

Integrating the Decision-Making Process in the Work-Family Field: An Action-Based Approach

Integrar el proceso de toma de decisiones en el campo de la conciliación trabajo-familia: un enfoque basado en la acción

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NURIA CHINCHILLA

IESE Business School
ORCID: 0000-0001-8479-3439
mchinchilla@iese.edu

MARC GRAU-GRAU

Universitat Internacional de Catalunya
ORCID: 0000-0002-3795-8461
mgraug@uic.cat

SOWON KIM

EHL Hospitality Business School, HES-SO//University of Applied Sciences Western Switzerland
ORCID: 0000-0001-5548-061X
sowon.kim@ehl.ch

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Abstract: The aim of this article is to integrate the decision-making process in the work-family field using an action-based approach. Drawing from the theory of Pérez López, we develop a conceptual framework as a way of understanding the internal decision-making process among managers in the work-family field. We use the core concepts of his theory, motivational structure, and motivation learning, and link them with caregiving ambition and family-supportive supervisor behaviors to build our framework. This iterative model illustrates how motivational factors influence caregiving ambition and family-supportive supervisor behaviors from which motivation learning is derived, and future decisions are constantly shaped.

Key words: Decision-Making Process, Pérez-López, Work-Family Balance, Managers

Resumen: El objetivo de este artículo es integrar el proceso de toma de decisiones en el campo de la conciliación trabajo-familia, a partir de la teoría de Pérez López. Usando sus conceptos centrales, los relacionamos con la ambición de cuidar, y los comportamientos familiarmente responsables entre los directivos. Este modelo iterativo ilustra cómo los factores motivacionales influyen en la ambición de cuidar, y ésta, en los comportamientos familiarmente responsables, de los cuales se deriva un nuevo aprendizaje, y consecuentemente, se dibujan nuevas futuras decisiones.

Palabras clave: Proceso de Decisión, Pérez-López, Conciliación Trabajo-Familia, Directivos, Organizaciones

I. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this article is to integrate the decision-making process in the work-family field using an action-based approach. Drawing from the theory of Juan Antonio Pérez López (JAPL), we develop a conceptual framework as a way of understanding the internal decision-making process among managers in the work-family field. Research on the work-family interface has exploded in recent decades due to recent social changes in the economy, demography, and technology, which have been exacerbated by the irruption of COVID-19, providing a fruitful discipline with crucial organizational, political and family implications (Powell, Greenhaus, Allen, Johnson, 2019). However, theories in the work-family field have not kept up with this growing literature. In particular, the current theoretical frameworks seem to ignore the internal processes inherent in the individual when making decisions in the work and family domains.

To contribute to the advancement of such knowledge, this article provides a conceptual model, drawing from the theory of Juan Antonio Pérez López (1934-1996), a Spanish business theorist who integrated ethics in organizations based on the Aristotelian-Thomistic philosophy. His works have received little attention in academia for various reasons (Argandoña, 2008), which can be summarized as follows. First, his *oeuvre* is mainly written in Spanish, and only one of his books has recently been translated into English. Second, his writing style, contrasting with his vivid lectures, is extremely synthetic¹, with no or very few examples, which might have been a barrier for the full understanding and dissemination of his concepts and theorems. Third, his premature death in a car accident brought to an unexpected halt the development of his theories. However, we consider that his theories are entirely contemporary and might help scholars to advance knowledge on the decision-making process.

Pérez Lopez developed a logic structure of the ethical decision-making process by generating a dynamic theoretical model (Argandoña, 2008). He refused the idea that ethics are a list of social, legal, and moral criteria that need to be considered in a decision process. For him, ethics are *the process* of development of moral quality of a decision-maker, which takes place only with the interaction with a reactive agent. This moral quality may increase or de-

1 Only as an example of the compact nature of his writings, his PhD thesis (Pérez López, 1970) from Harvard Business School has less than 60 pages.

crease after each interaction. According to his thought, decision-makers (active agents) need multiple interactions with a reactive agent in order to develop ethical decisions. This interaction happens when the decision-maker takes a decision considering a) motives and b) motivation that might lead to positive or negative learning of the reactive agent as a consequence of their interaction. Theories involving ethics normally focus on how humans should act, but not on how a person, a decision-maker, develops *his/her ability* to make ethical decisions. Pérez Lopéz's model has the latter nature.

The purpose of our paper is to develop a decision-making model in the work-family field applying Pérez López's theories (1991, 1993) and his core concepts such as motivational structure and motivational learning. Our contribution can be summarized in three ways. First, this model complements a small number of work-family frameworks that attempt to integrate the decision-making process in the work-family field (Greenhaus, Powell, 2012; Hirschi, Schockley, Zacher, 2019; Greenhaus, Powell, 2012). Second, we propose a theoretical framework that points out the centrality of managers within the work and family domains, considering caregiving ambition (Bear, 2019) and family-supportive supervisor behaviors (Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman, Daniels, 2007; Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, Hanson, 2009). Third, by bringing a motivational perspective into our model, we broaden the work-family decision-making literature, which has heretofore been centered on a behavioral approach. We investigate why individuals decide rather than what they decide. Furthermore, we link decision-making to different streams of research including motivation (in particular to extrinsic, intrinsic and transcendent motivation theories) and learning, thereby developing an integrative work-family decision-making framework.

