questions, the research team member turned off the Zoom video functionality and began audio recording the interview. On average, each interview lasted 33 minutes, ranging from 19 to 46 minutes. Each recorded interview was transcribed, and transcripts were stripped of personal identifying information. All seven employees were thanked via email and scheduled to receive their \$20 cash compensation; one refused to accept this payment.

We used this interview data to qualitatively contextualize our identified constructs and develop our theoretical framework for predicting collaborative consumption among coworkers using an organization-sponsored sharing platform.

### 3.2.4. Qualitative data analysis

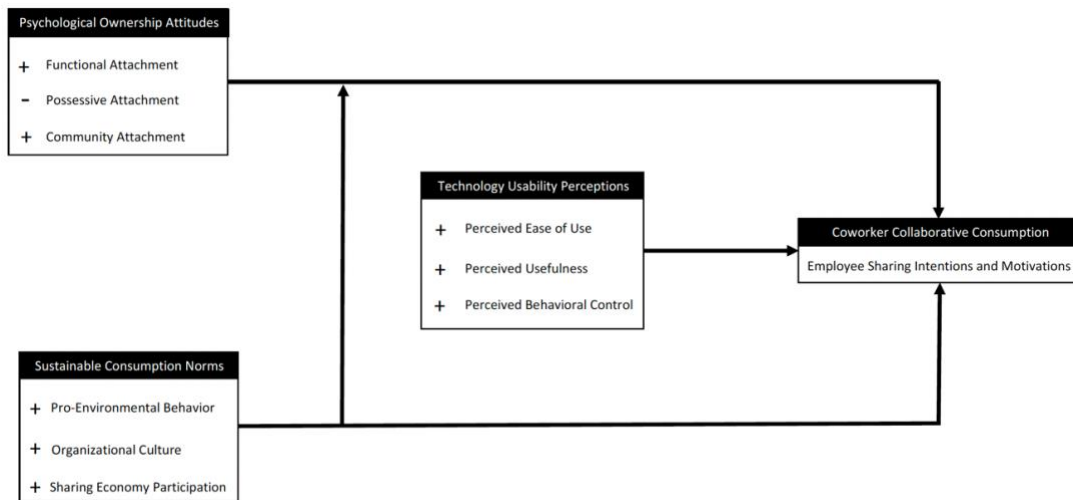
We adopted an abductive approach (Locke et al., 2008) to analyze the early user interviews. Abduction is a process of iteratively going back and forth between theory and data to arrive at new insights that are both empirically and theoretically grounded (Alvesson & Kärreman, 2007; Van Maanen et al., 2007; Walsham, 2006). We first sketched a model reflecting our initial hunches for how the identified constructs might predict collaborative consumption among coworkers. We then developed definitions for each construct within the context of the university study. Next, we used these initial contextualized construct definitions to create a codebook for analyzing our qualitative data. As we individually analyzed the early user interviews, we had many in-depth discussions on how interview quotes should be coded, which led to further refinement of our construct definitions. Our codebook was, therefore, updated on multiple occasions when we agreed to revise construct definitions during the discursive and iterative process of analyzing interviews. Our final codebook and exemplar

interview quotes are shown in Table 1. The insights generated by our qualitative data analysis also helped us develop our theoretical framework, depicted in Figure 1.

### 3.3. Discussion

Our theoretical framework provides an explanation for employees' attitude-behavior gap when sharing material goods with coworkers using organizational-sponsored sharing platforms. We illustrate how employees' psychological ownership attitudes, perceived technology usability, and subjective norms for sustainable consumption influence their intentions and motivations to consume collaboratively with coworkers.

Figure 3.3 Coworker collaborative consumption using an organization-sponsored sharing platform



#### 3.3.1. Psychological Ownership Attitudes

We found that employees' attitudes and beliefs about consuming collaboratively with coworkers were influenced by their possessive and functional attachment to material goods and their attachment to the university community.

Although functional attachment was scarcely mentioned in our interview data, it positively affected employees' sharing motivations and intentions when it was present. Employees had functional attachment to items irrespective of whether they were for personal or professional use.

If somebody needs to use a fiber fusion slicer, I have one. It's in my cabinet down in the lab, and it's something that we use regularly. It's just a tool for us, but it's a twenty thousand dollar tool and somebody else who has a, you know, a laser that they use in there, you know, their

microscope and somebody broke the fiber, right, I mean we can splice it, it takes two minutes they'd be back up and going, you know? Instead of calling Nikon to fix the microscope. So that just seemed to me to be something that was ... had such a vast upside benefit (#150EU)

Possessive attachment, on the other hand, hurt employees' sharing motivations and intentions. It manifested as employees' mastery and protectiveness of material goods. Employees displayed possessive attachment for personal and work-related items of high financial and sentimental value.

I have like this really nice mixer for the kitchen that's something I would only lend to people that I knew personally (#507EU)

Community attachment was most frequently mentioned in our interview data as a reason for engaging in goods sharing with coworkers. Employees expressed a genuine concern for the welfare of coworkers and the university. They were also trusting of coworkers despite the risk of shared items being damaged or stolen.

I wanted to accomplish being a good neighbor (#150EU)

### 3.3.2. Technology Usability of an Organization-Sponsored Sharing Platform

Employees' perceptions of the Share@Home and Share@Work mobile applications also influenced their motivations and intentions to consume collaboratively with coworkers. Those that had a positive user experience perceived the platform technology as being easy to use.

It was pretty intuitive, pretty simple which was good for me. I'm older so trying to dig through and find where you're supposed to do things can be tricky sometimes (#518EU)

Most employees had positive experiences using the mobile applications to share goods with coworkers. They perceived the platform technology as facilitating coworker connections and creating consumer value.

I think it lowers the barrier to asking people for help (#510EU)

Well, I think the app is a really good way to get to people to find the stuff because you've got someplace to go. Otherwise, you'd just be searching on like well I guess through Facebook or whatever like the marketplace and all those other things. But I think the app is good place so long as people know about it (#515EU)

However, some employees emphasized that the functionality and user interface of the mobile applications could be improved.

I feel like it's still again it's still in progress ... It's not really, I mean it's there, it's usable, but it's not it's not at an A grade yet (#510EU)

Additionally, we found that employees' perceived behavioral control when using the mobile applications influenced their motivations and intentions to consume collaboratively with coworkers. Those who lacked experience using the platform technology or needed more information were hesitant to engage.

I don't feel confident responding or posting on the app because I haven't done it. I'm not sure what it would involve (#518EU)

I didn't want to violate policy and I got to check with my director too and make sure that it's going to be OK with him (#518EU).

### 3.3.3. Subjective Norms for Sustainable Consumption

Subjective norms for sustainable consumption were demonstrated by employees' engagement in pro-environmental behaviors and the sharing economy, along with their perception of whether the university supported coworker collaborative consumption. Not surprisingly,

employees who were environmentally conscious and already engaged in the sharing economy were more likely share goods with coworkers.

I am a person who is very conscientious about recycling about you know trying to minimize how much stuff I throw away. I do a lot of taking stuff to the secondhand stores, or Goodwill, or Salvation Army so others can use things (#134EU)

I just stayed in a couple of Airbnb's over the weekend, so I think it's kind of that similar social contract that you're entering in the sharing economy that we're in now (#507EU)

Some employees believed that the university would encourage goods sharing, whereas others thought there was room for improvement in its sustainability practices.

Well I think it's a good community. We have a pretty good understanding of sustainability.

And I think if the culture is right then our campus will invite us to do that ... I think we have that culture (#174EU)

I think there's lots of room for improvement on like sustainability and, you know like not wasting, and I think any tools that contribute to that are welcome and needed (#507EU).

#### 3.3.4. Coworker Collaborative Consumption

Employees expressed both consumer and citizen motives for consuming collaboratively with coworkers. Some perceived financial and efficiency benefits in sharing goods.

It'd be nice to be able to have those kinds of shared things around tools that one group uses a lot, that another group might need to use just once or twice. That mighty, you know, save them a ton of money and time (#150EU)

Others were simply curious and enjoyed browsing through the goods available on the mobile applications.

It makes it more like shopping for other stuff (#507EU)

A few even framed their engagement with the platform technology and sharing of goods with coworkers as forwarding the university's research mission.