The paper is organized as follows. First, we present the theory of human action as developed by Pérez López and the core concepts of the theory. Next, we present the advancements of the work-family field and why the theory of human action might be relevant in this stream of research. We then provide our conceptual model. Finally, we address the contribution of our work and suggest some theoretical implications.

II. THE THEORY OF HUMAN ACTION

This section will briefly summarize the theory of human action (Pérez López, 1991), together with its core elements and concepts, which are crucial

for understanding our model. The theory of human action, according to Juan Antonio Pérez López (JAPL), is far from being a theory that predicts behaviors; rather, it is a theory that presents the conditions that human action must meet in order to be considered ethical.

JAPL's dynamic model (see figure 1), in its simplest form, includes two agents: the active agent (AA), and the reactive agent (RA). His model also includes five elements: the action, the reaction, the structural relationship, the learning of AA in the interaction with RA, and the learning of RA in the interaction with AA.

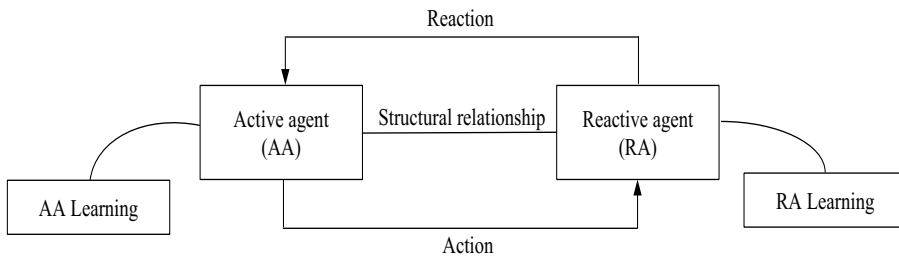


Figure 1. JAPL's dynamic model between an active agent and a reactive agent

AA, the decision-maker, is the agent who starts an action in order to achieve a specific goal. RA is the agent who, with his *reaction*, might solve the desired goal of AA. The relationship between the two agents is not necessarily a hierarchical one (Rosanas, 2008), rather it is an asymmetrical relationship because there is an agent (AA) who *starts* an action and another one (RA) who follows. In this context, we understand as a solution of the problem, the achievement of a certain reaction from RA that AA assumes will increase the latter's own satisfaction.

Each interaction produces three types of results, whether or not they are anticipated by AA: *extrinsic results* (AA's satisfaction in achieving the specific goal), *intrinsic results* (AA's learning because of the interaction), and *external results* (RA's learning because of the interaction). Without a learning process, the model would be reduced to a static one. The learning of both agents in each interaction takes a predominant role because it predicts future interactions. After each action-reaction cycle, the learning of the two agents, which can be positive or negative, may change future decisions, thus modifying the structural relationship. The structural relationship is the relationship between AA

and RA, which is determined by the internal states of each agent and might change due to the learning of each agent as the result of the action-reaction cycle.

Following the three types of results (extrinsic, intrinsic, and external) generated in every interaction, JAPL established three evaluation criteria that AA weighs when deciding: effectiveness, efficiency, and consistency. Effectiveness is the degree to which the human action achieved the desired goal. The effectiveness of a plan is to achieve *a posteriori* what AA expected to achieve *a priori*. Efficiency is the value of the learning in AA as a result of the interaction. Consistency is the value of the learning in RA as a result of the interaction.

For example, a father (in this case AA) aims to increase the school grades of his son (effectiveness). Unfortunately, the action plan puts his son under too much stress, and he eventually suffers burnout as the father's behavior is unduly severe, hard and cold (lack of consistency). This action plan is *effective* because it achieves the desired goal (grades' improvement), but at the same time is *inconsistent* due to the negative impact on his son. In this case, RA (son) will probably avoid many interactions with AA (father), reducing the structural relationship.

The theory of human action also brings in the concepts of motivation and motive. Motivation is the force that pushes humans to act and Pérez López (1991, 1993) distinguishes two types of motivation: spontaneous motivation (*motivación espontánea*) and rational motivation (*motivación racional*). While spontaneous motivation is grounded on impulse, passion or the *attractiveness* of a goal, rational motivation is moved by the *convenience* and the consistency of the plan. Spontaneous motivation is based on the experimental knowledge that is acquired through memory. It is because we know (and we remember) the pleasure and satisfaction produced by a certain kind of interaction that we want to repeat such an interaction with a RA, without considering whether or not such an interaction implies an added value for the RA or not.

In contrast, rational motivation is based on abstract knowledge, which is the ability to evaluate the future consequences of a particular plan. It implies that AA is able to establish an action plan that does not necessarily fit with the *attractiveness* of the results. According to JAPL, freedom is truly manifested through rational motivation. AA acts ethically when he is able to overcome his spontaneous motivation in favor of a rational motivation taking into account the learning of RA. In other words, AA acts ethically when consistency is included in the decision-making process. Thus, in order to act ethically, AA

needs rationality (*racionalidad*) and virtuousness (*virtualidad*). While rationality is the ability to generate plans with consistency (considering the learning of RA), virtuousness is the ability to “control” the spontaneous motivation (impulses) in favor of the rational one. In fact, virtuousness is what freedom needs to be operative.