I thought it was a good way of supporting research (#174EU)

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## Chapter 4: The Impact of Corporate Team-Building Sports Programs on Organizational Outcomes

By: Charles Touma

This paper is currently in development and represents a significant exploration of the topic

Credit Statement: Charles Touma: conceptualization, theorizing writing, review and editing

## Abstract

Corporate team-building sports programs offer new paths to improve organizational outcomes, workplace dynamics, and employee engagement. This study examines the immediate and long-term impacts on psychological ownership, organizational identification, and team cohesion. The research explores how team-based activities foster collaboration, motivation, and a sense of belonging among employees by integrating Social Identity Theory, Self-Determination Theory, and Psychological Ownership Theory. A mixed-methods approach combines longitudinal and comparative designs to provide a nuanced understanding of the benefits. Quantitative data is collected at three intervals—before, immediately after, and six months post-event—while qualitative insights are gathered through interviews and observations. Cross-sectional comparisons with organizations lacking such programs contextualize the unique contributions of corporate sports events. The results are expected to show that these activities satisfy employees' basic psychological demands for autonomy, competence, and relatedness while enhancing communication, morale, and retention. However, the study also recognizes logistical difficulties, sports choices, and diversity issues. The study provides practical suggestions for creating inclusive and effective team-building activities by filling in these gaps. This study adds to the expanding body of research on workplace wellness by giving businesses evidence-based tactics to build motivated, engaged, and cohesive teams for long-term success.

**Keywords:** Workplace culture, team-building programs, corporate sports events, employee retention strategies, employee engagement, team dynamics, psychological ownership, organizational identification, Self-Determination Theory, workplace behavior, employee motivation, corporate wellness programs, employee retention.

## 4.1. Introduction

Companies are becoming more aware that the health and happiness of their workers are significant factors in determining their output, engagement, and willingness to stay with the company (Brinkley et al., 2017; Falkenberg, 1987; Gubler et al., 2017). The rise of online work has sped up this change, changing how work is done and making it more critical for employees to get to know each other on a social level. In the past, office wellness programs primarily focused on improving mental and physical health through gym memberships, lifestyle counseling, and health screenings. Not only are these programs meant to improve people's health, but they are also meant to have wider benefits for the company, such as

higher productivity, lower absenteeism, and a better work-life balance. However, traditional wellness programs often center on individual outcomes, needing more mechanisms to address the collective dimensions of workplace culture and team cohesion.

Team-based wellness programs, like corporate team-building sports events, have become popular in recent years. They can help close this gap by focusing on individual health and the company's cohesiveness (Pichot et al., 2009). These vents are different from regular classes because they focus on working together and having a common goal. Corporate team-building sports activities go beyond individual-focused wellness programs because they get employees to work together on teams and fight against other companies. This results in more collective engagement and organizational identification (Gubler et al., 2017). These kinds of events also break down walls of rank and promote respect and friendship between departments. Structured team-building events improve communication, strengthen bonds, and create a culture of connection at work (Pichot et al., 2009; Brinkley et al., 2017). Programs like the "Corporate Games" in Dubai show how these activities can help people feel like they belong, make everyone feel welcome, and motivate workers. By focusing on shared success and teamwork, these events help both workers and companies in the long term.

Aligned with theoretical frameworks like Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), corporate sports events fulfill psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, fostering intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction. This approach contrasts with traditional wellness programs, which often focus on individual health outcomes without directly fostering collective engagement or strengthening organizational identity. This study is one of a kind because it combines ideas from Social Identity Theory, Self-Determination Theory, and Psychological Ownership Theory to give a complete picture of the unique benefits of business sports events. This study shows how team-building sports events can improve workplace harmony, employee participation, and company success by looking at short-term and long-term effects.

#### 4.1.1. Defining the Problem and Research Question

The modern workplace has dramatically changed because of remote work, automation, and changing employee standards. Traditional wellness programs have helped people's health but only sometimes focus on the social and organizational aspects of improving teamwork and employee involvement. Specifically, there needs to be more understanding of how structured team-oriented activities, such as corporate sports events, influence broader organizational outcomes like psychological ownership, organizational identification, and team dynamics. This study seeks to address the following research question:

What is the impact of corporate team-building sports events on employees' sense of ownership, including psychological ownership, organizational identification, and social identity?

This study explains how team-based activities cultivate belonging, motivation, and commitment among employees. Additionally, it examines how these dynamics differ from those created by traditional wellness programs, which tend to prioritize individual well-being over collective experiences.

#### 4.1.2. Potential Applications in the Field

The study's results provide helpful information for changing how organizations work. These results help people in human resources plan team-building activities that are good for both individuals and the company. For example, businesses could create custom programs that boost morale, help teams work together, and encourage people from different departments to work together. The study's longitudinal design makes it possible to see changes over time and look at the short-term and long-term effects of corporate sports events. By looking at what people went through before, right after, and six months after these events, the study hopes to find long-term benefits like higher job satisfaction and retention.

These insights can help companies use their data to allocate resources and plan for the future of their wellness programs. This study has bigger implications for policymakers and business leaders who want to create workplaces where people can work together and be healthy. By filling in gaps in current wellness practices, this study adds to the growing field of workplace behavior research. It also opens the door for future research into structured team-building programs.

## 4.2. Literature Review

Employee wellness programs are designed to create a healthier and more productive workforce by addressing employees' physical, mental, and emotional needs. Traditional wellness programs typically focus on individual health outcomes through fitness classes, nutritional counseling, stress management workshops, and preventive health measures. The literature indicates that these programs have benefits, such as better employee health, less stress, fewer turnover rates, and higher morale. Such programs also help the company by lowering absenteeism and healthcare costs, making employees happier, and promoting a better work-life balance (Gubler et al., 2017).

However, while effective at improving personal well-being, traditional wellness programs often must address team dynamics and organizational connection. Research has shown that such programs primarily emphasize individual health improvements rather than collective identity or cohesion—key drivers of organizational success (Brinkley et al., 2017; Falkenberg, 1987). Due to this gap and the demand for such solutions, organizations now want strategies that combine social and organizational aspects, hence the need for creative alternatives like corporate team-building sports events.

Corporate team-building sports events offer a distinct approach to workplace wellness, emphasizing collaboration, camaraderie, and shared goals. By engaging employees in team-based activities within competitive settings, these initiatives foster a sense of belonging and collective identity that enhances organizational loyalty and engagement (Pichot et al., 2009; Gubler et al., 2017). On the other hand, team sports encourage inclusivity by breaking down barriers between departments and levels of management and letting employees work together toward common goals. This supportive setting helps create a unified company culture that is missing from many traditional wellness programs (McDermott, 2017).

Research demonstrates the tangible benefits of team-building sports programs. For instance, companies that incorporate sports-based wellness initiatives report significant performance improvements. A Peak Sales Recruiting (2015) study found that team-building activities

increased team performance by 25%. For example, sports-based team-building programs at Google and Zappos led to a 20% increase in cooperation and a 15% increase in overall performance (Spoleto, 2016). Case studies like these demonstrate how team sports can help an organization succeed by building trust and respect among employees and improving relationships between employees.

Furthermore, corporate team-building sports events allow employees to face challenges and collectively celebrate achievements. Such shared experiences reinforce the value of teamwork and collaboration in achieving shared goals. These events build a culture of unity, trust, and mutual support by giving all employees a place to feel valued and able to do their jobs. Unlike traditional wellness initiatives, which prioritize individual well-being, corporate team-building sports events address collective engagement and identity-building, resulting in sustained improvements in team cohesion, morale, and organizational loyalty (Brinkley et al., 2017; Pichot et al., 2009).

The theoretical underpinnings of these programs provide further insights into their effectiveness. Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) suggests that participation in team sports strengthens employees' connection to their organization by fostering a sense of group membership and pride. Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000) highlights how team-based activities fulfill psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, increasing intrinsic motivation and satisfaction. Together, these frameworks demonstrate how corporate sports events bridge individual well-being with organizational goals by addressing psychological and social needs.