If motivation is the force that pushes humans to act, motives refer to why humans act (Herzberg, 1982; Deci, Ryan, 1985; Grant, 2007). JAPL introduces three types of motives. These include *extrinsic motives*, which seek to obtain extrinsic results (AA’s satisfaction in achieving the specific goal, typically in economic or symbolic terms); *intrinsic motives*, which seek to gain intrinsic results (AA’s learning, typically in the form of operational skills); and *transcendent motives*, which seek to obtain external results (satisfying RA’s needs, including new learnings).

Another crucial concept in JAPL’s model is *motivational structure*. The *motivational structure* refers to the weight that an individual assigns to extrinsic, intrinsic, and transcendent motives when making decisions. For example, a manager whose decision is based on rational motivation brought by extrinsic motives is basically only compelled by the effectiveness of his actions, ignoring the efficiency and consistency of his interactions. When AA and RA interact, they learn from one another but also from the interaction itself, which changes the decision rule in their next interaction (Simon, 1979; Pérez, López, 1991). As such, the range of feasible interactions in the future might be amplified or reduced depending on the nature of the experience and what each side learned from it, modifying the motivational structure (Ariño, 2005; Simon, 1979; Pérez López, 1991).

JAPL refers to this capacity to assess the motives of others in one’s decision as *motivational learning*, and this learning can be positive or negative. For example, when AA’s decisions are basically based on extrinsic and/or intrinsic motives, they might progressively become less sensitive and aware of the needs of others. JAPL called this type of learning *negative motivational learning*, which can be described as the increase in extrinsic and intrinsic motives in AA’s motivational structure (Ariño, 2005; Pérez López, 1991; Pérez López, 1993). Emphasizing extrinsic and intrinsic motives (two forms of self-focus) implies that others have an instrumental value for the self. As individuals are incapable of valuing others, their ability to maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships might also decline.

An illustrative example of a *negative motivational learning* could be the case of a working father (AA) that wants to be obeyed by another person (RA). But for achieving his goal (effectiveness), he always yells to this person. So, he seeks effectiveness at any cost, but with this interaction (yelling), he ignores the consequences for himself and for the other person, losing efficiency (AA's learning) and consistency (RA's needs and learning). With this interaction, he reduces the trust of the other person, reducing the quality of the relationship, and consequently the chances to repeat a new interaction. In JAPL's words, he diminishes the structural relationship between both agents, becoming a "bad leader" (Jiménez, Chinchilla, Grau-Grau, 2021).

In contrast, people can learn positively. *Positive motivational learning* refers to the increase in the weight of transcendent motives in the motivational structure of individuals. It enhances the ability to consider the needs of others in decisions and to act accordingly regardless of potentially contrary desires of the self (Ariño, 2005; Pérez López, 1991; Pérez López, 1993). Positive motivational learning enables individuals to increasingly anticipate the three outcomes, namely effectiveness, efficiency, and consistency. Furthermore, the trust that individuals might gain from others is *sine qua non* for all available action alternatives to be feasible in the future. Developing transcendent motives might also lead individuals to feel affective satisfaction for others who reciprocate.

Before developing our conceptual model drawing on JAPL theory of human action, in the next section we present why it is important to integrate ethics in the work-family field. The following section also explains two crucial variables for our model: caregiving ambition and family-supportive supervisor behaviors.

III. INTEGRATING JAPL'S THEORY OF HUMAN ACTION IN WORK-FAMILY RESEARCH

Although the research in work-family has exploded in recent decades, work-family theory has not kept up with this growing literature (Powell, Greenhaus, Allen, Johnson, 2019). The current theoretical frameworks seem to ignore the internal process inherent in the work-family field. So, the goal of this section is twofold. First, the section intends to discuss why a new theoretical framework as a way of understanding the decision-making process in the work and family domains is needed. Second, this section will present two core

concepts for our iterative model: *caregiving ambition* (Bear, 2019) and *family-supportive supervisor behaviors* (Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman, Daniels, 2007; Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, Hanson, 2009).

One stream of research regarding how individuals make decisions regarding their work and family life has been guided by role theory (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, Rosenthal, 1964) and work family-conflict, which assumes that role demands cannot be fulfilled simultaneously (Powell, Beutell, 1985). Individuals make cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage demands that exceed their personal resources (Lazarus, Folkman, 1984). In particular, role boundary management and transition are theoretical efforts (Ashforth, Kreiner, Fugate, 2000; Kossek, Ruderman, Braddy, Hannum, 2012) to explain how individuals cope to reduce conflict and harm from life stressors (Aryee, Luk, Leung, Lo, 1999; Dallimore, Mickel, 2011; Drach-Zahavy, Somech, 2008). More recently, the other stream of theory demonstrates that the interaction of the two domains produces positive effects (Greenhaus, Powell, 2006; Kirchmeyer, 1992; Wayne, Musisca, Fleeson, 2004). Individuals make decisions regarding what benefits they transfer and how they transfer them (Kim, Las Heras, 2012; Grau-Grau, 2017). In all of these theoretical perspectives, individuals as decision-makers are implicitly located at the heart of the work-family interface.