To sum up, corporate team-building sports events change workplace wellness by incorporating communication, teamwork, and a sense of shared purpose into strategies for getting employees involved. These programs help teams work together, give the company a purpose, and get employees involved. Such programs offer employees the opportunity to balance their needs and align them with the needs of their organization. This is good for both employees and companies in the long run. These programs also offer a great path to improve workplace dynamics and organizational success and a replacement for traditional wellness programs.

### 4.3. Literature Gap and Hypothesis

Although the research focused on employee wellness initiatives and their influence on personal well-being and efficiency levels, more evidence must be examined to examine the benefits of team-oriented competitive sports as part of a corporate wellness approach. Most studies on wellness programs tend to highlight results like improvements in physical health, stress management, and increased productivity (Gubler et al., 2017). Nonetheless, there needs to be more literature on the organizational effects of team-oriented competition. Even though the literature indicates organizational benefits, there still needs to be more understanding of how these team interactions influence organizational results, like team unity, company identity, and individual ownership. Hence, filling this gap and investigating how these events affect more than just employees' health is crucial. We need to know how they affect employee loyalty, commitment, and rates of staying with the company over time. Looking into these

events' short- and long-term effects on how people interact at work could give human resources great ideas and best practices. By looking into the impact of team sports on health and interpersonal connections, this study offers guidance for companies aiming to foster a dedicated, united, and adaptable workforce.

#### 4.3.1. Research Hypotheses

To address the gaps identified in this study, the following hypotheses are proposed:

**Hypothesis 1:** Participation in corporate team-based sports events leads to a measurable increase in employee job satisfaction and team cohesion, with sustained improvements observed six months after the event compared to baseline levels.

**Hypothesis 2:** Employees who engage in corporate team-based sports events experience a significant enhancement in their sense of psychological ownership and organizational identification. This enhancement is driven by these events' collaborative and goal-oriented nature, which fosters alignment with the organization's values and goals through symbolic representation and shared achievements.

**Hypothesis 3 (Null Hypothesis):** Corporate team-based sports events do not have a significant impact on individual, team, or organizational outcomes such as employee job satisfaction, trust, communication, collaboration across departments, sense of belonging, etc.

**Hypothesis 4:** Fulfilling core psychological needs—autonomy, competence, and relatedness—mediates the relationship between participation in corporate team-based sports events and employee intrinsic motivation, resulting in improved workplace engagement.

**Hypothesis 5:** The interaction of organizational identification, psychological ownership, and a sense of belonging explains variations in long-term organizational outcomes, such as employee retention, productivity, and cultural alignment, after participating in corporate team-based sports events.

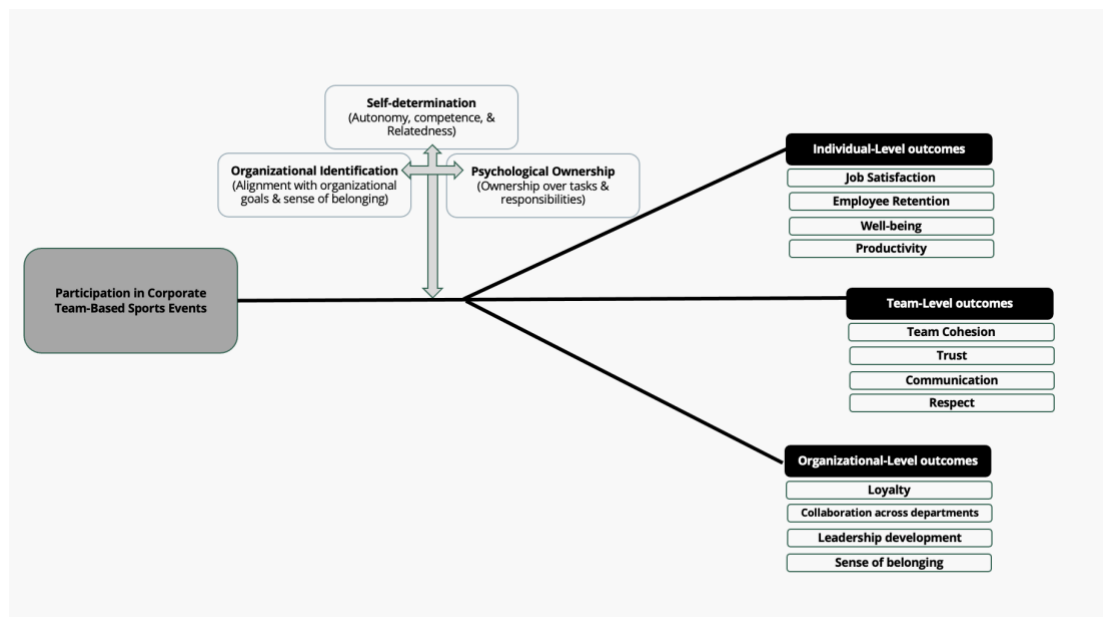
**Hypothesis 6:** Organizations that incorporate corporate team-based sports events exhibit higher levels of employee engagement, cross-departmental collaboration, and organizational performance than organizations without such initiatives.

#### 4.4. Theoretical Framework

This study explores how company-sponsored sports events influence teamwork dynamics and employee engagement by drawing on three core theories: Social Identity Theory, Self Determination Theory, and Psychological Ownership Theory. This study argues the benefits of corporate team-building sports events compared to standard well-being programs through the lens of each theory.

Figure 4.4. Impact of Corporate Sports Events on Individual, Team, and Organizational Outcomes.





#### 4.4.1. Social Identity Theory

Tajfel and Turner's social identity theory (1979) posits that individuals derive a part of their self-identity from their groups, such as teams or organizations. Tajfel and Turner suggest group memberships that provide positive self-identity and pride enhance self-esteem and belonging. This theory applies to corporate team-building sports events, where employees represent their organizations in competitive settings. As workers work together to build a team personality, participation helps them feel like they fit and create unity. According to research, workers who play team sports feel more connected to their company because they are proud to represent their teams and feel like they belong (Coach & Athletic Director, 2015). These events also break down walls between levels of management so coworkers can see each other as partners instead of just coworkers. Changing how people see things helps create a unified workplace culture that encourages teamwork and company identity. Business Team-Building Sports Events uses the ideas of Social Identity Theory to help employees feel more connected to their company, which leads to more cooperation, trust, and respect between coworkers.

#### 4.4.2. Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

Self-determination theory (SDT), introduced by Deci and Ryan (1985), emphasizes fulfilling three basic psychological needs—autonomy, competence, and relatedness—as fundamental for intrinsic motivation and well-being. Autonomy is the need to feel in control of one's actions; competence refers to the need to feel capable and effective, and relatedness signifies the need for meaningful connections with others. Team-based corporate sports events exemplify SDT principles by fostering these core needs. Employees feel more in control when they plan and make decisions during games, which helps their sense of autonomy. They also improve at working together, making wise choices, and improving their skills. Team sports help build connections between people as they work towards shared goals and support each other, making the experience more meaningful than just individual exercise. Empirical evidence supports SDT's application in corporate sports. For example, a study by Gubler et

al. (2017) showed that employees who took part in team sports felt more motivated and involved. They said the activities helped them feel more in control, skilled, and connected to others. Brinkley et al. (2017) also demonstrated that environments fostering these psychological needs enhanced workplace satisfaction and productivity. By integrating SDT into team-based sports initiatives, organizations address employees' intrinsic motivational drivers, promoting engagement and well-being in ways traditional wellness programs often overlook.

#### 4.4.3. Psychological Ownership Theory

Pierce and others explained psychological ownership theory in 2001. It focuses on how people feel a sense of ownership and connection to things, jobs, or organizations. This feeling of ownership can lead to a stronger sense of responsibility, loyalty, and personal commitment to the team's success.

Literature indicates that when people participate in corporate team-building sports programs, they feel a sense of ownership for their team's success. For instance, when workers participate in these events, they feel good about what they do, making them more determined to work together to reach their goals. Bhappu and Helm (2018) showed that organizational team activities help people feel more responsible, leading to better teamwork and job satisfaction. Similarly, Brinkley et al. (2017) found that employees' emotional connection to their company strengthens when they share responsibility in team competitions.

Team sports in organizations also have the potential to help build strong friendships and mutual respect among employees. This can help employees feel more connected to their jobs and the company's goals, leading to greater loyalty, motivation, and happiness at work.