Other important theoretical frameworks applied to the work-family field, such as social identity theory (Tajfel, Turner, 1986) or the conservation of resources model (Hobfoll, 1989), have been developed in other contexts and disciplines. However, as stated at the beginning of this section, all these current theoretical frameworks seem to obviate the internal process inherent in the work-family decision-making process, except some interesting recent frameworks.

1. Decision-making process in the work-family field

Powell y Greenhaus (2012) offer a framework by which individuals incorporate family factors into account in their work decisions". With this framework, the scholars enrich the work-family literature by examining individuals' decision-making process. In their framework, they assume that each individual take family factors into account to a different extent. For example, some individuals will accept a promotion to bring more salary to the family, while others will not accept the promotion to spend more time with the fa-

mily. The framework presents four stages with family factors that influence work decisions.

Another interesting framework (Greenhaus, Powell, 2012), instead of examining family factors affecting work decisions, examines the family situation, which is not a variable in the classic sense, but a collection of variables, influences the decisions in the work domain. More specifically, family situation is a “bundle of family-related pressures, demands, responsibilities or needs that call for the attention of focal individual and have potential implications for the well-being of the individual’s family” (248).

Hirschi and his colleagues (Hirschi, Schockley, Zacher, 2019) developed a model on action regulation theory that explains how people regulated goal-directed behaviors through cognitive processes. The model presents four actions strategies used to achieve work and family goals: allocating resources, changing resources and barriers, sequencing goals, and revising goals. So, for the authors work-family balance is an “outcome of the successful joint attainment of work and family goals” (150). Other frameworks instead of examining the internal decision-making process to achieve work-family balance, examine how work-family conflicts are processed, and which types of decisions were considered (Maertz, Boyar, Maloney, 2019; Powell, Greenhaus, 2006).

Existing research highlights that a person’s daily problem-solving depends on their person’s work salience or family salience, in other words, the extent to which work, or family are central to the person’s self-concepts (Edwards, Rothbard, 2000). Because role salience is important for a person’s total self-image and identity (Rothbard, 2001), the centrality of a role can influence individuals’ choices and decisions (Carlson, Kacmar, 2000). Thus, individuals develop and apply rules that are consistent with their personal identities and choose activities that are congruent with their salient social identity (Powell, Greenhaus, 2010).

Faced with a conflict, however, activity importance is a more powerful cue than role salience in decision-making (Powell, Greenhaus, 2006). Such a proposition represents a step forward from a generic role salience to a prioritization of activities based on their importance. However, what criteria individuals use to evaluate what is important to prioritize (and what consequences are derived from those decisions) are yet unknown. Thus, there is a need to understand the reasons why people evaluate and prioritize an activity as more important than another. To do this, we draw from motivational theory.

2. *Motivation in work-family decision-making*

Motivation explains why, in a given situation, a person selects one response over another (Bargh, Gollwitzer, Oettingen, 2010) and what drives actions (Deci, Ryan, 2000; Grant, 2008; Mitchell, Daniels, 2003) Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, also reviewed in the previous section, have been broadly studied in the work motivation literature both theoretically and empirically (Leonard, Beauvais, Scholl, 1999). Extrinsic motivation refers to doing something because of external controls, incentives, punishments, and rewards that move a person to act. Intrinsic motivation refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable (Deci, Ryan, 2000; Herzberg, Mausner, Synderman, 1959). Both types of motivation are centered on the self.

However, not all actions are self-interested. Some actions are oriented toward other people (De Dreu, 2006). The drive for action inspired for others has been framed as transcendent motivation (Pérez López, 1991 y 1993) -as presented previously-, transitive motivation (Lano, 1997) or altruism (Hoffman, 1981; Krebs, 1975) among others. More recent research has introduced the construct of prosocial motivation (Grant, 2007 y 2008). The prefix “pro” in prosocial implies an orientation toward others. In prosocial motivation, interpersonal and affective relationships are especially important (Grant, Berry, 2011; Grant, Sumanth, 2009; Kanfer, 2009). Prosocial motivation is voluntary (De Dreu, 2006) and includes the desire to expend effort to benefit other people, caring about beneficiaries, being cooperative, and investing time and effort without fear of possible personal costs (Batson, Ahmad, Powell, 2008; Batson, 1987; Pérez López, 1991).

Grant (2008) posits that intrinsic and prosocial motivations are not exclusive, but that they collaborate and interact and impact identity. Batson and his colleagues state that “the individual often has more than one ultimate goal at a time, and so more than one motive” (Batson, Ahmad, Powell, 2008: 136). Thus, when multiple motives are present there might be an *inter-motivational conflict*, which refers to a conflict between extrinsic/intrinsic motives and transcendent motives. Faced with an inter-motivational conflict, we propose that individuals are the ones who attribute different weights to each motive. The confluence of motives with different weights defines the motivational structure of an individual (Pérez López, 1991, 1993), as mentioned previously.

3. *Learning in work-family decision-making*

Motivation is one of the characteristics that most influences people's learning which takes place consciously and unconsciously (Bandura, 1976; Gioia, Manz, 1985; Colquitt, LePine, Noe, 2000). Individuals learn through experience, knowledge and perceptions from everyday life (Kolb, 1984). Experiential learning entails adding something new to memory (new perceptions), developing a new operational skill (operational learning), and changing the decision rule (motivational learning) (Kolb, 1984; Pérez López, 1991, 1993). As we presented in the action theory section, experiential learning can also take place within human interaction. Thus, when AA and RA interact, they learn from one another but also from the interaction, and this learning can lead to a change in the decision rule in their next interaction (Simon, 1979; Pérez López, 1991).

Furthermore, research shows that learning is systemic, organizations learn from individuals and individuals learn from organizations (March, 1991). The systemic characteristics of learning are not limited to only occurring between individuals and organizations but also expands to family and society (Greenhaus, Powell, 2006). When individuals learn, their learning impacts organizational decision-making as it provides new factual decision premises (Simon, 1991). Improvements in individuals lead to improvements in organizational capabilities (Watkins, Marsick, 1993). For this to happen however, individuals must be motivated to use their own improvements in a way that benefits the organization. Hence, we suggest that insight into an individual's motivational structure is critical to better understand an individual's ambitions and actions.

Our goal is to understand when and why are supervisors motivated to facilitate work-family balance for their employees. Our conceptual model, apart from using the concepts of motives, motivation and learning presented before, will use the concepts of caregiving ambition and family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB). Bear suggests that although ambition is normally perceived in terms of work, people may have ambition in terms of relationship and care. The author defined caregiving ambition as "an individual's aspirations to nurture and care for others above and beyond any obligation" (Bear, 2019: 99). Within this definition, two dimensions of caregiving exist: the desire to provide care directly (provider dimensions) and the desire to provide resources that indirectly allow dependents to receive care (provision dimension). Thus, caregiving ambition has the ability to influence the work-family interface (Hartman, 2021).

On the other side, family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB) is defined as behaviors exhibited by supervisors that are supportive of employees' family roles (Hammer, Kossek, Bodner, Crain, 2013) and consists of four dimensions: emotional support, instrumental support, role modeling behaviors, and creative work-family management.

Our aim is to provide a framework that explains why some managers have more caregiving ambition than others, and how this caregiving ambition can be transformed into FSSB, generating a positive or a negative learning that affects the motivational structure. In the following section, our conceptual model is presented.

IV. CONCEPTUAL MODEL

Figure 2 shows our work-family decision making theoretical framework. It is an iterative process between the motivational structure and the caregiving ambition; the motivational structure shapes the caregiving ambition which in turn changes managers' behavior with regard to family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB) and motivational learning.

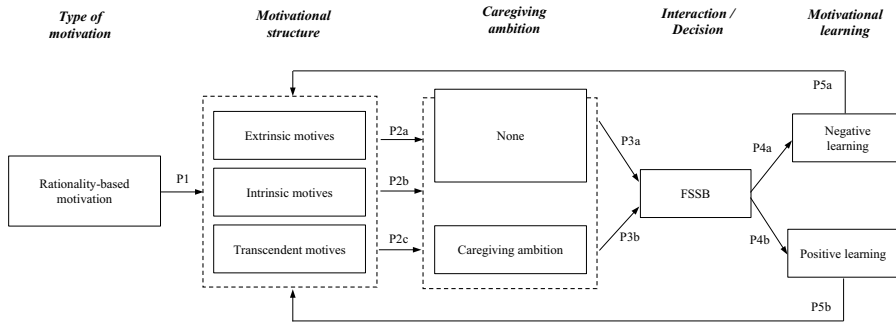


Figure 2. Iterative conceptual framework to understand the internal decision-making process among managers in the work-family field

Traditionally, decision-making has been conceptualized as a rational process of finding an optimal choice given the available information. An individual's action entails a process of interaction with an environment that tends to consist of other rational actors (March, 1996). Individuals have certain perceptions of the situation they face and give each perception a particular value,

depending on the degree of satisfaction it produces, they can choose accordingly (Simon, 1979). However, individuals do not always make conscious decisions as these can also be automatic and spontaneous (George, 2009; Pérez López, 1991; Salas, Rosen, DiazGranados, 2010).

In any interaction, individuals learn consciously and explicitly (March, 1994) but also unconsciously and implicitly (Pérez López, 1991, 1993; Salas, Rosen, DiazGranados, 2010). Every decision generates learning that changes individuals by impacting their cognitive, motivational and affective levels and transforming their frames of references (Mezirow, 1991; Pérez López, 1991, 1993) broadens these consequences to include the learning that arises from interactions. Thus, as we presented under the section II theory of human action, any decision has three types of outcomes, the interaction itself (effectiveness), the internal outcomes for the self (efficiency), and the internal outcomes for others (consistency).