#### 4.4.4. Team Dynamics: Foundational Models and Practical Applications

To build a successful team, it is important to understand what makes a team work well together. Bruce Tuckman's model of group development and Google's Project Aristotle provide helpful ideas on what helps teams succeed. Tuckman (1965) proposed a framework outlining five key stages through which teams typically progress: forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning. In forming, team members get to know their roles and rely on leaders for guidance. Next is the storming stage, where people may disagree and have power struggles as they try to make decisions. Over time, the team moves into the norming stage, where conflicts are resolved, and team members start working well together with shared rules. In the performing stage, the team works smoothly toward its goals, using the unity and understanding built earlier. Lastly, the adjourning stage happens when the team finishes its work and disbands, often reflecting on what went well and what could be better. Tuckman's model shows that understanding and going through these stages helps create a strong team (Tuckman, 1965).

Google's Project Aristotle provides further empirical insights into what makes a team thrive. After extensive research, Google identified five key dynamics that underpin effective teams: psychological safety, dependability, structure and clarity, meaning, and impact (Duhigg, 2016). Among these, psychological safety is the most critical factor. It allows team members to take risks and share ideas without worrying about being judged or punished. Dependability is the second most important thing. This means that everyone on the team must do their work

on time and well. Having straightforward jobs, plans, goals, structure, and clarity helps everyone know what to do. The ideas of meaning and impact focus on the importance of feeling motivated and understanding the value of one's work, which helps create a sense of purpose and accomplishment. Together, these factors form the foundation of strong teams, showing how trust, open communication, and shared goals are key to success at work (Duhigg, 2016; Edmondson, 1999).

#### 4.4.5. Summary of Integrated Theoretical Framework

Corporate team-building sports events leverage Social Identity Theory to enhance organizational identification, Self-Determination Theory to fulfill psychological needs, and Psychological Ownership Theory to cultivate loyalty and accountability. These ideas show how team events can help individuals and organizations, giving a transparent model for workplace wellness and team dynamics. By grounding this approach in prior empirical evidence, this framework underscores the transformative potential of team-based initiatives in fostering engagement, cohesion, and long-term success.

### 4.5. Methodology

#### 4.5.1. Research Design

This study employs a robust research design that integrates comparative and longitudinal methodologies to holistically examine the impact of corporate team-based sports events on workplace dynamics, employee engagement, and psychological constructs such as belonging and satisfaction. Combining these methods provides a comprehensive understanding of how these programs operate in the short, middle, and long term.

The longitudinal methodology is particularly valuable in capturing transformations across three distinct temporal snapshots: pre-event (baseline measures), immediately post-event (short-term outcomes), and six months post-event (long-term impacts). These timeframes provide valuable insights into the development and persistence of outcomes, highlighting their long-term impact on employees and the organization. Longitudinal approaches have been widely recognized as critical for understanding the sustained effects of workplace interventions, as evidenced by studies like Klein et al. (2009), which examined how team-building interventions impacted team cohesion and performance over time.

Cross-sectional comparisons address gaps in the literature by providing a benchmark for the unique contributions of team-based sports programs. Organizations in the control group are matched based on size, industry, and location to ensure comparability. This research examines how team-based sports programs make a difference by comparing organizations participating in these programs with those not. Research by Dyer et al. (2013) shows that cross-sectional techniques can compare corporate cultures and employee engagement levels in various settings.

This study employs multiple methods, combining survey metrics, quantitative data, and qualitative insights from interviews and observations. This dual approach provides a

complete picture by combining measurable results with the participants' real-life experiences. Interviews collect personal stories and levels of engagement, giving more information about how people felt about the events.

#### 4.5.2. Longitudinal Study Design

The longitudinal approach in this study focuses on one or two companies that hold corporate team sports events. This design shows how organizational metrics and employee experiences change over time. The study shows a complete timeline of changes by dividing data collection into three critical periods: before the event (baseline), right after the event, and six months after. This design enables an in-depth exploration of essential research questions related to immediate and sustained outcomes. For instance, the study explores whether short-term benefits, such as increased morale and motivation, translate into long-term organizational improvements like enhanced employee retention and a more substantial workplace culture. By studying how things change over time, this research helps us understand what leads to better communication, trust, and a greater sense of employee psychological ownership. The long-term approach provides clear evidence of the impact of corporate sports events on job satisfaction, team cohesion, organizational loyalty, and psychological ownership. It highlights the value of studying workplace interventions over time, filling a significant gap in existing research, and offering valuable ideas for professionals to apply.

Figure 4.5. Impact of Corporate Sports Events on Individual, Team, and Organizational Outcomes.

Pre-event (Weeks 1-4)	Immediate Post-Event (Weeks 5-8)	Six Months Post-Event (Weeks 9-12)	Post Analysis (Weeks 13-16)
<b>Measure Baseline Data</b>  <i>(Example: employee engagement, team dynamic, and organizational identification)</i>  Tools Needed: •Survey •Interviews	<b>Capture Immediate Observations and Changes</b>  <i>(Example: changes in motivation, team cohesion, etc)</i>  Tools Needed: •Survey •Interviews	<b>Capture Long-Term Impacts</b>  <i>(Example: Employee retention, job satisfaction, team communication, trust, organizational loyalty, etc)</i>  Tools Needed: •Follow-up Survey •Follow-up Interviews •Comparison with non-participating data	<b>Data Comparison of Pre and Post-Events</b>  <i>(Example: Employee, team, and organizational outcomes pre and post-events compared to the control group)</i>  Processes Needed: •Data Integration •Statistical Analysis •Coding

#### 4.5.3. Sampling and Data Collection

The sampling strategy includes businesses of various sizes, employee demographics, and industries. Businesses are chosen according to how often they participate in corporate team sports. A stratified sampling technique ensures that workers from different roles, levels of the hierarchy, and demographics are represented, enabling comprehensive and broadly applicable findings.

Cross-sectional comparisons would involve control organizations that are matched based on similar characteristics, such as industry sector, number of employees, and regional location. This ensures that observed differences can be attributed to the impact of team-based sports events rather than external factors.

#### 4.5.4. Data Collection Tools

The study uses several methods to gather quantitative and qualitative data for analysis. Surveys are the primary tool for quantitative data, offering a standardized approach to measure variables such as satisfaction, team cohesion, organizational identification, and psychological ownership.

Tools such as the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and Team Climate Inventory (TCI), along with other validated measures from the literature, will be employed to ensure reliability and validity. These surveys are distributed at three points in the longitudinal study to track changes over time and provide robust data for analysis.

Moreover, semi-structured interviews would provide invaluable qualitative insights into participants' experiences and perceptions. These interviews are crucial for exploring the events' impacts on communication patterns, trust, and team collaboration. Interviews with organizational leaders also shed light on broader impacts, such as shifts in organizational culture and alignment with strategic goals.

#### 4.5.5. Data Analysis

The data analysis process is designed to comprehensively evaluate both immediate and long-term impacts. **Quantitative Analysis:** The survey data is analyzed using descriptive statistics to establish baseline characteristics and identify patterns. Paired-sample t-tests and ANOVA are used to look at changes over three different time points, showing patterns in essential factors like satisfaction and team unity. Regression analyses are used to understand how participating in team sports events affects results like employee retention and morale. Time-lagged regression models are then used to see if short-term changes can predict longer-term outcomes, helping to understand if the benefits last over time. **Qualitative Analysis:** The data from semi-structured interviews is examined using thematic analysis to find common themes and patterns. The interview responses are coded and analyzed with software to ensure accuracy and consistency. Important themes such as communication, trust, leadership, and teamwork are examined to understand their role in the changes. By combining these insights with the numbers from the quantitative data, a complete picture of how the event impacted participants is formed. **Comparative and Temporal Analysis:** The longitudinal design facilitates the identification of temporal trends and patterns, offering valuable insights into the progression and persistence of changes over time. Comparisons with non-participating organizations serve as a contextual benchmark, underscoring the unique contributions of team-based sports events to organizational success. Using a multi-layered analysis approach that includes both temporal and comparative views, this study shows how the results were achieved and gives helpful advice for creating and running successful corporate sports programs.