Consider the following scenario: a manager (AA) decides to encourage the use of flexible work-arrangement (FWA) between the team members in order to help them (RA) to find a healthier work-family balance. The outcomes of this decision are threefold: first, the interaction itself, where the manager's (AA) satisfaction increases as team members improve their own work-family balance (Chinchilla, Grau-Grau, 2013), second, the internal outcomes for the self: the manager (AA) learns on how to help the team members through the management of FWA, and third, the internal outcomes for others: the members of the team (RA) feel that they are important to AA, trust AA more, and they might replicate the behaviors and help others too. Therefore, the internal outcomes for the self are whatever individuals learn after the decision. In this example, the manager (AA) has learned to help others regardless of the team's reaction (RA). The internal outcomes for others are whatever others learn depending on their reactions, which in this example might range from being sincerely grateful to thinking that they deserved the help or that AA had an obligation to help. Following this argument, ethical decisions are those in which individuals anticipate the three types of outcomes of each of the various action alternatives (Ariño, 2005).

While motivation is the force that pushes us to act, motives are the reason why we act (Pérez López, 1991, 1993). The weight that an individual assign to each type of motive (extrinsic, intrinsic, and transcendent) determines the *motivational structure*, which changes following a decision dominated by one of the three motives. So, when individuals are rationally motivated this

implies that they have anticipated outcomes (of the interaction, for the self, and for others) leading to a specific action.

For this model, we only consider rational motivation, and we assume that all of the agents (decision-makers) are free systems, meaning that individuals can learn negatively. The rational motivation can have three forms, one per type of motive, which will be described below.

In *rational motivation for extrinsic motives* (RMEM) the perspective taken is internal because the interest is focused on the self. For example, a manager might decide to offer flexible work-arrangements to the team because the only reason is to win the employee award of the year (recognition). Decisions based solely on extrinsic motives might lead to an increasingly reduced and mechanical view of others. In that case, the interest in any relationship might be determined by the other person's resources or how useful he or she can be in achieving the manager's goals, making the relationship a utilitarian one (Batson, 1987; Batson, Ahmad, Powell, 2008).

In *rational motivation for intrinsic motives* (RMIM) the perspective taken is likewise internal, although what is valued is the actual outcome of the task or action. Individuals are driven by achievement, competency development, or feeling good as a result of doing. As Batson and colleagues (Batson, Ahmad, Powell, 2008) indicate in this case people can also be used instrumentally by individuals. An example is a manager who offers FWA to the team members because he or she feels good as a result of doing this, but not because of the benefits that the employees might experience as a result of having more autonomy. Decisions driven solely by intrinsic motives, might also lead to an increasingly narrow view of what it means to be human. taken is external because the interest is focused on the other. Individuals focus on others in order to assist them effectively and improve their lives (Grant, 2007; Grant, Berry, 2011; Parker, Axtell, 2001). In RMTM, the aim is to have a positive impact on others. Regardless of personal costs in terms of time and effort (Grant, 2007), individuals continually invest even if the recipients do not reciprocate (Pérez López, 1991, 1993). The inclusion of transcendent motives in decision-making might broaden an individual's understanding of what it is to be a human. People are not instrumental goals that can be manipulated according to self-interest; rather, they are ultimate goals (Batson, Ahmad, Powell, 2008). Hence, the use of transcendent motives in decision-making might generate trust because individuals consider the implications of their action for others who are aware of such a prosocial approach.

Proposition 1: Rational motivation is composed of three types of motives, extrinsic motives (RMEM), intrinsic motives (RMIM) and transcendent motives (RMTM).

Motivational structure, as presented in the theory of human action refers to the weight that any individual places on extrinsic, intrinsic and transcendent motives when making decisions. Managers with *extrinsic motives* seek to obtain extrinsic results (typically expressed with monetary or symbolic outcomes), managers with *intrinsic motives* seek to gain intrinsic results (operational skills and satisfaction), and managers with *transcendent motives* seek to obtain external results. The three motives exist concurrently and are interconnected (Pérez López, 1991). Since people often have several goals at a time, they also have more than one motive. Sometimes these motives can conflict with one another (Batson, Ahmad, Powell, 2008). Transcendent motives are fundamentally different from the first two motives in that results are not sought for the self but for others. Returning to the previous example, a manager might be motivated to facilitate work-family balance for their employees for recognition (extrinsic motives), for feeling good (intrinsic motives), or for fulfilling employees' needs (transcendent motives).

According to Bear, caregiving ambition is not only relevant to the family or intimate context, individuals also aspire to care for colleagues, neighbors, friends, and even for unknown people. Her model presents two dimensions of the caregiving ambition: direct (provider dimension) and indirect care (provision dimension). When a colleague is not feeling well or suffers work-family conflict one may give both types of support. The model examines three antecedents of caregiving ambition (sex, gender role socialization, and life stage), and although motives are not explicitly mentioned as an antecedent in the model, they are implicitly part of such ambition. Caregiving ambition can only exist considering the needs of the others, so we propose the following:

Proposition 2a: Motives oriented to satisfy extrinsic results are negatively associated with others' needs, generating no caregiving ambition.

Proposition 2b: Motives oriented to satisfy intrinsic results are negatively associated with others' needs, generating no caregiving ambition.

Proposition 2c: Motives oriented to satisfy external results are positively associated with others' needs, generating caregiving ambition.

We also postulate that caregiving ambition is related to FSSB, which is defined as a set of “behaviors by supervisors that are supportive of families”

(Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, Hanson, 2009: 838). Such behaviors include emotional and instrumental support provided by supervisors to their subordinates, role-modelling behaviors, and creative work-family management solutions that may benefit both the organizations and subordinates (Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman, Daniels, 2007), which are direct and indirect forms of caregiving ambition (provider and provision dimension) (Bear, 2019). While we know little about why supervisors provide FSSB. According to the first comprehensive and systematic review of the FSSB (Crain, Stevens 2016), only nine articles examined antecedents of FSSB showing that training (Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, Hanson, 2009), corporate culture, and gender and race similarity of the supervisor and subordinates are associated with supervisor work-family support (Foley, Linnehan, Greenhaus, Weer, 2006). One of the articles reviewed found a positive relationship between LMX (Leader-member Exchange) and FSSB (Morganson, Major, Litano, 2017). According to LMX, leadership is based in the quality of the exchange relationship between leaders and subordinates. For the quality of the exchange is implicit to consider the other. In the same line, we propose that caregiving ambition, which means caring and considering the other, is a prerequisite of FSSB. Following this argument, we propose that:

Proposition 3a: Managers with no caregiving ambition are less likely to practice family-friendly behaviors (FSSB) than other managers.

Proposition 3b: Managers with caregiving ambition are more likely to practice family-friendly behaviors (FSSB) than other managers.

As presented in the action theory section, motivational learning is a crucial concept in JAPL's model, which refers to the capacity to assess the motives of others in one's decisions (Pérez López, 1991) and can be positive or negative depending on the motives for the decision. When individuals' decisions are based on self-focused motives such as extrinsic and intrinsic motives, they might progressively become less sensitive to the needs of others. However, when individuals consider others and act out of transcendent motives, they might be able to detect more action alternatives because of a broader knowledge of reality and the trust-based relationships they have formed (Pérez López, 1991). Recent studies have found that FSSB is positive related to job performance, employee perceptions of health, and employee work family balance among others (Rofcanin, de Jong, Las Heras, Kim, 2018; Bosch, Las Heras, Russo, Rofcanin, Grau-Grau, 2018). Therefore, we propose that fos-

tering FSSB might have implications for the motivational learning of the decision-maker. As a result, we propose that:

Proposition 4a: Managers who are not able to practice family-friendly behaviors (FSSB) are more likely to develop negative motivational learning.

Proposition 4b: Managers who are able to practice family-friendly behaviors (FSSB) are more likely to develop positive motivational learning.

Negative motivational learning refers to the increase in extrinsic and intrinsic motives in the motivational structure of individuals. This decreases the ability to consider the needs of others (Ariño, 2005; Pérez López, 1991, 1993). While individuals continually apply a decision that has worked previously, applying it in the long run might not be feasible because people lose trust. This might make it more difficult, or even impossible, to solve new problems in the future because the necessary conditions for solving them have been imperiled. With time, the other might realize that he or she has been used and thus will refuse to maintain a relationship. A greater weight on extrinsic and/or intrinsic motives implies that others are a mean for achieving the goals of the self, instead of being an end (Batson, 1987; Batson, Ahmad, Powell, 2008). As individuals are incapable of valuing others, their ability to maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships might also decline.

Negative motivational learning happens when individuals do not consider others. If this learning is repeated, individuals might become incapable of assessing the impact of their decisions on others. Thus, negative learning might destroy the ability to give and receive affection and to trust other people. Individuals are distanced from the fundamental properties of reality, namely people. Yet people are the foundation for the effectiveness of action plans. As a result, there might be a general deterioration in the motivational structure of the active agent (AA). So, our proposition is the following one:

Proposition 5a: Negative motivational learning reinforces the extrinsic and intrinsic motives in the motivational structure of the AA.

By contrast, *positive motivational learning* refers to the increase in the weight of transcendent motives in the motivational structure of individuals. It enhances the ability to consider the needs of others in decisions and to act accordingly regardless of (potentially opposite) desires of the self. When people learn positively, they anticipate the three types of outcomes (extrinsic, intrin-

sic, and external) and might act more out of transcendent motives. As a result, they might have a broader perspective (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, Grzywacz, 2006) and might be more capable of solving their future problems better, because they comprehend more aspects of reality. Research shows that when someone sees things from someone else's point of view that person gains access to viewpoints that provide new information (Galinsky, Maddux, Gilin, White, 2008), which might enable a person to make more accurate judgments. Individuals driven by transcendent motives might be capable of anticipating different kinds of outcomes and understand people better (whatever the motivational structure of others are). Positive motivational learning might hence enrich a person's perspective and rationality. They might also treat others humanely at the cognitive, affective, and behavioral level such that "others" are an end in and of themselves. As a result of this, we have developed the following proposition:

Proposition 5b: Positive motivational learning reinforces transcendent motives in the motivational structure of the AA.