## 4.6. Discussion

The results of this research are expected to show apparent differences between employees who participate in corporate team sports events and those who join traditional wellness programs or those who do not participate in either. These findings would support the study's main idea, highlighting how team sports can change employee behavior, improve team interactions, and increase a sense of ownership at work. The study looks at short-term and long-term effects, providing a better understanding of how corporate sports programs can change how people work together and improve employee involvement.

### 4.6.1. Discussion of Methodology

The research method used in this study is meant to make the results more reliable and useful. The study was able to look at both the short- and long-term effects of team sports events by using both longitudinal and comparison methods. The structured timeline—baseline before the event, right after the event, and six months after the event—makes it possible to get a better sense of how key variables like job happiness, team cohesion, and organizational identification change over time. This long-term design also lets us investigate long-lasting benefits and how they contribute to the success of a company.

When companies that participate in corporate sports programs are compared to those that do not, it helps people understand the specific benefits of these programs. This comparison shows how these programs differ from regular wellness programs in that they allow employees to feel like they own and are connected to their work. The mixed methods approach thoroughly examines measurable outcomes and lived experiences by combining quantitative surveys with qualitative interviews and observations.

The study ensures consistency and comparability of data by utilizing validated tools such as the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and Team Climate Inventory (TCI). More in-depth looks at survey data help explain the numbers' outcomes, revealing the causes of shifts in teamwork. This in-depth study method makes the results more reliable and gives companies that want to get their employees more involved in sports programs useful ideas.

### 4.6.2. Cross-Functional and Hierarchical Integration

Corporate team-building sports events offer another advantage as a distinct part of wellness programs. It fosters connections and engagement across different departments and levels of hierarchy in an organization's typical employee well-being setups; employees are segregated based on their roles, departments, or teams. The latter limits the chances to engage with colleagues from other teams, especially in large organizations. Employees participate in corporate team-based sports events based on their passions and hobbies. Hence, employee engagement in the context of something they are passionate about creates a sense of unity and understanding among them regardless of their responsibilities and departments.

Corporate sports events allow employees from different departments and positions to come together as equals and work together in team sports with a common goal beyond their job titles. In this setting, employees can interact with colleagues from other parts of the company, helping them better understand each other's roles and responsibilities. According to a study

conducted by Pichot and colleagues in 2009, company sports activities can enhance teamwork among departments by helping employees recognize and value each other's efforts within the team.

Furthermore, corporate sports events can break down barriers by putting employees of varying ranks on the same playing field. Like in sports, employees and top leaders need to work together for the team to win against another company. Working together like this helps build a connection that might not be present in a normal job. It also helps workers see their bosses as approachable and helpful, which makes the company culture more open and cooperative. Participating in such sports may promote a sense of camaraderie among employees and foster mutual appreciation and empathy.

#### 4.6.3. Enhanced Organizational Identity and Holistic Workplace Benefits

Corporate team sports events can be life-changing experiences that get people more involved and lead to significant results for the company. These programs help the company's employees feel deeply connected to its mission and goals by creating a shared identity that aligns with its values and goals. By setting up structured, team-based situations outside of standard work settings, these events improve relationships, trust, and communication, all of which are important for dealing with problems at work (Brinkley et al., 2017).

Promoting psychological safety is among the best things about corporate team-building sports events. This is a key idea behind Google's Project Aristotle. Psychological safety lets workers talk about their concerns and share ideas without fear, which leads to better decisions and new ideas (Duhigg, 2016). These events also break down barriers between departments by encouraging workers from different backgrounds and levels of the company to work together toward common goals. This openness helps the organization's culture stay together and strengthens teamwork (Pichot et al., 2009).

In addition to helping teams work together, these events allow employees to learn essential workplace skills, like being a leader, being resilient, and solving problems. Activities like endurance challenges and adventure sports add unpredictability, pushing employees out of their comfort zones and encouraging them to work together under pressure. These experiences help people depend on each other and value each other's roles and contributions more, improving flexibility and new ideas at work (Day et al., 2014).

Team sports programs are also suitable for workers' mental and emotional health. These events make workers stronger, more focused, and more adaptable, which helps them do a better job at work. Team sports put much stress on workers, making them try their ability to focus, stick with things, and find solutions. This makes it more challenging for them to think about what suits their jobs. Such events provide employees with a fun and social way to deal with stress at work, which builds unity and lowers burnout in high-pressure settings.

These initiatives have moral and emotional benefits that extend beyond the immediate post-event period. Employees say they have more enthusiasm and energy at work, which makes them more committed and productive. Sharing accomplishments brings people closer together, improving job satisfaction and creating a supportive work environment. These elements contribute to an engaged workforce where employees feel valued and connected to their colleagues and the broader organization (Brinkley et al., 2017).

The research underscores the long-term impact of corporate team-based programs on organizational success. By fulfilling core psychological needs outlined in Self-Determination Theory—autonomy, competence, and relatedness—these events promote sustained employee engagement and loyalty (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Shared victories and group accomplishments build a sense of belonging and alignment with organizational goals. This makes for a strong, cohesive team that works well together and closely follows the company's strategic goals (Falkenberg, 1987).

Additionally, the creative environment that team sports promote makes it easier for people to talk to each other and solve problems. This helps businesses appear flexible and ahead of the curve in competitive markets (Paulus & Nijstad, 2003). These programs help the organization make changes on the inside and improve its reputation outside, making hiring and keeping top talent easier.

To sum up, corporate team-based sports events differ from other wellness programs because they combine organizational identity, mental and emotional wellness, and performance improvement into one approach. These events change the workplace culture by encouraging teamwork, resilience, and engagement. This has instant and long-term benefits for both employees and companies.

#### 4.6.4. Concerns About Participation and Sport Selection

Implementing corporate team sports projects raises several issues, even with the possible advantages. Choosing the appropriate sports is a significant problem since some activities unintentionally exclude workers depending on their physical capabilities, degree of skill, or personal inclination.

For instance, highly competitive or physically demanding sports could deter workers who feel less athletically inclined from participating, compromising the program's inclusiveness. Furthermore, logistical difficulties, including access to facilities, time limits, and the financial expenses of planning such events, discourage businesses from implementing these initiatives.

Sports program design requires organizations to be aware of workplace equity and inclusiveness. Providing a range of sports choices or alternative team-building exercises guarantees that every staff member, regardless of skill level or inclination, will feel free to engage. Moreover, providing clear guidelines and fostering a supportive environment can mitigate concerns about competitive pressure or potential conflicts arising during events.

#### 4.6.5. Limitations and Future Research Directions

While the study offers valuable insights into the benefits of corporate team-based sports events, it is essential to acknowledge its limitations. The reliance on self-reported data introduces the potential for social desirability bias, where participants may overestimate the benefits of sports events to align with perceived expectations. Similarly, since qualitative observations rely on the viewpoints and framing of the researchers, they are prone to interpretation prejudices. Third-party assessments or objective measures could be included in future studies to offer a more fair and objective evaluation of the effects.



Moreover, if the total number of companies involved is small, the generalizability of this study's findings could be restricted. The small sample size may need to sufficiently reflect several experiences across organizational cultures, sectors, or geographical areas, even if the longitudinal approach offers excellent depth. Future research could solve this restriction by including a more significant and diverse sample of companies, improving the range and relevance of the outcomes.

The six-month timeframe used in this study may not fully capture the enduring effects of sports initiatives on employee behavior and organizational outcomes. Longitudinal studies spanning several years could offer a closer understanding of how team-based sports programs affect retention, loyalty, and job satisfaction. Investigating these impacts on a broader spectrum of sectors and organizational environments will help to strengthen the conclusions even more.

The study focuses less on sports events' possible physical health benefits and mainly on their social and psychological advantages. Future studies could examine how corporate sports programs fare against conventional wellness campaigns regarding general employee well-being, including physical health effects. This would help us see the role of team sports in office wellness more completely.

The study needs to examine possible cultural differences that affect the success of team-building sports events. Variations in team dynamics, employee expectations, and occupational standards among many cultural settings could affect the outcomes of these initiatives. Future studies could examine how cultural elements influence the effectiveness of team-based sports programs and provide companies with customized plans for such projects in different surroundings.

#### 4.7. Conclusion

This study explores the transformative potential of corporate team-building sports events as a strategic initiative to enhance workplace dynamics, employee engagement, and organizational outcomes. The results are expected to show the significant variations between organized team sports and conventional wellness programs in promoting team cohesion, psychological ownership, and organizational identification. By grounding the research in Social Identity Theory, Self-Determination Theory, and Psychological Ownership Theory, the study contributes meaningfully to the literature on workplace behavior by bridging individual-level and organizational-level benefits.

Corporate team-building sports events uniquely boost workplace morale and productivity by meeting employees' psychological and social needs. Unlike traditional wellness programs focusing mainly on personal health and stress relief, team sports emphasize working together, shared goals, and a sense of belonging. These gatherings help to remove obstacles between several departments and levels, so fostering inclusive environments whereby staff members from many backgrounds and roles cooperate to accomplish shared objectives. This study helps us better understand how these activities improve teamwork and long-term success by making people more loyal, happy at work, and knowledgeable.

Despite these advantages, thoughtful program design is essential to ensure inclusivity and equity. The choice of sports and events has to prioritize employee participation with different physical capabilities and tastes. Companies should solve financial and logistical issues to provide fair chances for their employees. Maximizing the advantages of team-based sports programs depends on providing various activities and creating a conducive environment.

The methodological rigidity of this work enhances its contributions. This study offers important benchmarks and shows the unique benefits of team-based sports projects to organizational outcomes by analyzing data across three key intervals: pre-event, immediate post-event, and six months post-event—and matching findings with non-participating companies. These realizations affect organizational performance and workplace wellness policies more generally.

Based on what this study will likely find, organizations can move immediately. First, they should organize sports events that bring teams together, encourage them to work together and honor successes from every department. These programs show that the company wants to help employees feel like they fit in and work together. Additionally, it is essential to put ease and inclusion first. When a variety of sports are offered, employees with different interests and physical skills feel valued and are more likely to participate. This would foster a friendly and more engaging workplace. Companies also would run sports programs as a way to recruit new employees. They can stress teamwork and flexibility, which can help the company hire and keep good workers.

Organizations should track and evaluate the results of these programs using reliable tools like the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and Team Climate Inventory (TCI). This will allow a clear understanding of how team sports affect employee engagement, satisfaction, and retention, both in the short and long term, and help organizations make improvements based on solid data. This study adds valuable knowledge by linking psychological theories with workplace practices. It also offers a helpful manual for companies trying to increase staff involvement using team sports initiatives. Key elements for long-term success are workplace culture, turnover reduction, and environments stressing collaboration, inclusivity, and well-being; hence, the results are significant for these areas.

Corporate team-building sports events are a fantastic means of fostering employee ownership, motivation, and cooperation. By using these insights, businesses can build teams that are intense, involved, and perform at a high level, which will lead to long-term success and a competitive edge. This study also shows how team activities can make workplaces healthier and more welcoming in a variety of industries.

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## Chapter 5: Conclusion

In a time of complexity and change, the intersection of collaborative innovation, workplace engagement, and entrepreneurship provides firms with a strong foundation for success. The tactics examined in this study offer practical advice on how to develop a more engaged, creative, and sustainable workforce as contemporary workplaces change to satisfy changing social and financial expectations.

### 5.1 Expanding the Boundaries of Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship has frequently been narrowly defined through the prism of Silicon Valley success stories and high-tech enterprises. This constrained viewpoint, however, ignores the variety of entrepreneurial endeavors that propel global social and economic innovation. According to McBride and Touma (2021), entrepreneurship is about negotiating localized uncertainty to create value. This broader view calls into question the traditional focus on high-growth, venture-backed models. It stresses the usefulness of entrepreneurship in many situations, such as small businesses, social projects, and regional breakthroughs. Organizations and educators can promote an entrepreneurial culture that considers the realities of many markets and industries by adopting a more inclusive definition. People who embrace this strategy are better equipped to deal with uncertainty, make innovative use of the resources at their disposal, and seize chances that fit their circumstances. Consequently, it encourages new ideas and strong economies around the world. As people become more open-minded about entrepreneurship, training and mentoring programs that support a more comprehensive range of entrepreneurial activities are becoming more critical. This means that more communities can benefit from innovation.

### 5.2 Fostering Workplace Engagement Through Team-Based Initiatives

Similarly, keeping employees interested is still a very important part of running a successful business. There has been a change in how businesses think about their employees' health and happiness, as shown by team-based wellness programs that focus on sports and group activities. These programs go beyond conventional health initiatives and promote community and cooperation by attending to staff members' psychological and social needs.

These kinds of activities are essential in today's workplaces when remote and hybrid work arrangements have disrupted traditional forms of engagement. Corporate sports events, for example, create shared experiences that promote trust, camaraderie, and a sense of organizational identity. These projects use ideas from Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) to show how group activities can meet workers' natural psychological needs for independence, competence, and connection. This results in increased employee motivation, team lengthening, and increased loyalty to the organization.

Teams also assist in the dissolution of barriers between departments and levels of the organization, thereby facilitating the collaboration of individuals from diverse roles. This degree of transparency is essential for the establishment of a work environment that prioritizes teamwork and diversity. As workplaces strive to rebuild post-pandemic connections, these programs offer a powerful tool for reigniting engagement and cultivating a unified organizational spirit.

### 5.3 Leveraging Technology for Collaboration and Sustainability

Technology is integral to the workplace because it helps people be more sustainable and work together. Sharing platforms the company pays for is an excellent example of how new technologies can encourage collaborative spending. This can increase trust among employees and make better use of resources. These tools are easier to use and fit with employees' values of community and sustainability, eliminating psychological and practical barriers to sharing. Resource optimization is only one aspect of collaborative consumption's potential. Fostering mutual support and trust among coworkers increases social capital within firms. Touma and Bhappu (2023) demonstrate that the full potential of sharing behaviors can be unlocked by resolving the attitude-behavior gap through culture alignment and intuitive technology design. In addition to improving corporate citizenship practices, these platforms establish businesses as pioneers in innovation and sustainability.

By using these tools in the workplace, companies can create a mindset where people work together instead of just on their teams. As a result, employees feel empowered to add to shared goals and align their actions with the organization's larger goals, which makes for a connected workforce.

### 5.4 Connecting the Dots: An Integrated Approach

The three themes—expanding the definition of entrepreneurship, encouraging engagement via team-oriented activities, and using technology for collaboration—are connected practices. Taken together, they represent a coherent approach to addressing the challenging problems modern businesses face. Entrepreneurial thinking helps people control uncertainty and seize opportunities. Programs emphasizing team-oriented wellness foster the confidence and harmony necessary for effective collaboration. By facilitating communication and resource sharing, technological solutions foster an environment that is conducive to innovation and efficiency. Organizations that integrate these methodologies can foster operational excellence and cultural transformation. They create surroundings where people feel valued, involved, and free to grow. Such ecosystems are better suited for adjusting to outside factors such as societal changes, technical developments, or economic volatility.

## 5.5 A Vision for the Future

The three themes—expanding the definition of entrepreneurship, encouraging engagement via team-oriented activities, and using technology for collaboration—are connected practices. Taken together, they represent a coherent approach to addressing the challenging problems modern businesses face. Entrepreneurial thinking helps people control uncertainty and seize opportunities. Programs focusing on team-based wellness help build the trust and harmony needed to work well together. Technology solutions create an environment that is good for innovation and efficiency by making it easier to share information and communicate. Organizations that integrate these methodologies can foster operational excellence and cultural transformation. They make places where people feel important, like they belong, and can grow. These ecosystems can adapt better to outside factors like societal changes, new technologies, or unstable economies.