V. DISCUSSION

In this paper, we developed a work-family decision-making framework drawing on Pérez López's theory of human action (Pérez López, 1991). We posit that a confluence of motives impacts caregiving ambition, and that caregiving ambition impacts FSSB, from which a motivational learning is derived, and continually shapes future decisions. Our contribution broadens the existing literature on theory building in relation to work and family in the following aspects.

First, we bring the individual back to center stage as we agree on the need to further study the self in work-family research (Parker, Hall, 1992). We concur with the view that the conception of the individual is fundamental in theory building (Barnard, 1968) and that "individual human action is the key level of analysis" (Elster, 1989: 74). However, we adopt a broader perspective of what the self is and move beyond the self-concept that follows external standards (role salience) to one that follows internal standards (motives). Hence, our model is centered on the motivational structure and motivational learning shaping individuals' evaluation of what is important and thereby their prioritization of one decision over another.

Our conception of the individual is also based on the assumption that individuals undergo learning experiences from the decisions they make, no matter in which domain they are. Although a person might have different role (e.g., manager, parent, citizen), the decisions and learning in one domain affects the rest of the domains. More importantly, we propose that these learning experiences impact individuals' motivational structure. In addition, learning experiences shape implicit models of human beings, given that people act on the basis of fundamental assumptions or attitudes regarding others—although they are rarely conscious that they are doing so (Barnard, 1968). The motivational structure shapes the lenses through which individuals see and understand the other: as an instrument to achieving individuals' goals or as a human being who also has his/her own needs and goals. Thus, in a work-family context the extent to which transcendent motives are present in decision-making is even more important because the two domains are inherently made up of individuals.

Second, we propose a work-family decision-making model that integrates the dynamic nature of motivational structure via the motivational learning thus broadening the assumptions of previous studies that have focused on the behavioral level. Furthermore, we suggest that the decision-making process functions as a loop. More specifically, decisions driven by transcendent motives lead to positive motivational learning, which in turn strengthens the transcendent dimension in the motivational structure of a person. Thus, this might involve an enriching iterative process as transcendent motives might improve the quality of the decision itself because individuals have a broader range of action alternatives and thus are able to act in the way that is most appropriate to the situation (Ariño, 2005; Pérez López, 1991, 1993). People are more willing to engage in social exchanges because of trust. Nahapiet and Ghoshal indicate that “trust lubricates cooperation, and cooperation itself breeds trust” (Nahapiet, Ghoshal, 1998: 255). Paraphrasing these authors, we propose that trust makes it easier for people to act out of transcendent motives and acting out of transcendent motives breeds trust. Research shows that social capital and relationships of trust can be created in the family and subsequently transferred to work situations, adding to the organizational capital of companies (Burt, 1992). Indeed, social capital is one of the resources that are transferred between the work and family domains (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, Grzywacz, 2006).

On the other hand, decisions driven uniquely by extrinsic and/or intrinsic motives lead to negative motivational learning, which in turn strengthens the extrinsic or intrinsic motives in the motivational structure of a person.

Thus, this might be an impoverishing iterative process as the reduced weight of prosocial motives might push individuals to become incapable of understanding people (less caregiving ambition). Giving less value to others might undermine relationships and might reduce the ability to be trustable and build stable relationships. The likelihood of making correct decisions might therefore be diminished as individuals might increasingly find it difficult to foresee and anticipate the consequences of the interaction due to their diminished capacity to understand reality. Consequently, the number of feasible alternatives might decrease, leading perhaps to a breakdown in relations and the destruction of social capital. Due to the interdependence of domains, family, organization, and society are also impoverished. Because the individual is the interface between domains and it is the individual who learns, motivational learning also spills over from one domain to another. The person is a whole, and so is the person's motivational structure, although its configuration changes after each interaction.

Finally, while we have proposed a rationality-based motivation model, we are aware of research that points out that many nonconscious thoughts, behaviors and feelings are the drivers in day-to-day decision-making and behaviors (Hassin, Uleman, Bargh, 2005; Bargh, 2007). Thus, individuals cannot survive without these nonconscious processes. They are necessary shortcuts through which things become routine, because individuals do not know all of the alternatives and cannot calculate all the consequences (Simon, 1979). In fact, often individuals do not act with a long-term perspective; instead they act as if choices only have immediate effects (Gray, 1999). For that reason, we propose the study of decisions based on the nonconscious path and the role of motivational enrichment and impoverishment in that path, for future research.

VI. CONCLUSION

Based on human action theory developed by JAPL, we have proposed a conceptual model of how managers make decisions about work-family balance. We have specifically focused on decisions made on a rational basis taking into consideration the motivational structure of managers (extrinsic, intrinsic, and transcendent motives) and their caring ambition and FSSB. This iterative model illustrates how motivational factors influence caregiving ambition and FSSB from which motivation learning is derived, and continually shapes future interactions.

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