Table 2.2: Codebook and interview quotes

Construct	Definition	Exemplar Quote
<b>Psychological Ownership Attitudes</b>		
<b>Functional Attachment</b>	An attitude about the usefulness and performance of goods often because they fulfill a need.	We have some old iPads, and there's no reason somebody else couldn't use them. They work fine, just they're like first generation, so my program doesn't work on them anymore. We just weren't getting much use from them (#518EU)
<b>Possessive Attachment - Protectiveness</b>	The intention or act of securing or enhancing their possession of a good.	I wouldn't lend something that is so important to me (#150EU)
		I worry a little bit about things getting broken (#150EU)
<b>Possessive Attachment - Mastery</b>	The intention or act of exerting command, authority, or control of a good.	It is a laboratory setting and you want to control access a little bit to your research spaces because there's valuable equipment in there (#150EU)
<b>Community Attachment - Belonging</b>	A desire or willingness to remain at the university due to a strong attachment to the organization.	This is a campus that still feels like family even though it's grown a lot in the last 11 years I've been here (#510EU)
<b>Community Attachment - Citizenship</b>	A desire or willingness to contribute to the well-being of the university or coworkers often through voluntary or extra role efforts.	I wanted to support the process ... wanted to show my support (#507EU)
<b>Technology Usability</b>		
<b>Perceived Ease of Use</b>	The perception or experience of being able to easily use the mobile apps	It is easy to navigate. It just offers a pretty simple way of seeing what's needed (#174EU)
<b>Perceived Usefulness</b>	The perception or experience of the mobile apps fulfilling a need, function, or desire	Well, I think the app is a really good way to get to people to find the stuff because you've got someplace to go (#515EU)
		I thought they were both useful apps to have in my phone and that it would provide good information and things for my daily life essentially (#174EU)
<b>Perceived Behavioral Control</b>	The perception of having sufficient opportunity, needed resources, and necessary information to use the mobile apps.	What has kind of held me back from doing that, because I don't know who ... if they take a sign and something happens, I don't know who's responsible (#515EU)
<b>Subjective Norms for Sustainable Consumption</b>		
<b>Pro-Environmental Behavior</b>	Prior or current personal actions that demonstrate a concern for the environment such as recycling and composting	Yeah, we tried not to buy waste, things that we need, not wasteful things (#518EU)



<b>Organizational Culture</b>	The perception or experience of collaborative consumption or other pro-environmental behavior being normal and/or expected at the university	It's still not like a common thing everyone does necessarily (#507EU)
		I feel like that is very emblematic of our campus, and this could also be just very representative of our campus and the whole collaborative nature of this campus, which I do feel is part of the campus personality or DNA if you will (#510EU)
<b>Sharing Economy Participation</b>	Prior or current personal engagement in collaborative consumption platforms such as ridesharing or renting consumer goods	I use other websites such as Freecycle and Buy Nothing and other similar applications or communities that you know help in making this possible. So, I see this as entirely possible (#174EU)
<b>Coworker Collaborative Consumption</b>		
<b>Employee Sharing - Intentions</b>	An expectation of granting or requesting access to goods and services to/from coworkers	I looked through it to see if there was anything needed that I had. now I want to see what people are offering (#510EU)
<b>Employee Sharing - Motivations</b>	A reason why an employee is willing to share goods and services with coworkers.	It's better than having to pay or buy it, pay to rent it or buy it (#515EU)
		It's just one more way to serve the campus community, save people money (#510EU)



# Appendix A: Coworker Collaborative Consumption Survey

*SECTION 1 – Reflecting on your experience using the UC Merced mobile apps Share@Work and Share@Home prior to the pandemic, please answer the following questions (1-strongly disagree; 5-strongly agree):*

## *Perceived Behavioral Control*

Venkatesh, V., Morris, M.G., Davis, G.B., & Davis, F.D. (2003). User acceptance of information technology: Toward a unified view. *MIS Quarterly*, 27(3), 425-478.

- I had sufficient opportunity to use those sharing apps
- I had needed resources to use those sharing apps
- I had necessary information to use those sharing apps

## *Perceived Ease of Use*

Venkatesh, V., Morris, M.G., Davis, G.B., & Davis, F.D. (2003). User acceptance of information technology: Toward a unified view. *MIS Quarterly*, 27(3), 425-478.

- Learning to use those sharing apps was easy for me
- I found it easy to get those sharing apps to do what I wanted them to do
- It was easy for me to become skillful at using those sharing apps

## *Perceived Usefulness*

Venkatesh, V., Morris, M.G., Davis, G.B., & Davis, F.D. (2003). User acceptance of information technology: Toward a unified view. *MIS Quarterly*, 27(3), 425-478.

### *Those sharing apps ...*

- enhanced my effectiveness at work
- enabled me to accomplish tasks more quickly
- made it easier to do my work
- improved my performance
- increased my productivity

*SECTION 2 – Thinking about the material goods – supplies and equipment – that you possess for work, please answer the following questions (1-strongly disagree; 5-strongly agree):*

## *Usefulness*

Lund, A. M. (2001). Measuring usability with the use questionnaire<sup>12</sup>. *Usability interface*, 8(2), 3-6.

### *I enjoy using these things because they ...*

- meet my needs
- do everything I expect them to do
- save me time

## *Admiration*

Desmet, P. M. A. (2012). Faces of product pleasure: 25 positive emotions in human-product interactions. *International Journal of Design*, 6(2), 1-29.

*I admire these things because of ...*

- what I am able to accomplish with them
- how easy they are to use
- the craftsmanship reflected in their design

*Resource Stewardship*

Ogbanufe, O., Crossler, R. E., & Biros, D. (2021). Exploring stewardship: A precursor to voluntary security behaviors. *Computers & Security*, 109, 102397.

- I feel a sense of responsibility for things that belong to UC Merced
- I feel a sense of accountability for things that belong to UC Merced
- I feel a sense of ownership for things that belong to UC Merced
- Things that belong to UC Merced are mine to use
- Things that belong to UC Merced are mine to protect
- Things that belong to UC Merced are mine to maintain

*Protectiveness*

Belk, R. W. (1985). Materialism: Trait aspects of living in the material world. *Journal of Consumer research*, 12(3), 265-280.

- I worry about people taking these things
- I am less likely than most people to lock up these things\*
- I would be very upset if something was stolen from me, even if it had little monetary value

*Mastery*

Belk, R. W. (1985). Materialism: Trait aspects of living in the material world. *Journal of Consumer research*, 12(3), 265-280.

- I don't like to have anyone using my space when I'm not there
- I don't like to lend out my things, even to others who I trust
- I would rather buy something I need than borrow it from someone else
- I tend to hang on to things I should probably throw out

*Coworker Collaborative Consumption – Intention*

Lu, Y., Zhao, L. & Wang, B. (2010). From virtual community members to C2C e-commerce buyers: Trust in virtual communities and its effect on consumers' purchase intention. *Electronic Commerce Research and Applications*, 9(4), 346-360.

- Given the chance, I would consider lending things to others at UC Merced in the future
- It is likely that I will actually need to borrow things from others at UC Merced in the future

Hamari, J., Sjöklint, M. & Ukkonen, A. (2016). The sharing economy: Why people participate in collaborative consumption. *Journal of the Association for Information Science and Technology*, 67(9), 2047-2059.

- It would make sense for me to share things with others at UC Merced in the future
- It would be good for me to share things with others at UC Merced in the future

*Coworker Collaborative Consumption – Motivation*

Hamari, J., Sjöklint, M. & Ukkonen, A. (2016). The sharing economy: Why people participate in collaborative consumption. *Journal of the Association for Information Science and Technology*, 67(9), 2047-2059.

- I can save money if I share things with others at UC Merced more frequently in the future
- I can help people if I share things with others at UC Merced more frequently in the future
- I can reduce waste if I share things with others at UC Merced more frequently in the future
- Sharing goods as a community is a sustainable mode of consumption
- Sharing goods as a community is an engaging way to socially interact
- Sharing goods as a community is an efficient use of natural resources

*SECTION 3 – Reflecting on your experience working at UC Merced, please answer the following questions (1-strongly disagree; 5-strongly agree):*

*Organizational Belonging*

Mayhew, M.G., Ashkanasy, N.M., Bramble, T. & Gardner, J. (2007) A study of the antecedents and consequences of psychological ownership in organizational settings. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 147(5), 477-500.

- UC Merced is my community
- UC Merced means a great deal to me
- It is hard for me to think about leaving UC Merced
- It is hard for me to imagine working for another organization
- I do not feel a strong emotional attachment to UC Merced\*
- I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to UC Merced\*
- It would be very hard for me to leave UC Merced right now, even if I wanted to
- Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave UC Merced now
- Right now, staying at UC Merced is a matter of necessity as much as desire

*Organizational Citizenship Behavior*

Mathwick, C., Wiertz, C. & De Ruyter, K. (2008). Social capital production in a virtual P3 community. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 34(6), 832-849.

- I work together with others to improve things at UC Merced
- I use my technical skills to solve problems at UC Merced
- I voluntarily assist those who are in need at UC Merced
- I give back by helping others at UC Merced

*Pro-Environmental Behavior*

Zientara, P. & Zamojska, A. (2018). Green organizational climates and employee pro-environmental behaviour in the hotel industry. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 26(7), 1142-1159.

- I actively participate in pro-environmental events organized at and/or by UC Merced
- I volunteer for projects and/or events that address sustainability issues at UC Merced

- I encourage others to take the environment into account in everything we do at UC Merced

Wesseling, R., Blok, V. & Ringersma, J. (2017). Pro-environmental behaviour in the workplace and the role of managers and organisation. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 168, 1679-1687.

- I recycle as much as possible
- I avoid printing as much as possible
- I turn off all the lights when I am the last to leave a room
- I turn off all my electronic devices at the end of the day
- If available, I choose organic food and beverages
- If available, I choose reusable cups and plates

#### *Organizational Culture*

Zientara, P. & Zamojska, A. (2018). Green organizational climates and employee pro-environmental behaviour in the hotel industry. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 26(7), 1142-1159.

- UC Merced is genuinely committed to environmental responsibility
- UC Merced has many pro-environmental policies and processes in place
- I am encouraged at UC Merced to promote sustainability
- I am supported at UC Merced to engage in pro-environmental action

*SECTION 4 – In the future, we may launch a sharing platform that has a completely different online website and mobile app for UC Merced employees to share things for work. Keeping this technology in mind, please answer the following questions (1-strongly disagree; 5-strongly agree):*

#### *Sharing Platform Engagement – Intention*

Lu, Y., Zhao, L. & Wang, B. (2010). From virtual community members to C2C e-commerce buyers: Trust in virtual communities and its effect on consumers' purchase intention. *Electronic Commerce Research and Applications*, 9(4), 346-360.

*I would use a new UC Merced sharing platform to see if I could ...*

- borrow something I need
- lend something others need
- use something others might share
- share something others might use

#### *Perceived Behavioral Control*

Venkatesh, V., Morris, M.G., Davis, G.B., & Davis, F.D. (2003). User acceptance of information technology: Toward a unified view. *MIS Quarterly*, 27(3), 425-478.

- I would have sufficient opportunity to use a new UC Merced sharing platform
- I would have needed resources to use a new UC Merced sharing platform
- I would have necessary information to use a new UC Merced sharing platform

#### *Perceived Ease of Use*

Venkatesh, V., Morris, M.G., Davis, G.B., & Davis, F.D. (2003). User acceptance of information technology: Toward a unified view. *MIS Quarterly*, 27(3), 425-478.

- Learning to use a new UC Merced sharing platform would be easy for me

- I would find it easy to get a new UC Merced sharing platform to do what I want it to do
- It would be easy for me to become skillful at using a new UC Merced sharing platform

#### *Perceived Usefulness*

Venkatesh, V., Morris, M.G., Davis, G.B., & Davis, F.D. (2003). User acceptance of information technology: Toward a unified view. *MIS Quarterly*, 27(3), 425-478.

*Having a new UC Merced sharing platform would ...*

- enhance my effectiveness at work
- enable me to accomplish tasks more quickly
- make it easier to do my work
- improve my performance
- increase my productivity

*SECTION 5 – Please answer these last few questions about yourself so that we can compare your answers to those provided by others:*

#### *Sharing Economy Participation*

Cristobal-Fransi, E., Hernández-Soriano, F., Ferrer-Rosell, B., & Daries, N. (2019). Exploring service quality among online sharing economy platforms from an online media perspective. *Sustainability*, 11(13), 690.

As a consumer, which sharing economy platforms have you used in the past?

Select all that apply: Airbnb, DoorDash, GrubHub, Instacart, Lyft, Scoop, Shipt, Uber, Via, VRBO, Zimride, Other (please specify): \_\_\_\_\_

When was the last time you used a sharing economy platform as a consumer?

- Less than a month ago
- From 1 to 3 months ago
- From 4 to 6 months ago
- From 7 to 9 months ago
- From 10 to 12 months ago
- More than a year ago
- Never

#### *Pandemic Impacts*

Ahorsu, D.K., Lin, C.Y., Imani, V., Saffari, M., Griffiths, M.D., & Pakpour, A.H. (2020). The fear of COVID-19 scale: Development and initial validation.

*International Journal of Mental Health and Addiction.*

How is the pandemic impacting you? (1-strongly disagree; 5-strongly agree)

- I am afraid of getting COVID-19 from others
- I am afraid of giving COVID-19 to others
- I am afraid of losing my life to COVID-19
- I am mentally distracted due to the COVID-19 pandemic
- I am socially isolated due to the COVID-19 pandemic
- I am financially stressed due to the COVID-19 pandemic
- I am physically exhausted due to the COVID-19 pandemic
- COVID-19 is an unpredictable virus

- COVID-19 kills people like me

*Demographics*

How long have you been employed at UC Merced? <1 yr , 1-3 yrs, 4-6 yrs , 7-9 yrs, 10-12 yrs, >12 yrs

What is your age? <25 yrs, 25-39 yrs, 40-54 yrs, 55-69 yrs, >69 yrs

What is your current sex? Check all that apply: Female, Male, Trans

What is your ethnicity? Check all that apply: Asian, Black, Hispanic, Native American, Pacific Islander, Unknown, White

Do you have any additional feedback for us?

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# Appendix B: Impact of Corporate Sports Events on Workplace Dynamics

## Section 1: Demographics

1. What is your age?
  - 18-24
  - 25-34
  - 35-44
  - 45-54
  - 55+
  
2. What is your gender?
  - Male
  - Female
  - Prefer not to say
  
3. What is your role in the organization?
  - Entry-level
  - Mid-level
  - Senior-level
  - Executive/Managerial
  
4. How many years have you been working with your current employer?
  - Less than 1 year
  - 1-3 years
  - 4-6 years
  - 7-10 years
  - More than 10 years
  
5. What industry does your organization belong to?
  - Manufacturing
  - Healthcare
  - Education
  - Technology
  - Retail
  - Other (please specify): \_\_\_\_\_

## Section 2: Participation in Corporate Sports Events

6. Does your organization implement or participate in corporate team-based sports events?
  - Yes

- o No
7. Have you personally participated in a corporate sports event organized by your company?
- o Yes
  - o No
8. How often does your organization conduct such events?
- o Once a year
  - o Twice a year
  - o More than twice a year
  - o Never

### Section 3: Workplace Behavior and Team Dynamics

9. On a scale of 1 to 5 (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree), please indicate how much you agree with the following statements:
- o Participating in corporate sports events has improved my ability to collaborate with colleagues.
  - o These events have helped me communicate more effectively with colleagues across departments.
  - o I feel a stronger sense of camaraderie and trust with colleagues I participated with in these events.
  - o Participation in these events has positively influenced my behavior and attitude in the workplace.

### Section 4: Organizational Identity and Psychological Ownership

10. On a scale of 1 to 5, please indicate how much you agree with the following statements:
- o Representing my company in sports events has strengthened my identification with the organization.
  - o Participating in these events has made me feel more loyal to my organization.
  - o I feel a stronger sense of responsibility toward my organization after participating in these events.
  - o These events make me feel like I am a vital part of my organization's culture and goals.

### Section 5: Employee Engagement and Well-being

11. On a scale of 1 to 5, please indicate how much you agree with the following statements:
- o Participating in corporate sports events has improved my overall engagement at work.
  - o These events have positively affected my motivation to perform better at my job.
  - o I feel more satisfied with my job as a result of these activities.

- o My mental and physical well-being have improved through participation in corporate sports events.

#### Section 6: Open-Ended Questions

12. What do you think are the most significant benefits of participating in corporate sports events?
13. How do you believe these events could be improved to benefit employees and the organization further?
14. If your organization does not currently conduct corporate sports events, would you like them to? Why or why not?