Fall 2023

Evaluation of the Hispanic Paradox: Conceptualized Through the Lens of Generational Decision-Making Styles of First-, Second-, and Third-Plus-Generation Hispanic Leaders

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Evaluation of the Hispanic Paradox: Conceptualized Through the Lens of Generational Decision-Making Styles of First-, Second-, and Third-Plus-Generation Hispanic Leaders

Submitted to Southeastern University

Jannetides College of Business, Communication, and Leadership

In partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in Organizational Leadership

Daniel de León, Jr
October 5, 2023

Jannetides College of Business, Communication, and Leadership

Southeastern University

This is to certify that the dissertation prepared by:

Daniel de León, Jr.

titled

EVALUATION OF THE HISPANIC PARADOX: CONCEPTUALIZED THROUGH THE LENS OF GENERATIONAL DECISION-MAKING STYLES OF FIRST-, SECOND-, AND THIRD-PLUS-GENERATION HISPANIC LEADERS

Has been approved by their committee as satisfactory completion of the dissertation requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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Southeastern University Institutional Review Board Approval:

July 5, 2023

October 5, 2023

Abstract

The primary objective of this dissertation was first to ascertain whether there is a statistically significant effect of generation on decision-making styles and secondarily to ascertain whether there would be a statistically significant interaction effect for study participant gender and generation upon decision-making styles. The researcher hypothesized that there are quantifiable differences among Hispanic generations: first-generation Hispanic immigrants to the second and third-plus generations (Kiang et al., 2011; Pan & Pierre Lu, 2015). Decision-making styles create a framework to understand an individual's decision-making process, problem-solving matrix, and interactions with other organizations and team members (Rowe & Boulgarides, 1983). The population for this study included Hispanic pastors and leaders of the Hispanic districts of the Assemblies of God Fellowship (Springfield, MO). The Hispanic Districts of the Assemblies of God were selected for their unique Hispanic population matrix. The study's topic was addressed using a quantitative, nonexperimental research design. The study's research methodology was a survey research approach. The instrument was the General Decision-Making Style (Scott & Bruce, 1995) survey, and the internal reliability level achieved in the study was considered good to very good for the overall value and for each of the three generational values ($\alpha = .84$). Participants ($n = 226$) responded to 30 survey items: 5 demographic questions and 25 decision-making style questions. The data were collected using an online survey platform (SurveyMonkey) and analyzed using SPSS. The final analysis revealed a nonstatistically significant (F (10, 410) = 0.96, $p = .48$, $\eta p^2 = 0.02$) relationship between decision-making styles and generations. There was a similar finding for the secondary study question, in that the main effect for study participant generation was nonstatistically significant (F (10, 404) = 1.24, $p = .26$, $\eta p^2 = 0.03$). Congruently, the three hypotheses for Research Questions 1 and 2 were rejected considering the nonstatistically significant interaction effect. These results challenge assumptions of decision-making style and generational theory—and, as such, open the door to a new empirical examination of the constructs.

Keywords: Decision-Making Styles, Decision-Making, Hispanics, Acculturation, Spanglish, Generations, Bilingual, Culture

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of Dr. Ruth I. “Mamasita” de Leon, a loving mother, most ardent supporter, and an example to all who knew her—a true Proverbs 31 woman of God.

To my wife, Kristine Marie, ever since I presented this crazy idea, you never faltered in the assurance that I could do it. You will never know how many late nights your belief in me sustained me to the morning—I could have never done this without you. Thank you so very much. I love you now and forever.

To my family, Danelle, Angel, Daniel III, Melissa, Johnathan, Kelly, and Christopher, your constant words of affirmation of belief in me, even when I doubted myself, were a supportive voice of encouragement every step of the way. To my grand buddies Marcus, Dominic, and Tobias, may this project be a constant reminder that you can do anything you set your mind to.

To my father, even though you had to say goodbye to your lifelong partner during my doctoral journey, you never stopped supporting and encouraging me to finish the good work our heavenly Father called me to. Your life and testimony will always be an inspiration in my life.

Acknowledgments

First, and perhaps most pertinent, I give honor and glory to my heavenly Father for placing the idea of a Ph.D. in my heart, sustaining me through the entire journey, and continually placing the right individuals at the perfect time to help me cross the finish line. This journey is a testament to the truth that nothing is impossible with Him (Luke 1:37).

To my committee, Dr. Henson, Dr. Gollery, and Dr. Rodriguez, as I noted to you in our first meeting together, I feel that I have the dissertation committee's dream team. Dr. Henson, you continually challenged my thinking, pressed me toward the goal, and brought the best writing out of me. Dr. Gollery, your kind voice and committed responses to my many questions directed me toward in-depth analysis of the data and completion of this project; it has been an honor to work with you. Dr. Rodriguez, I have been a fan of your work for some time, and I am honored that you would take the time to be part of my committee. Your expertise in this space helped identify unique qualities exposed in the research and relevance to the Hispanic community.

To my mentors, Dr. Heuser and Dr. Petersen, thank you for seeing and voicing the potential you both saw in me and the belief that my academic journey was not over. Thank you for responding to all the late-night calls and emails asking for advice and direction with words of encouragement. It means more than I can ever articulate sufficiently – thank you for believing in me.

To my Templo Calvario Church, Pastoral Staff, and Community Development Corporation Family, thank you for your sustained encouragement, patience, and support throughout my academic journey. It does take a village, and every one of you contributed to this research project with your prayers, support, and voices of encouragement when I needed it most. With all my heart, thank you!

To Dennis, the Assemblies of God Hispanic District Director, and Superintendents, thank each of you for believing this was a significant research project for the Hispanic community. Thank you for taking a chance and sending the survey to all your constituents as a sign of support for this research project. You all made this dissertation possible, and I am eternally grateful.

Finally, to my C4Ward family, Dr. Cater and Dr. Hawkins, Sr., I thank God for bringing you all into my life. We recognized a special bond from the first residency that we knew would last a lifetime. C4Ward, thank you for your support, advice, and willingness to help, no matter the time or the hour.

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Chapter 1 – Introduction

The United States (U.S.) Census Bureau estimates that there are over 62.2 million Hispanics or Latinos (of any race) in the United States as of 2021. According to the Pew Research Center, this represents 19% of the population (M. H. Lopez et al., 2022). The estimated population of Hispanics and the percentage of the nation's population are both record highs for the demographic profile of the United States. These data highlight the significant U.S. growth of foreign and domestic-born Hispanics. This not only identifies a substantial impact on U.S. population growth, but also reveals an opportunity to examine how such diverse cultural perspectives impact different segments of society (Ortiz, 1993; Rodriguez, 2011). The U.S. Hispanic community's growth has been well-documented in recent decades (Krogstad et al., 2022; T. Mitchell, 2017). The data supporting such a statement are readily available; however, some key data points are:

- From 2010 to 2019, the Latino population increased from 10% to 18%. This growth accounts for over half (52%) of the U.S. population growth in the United States (Noe-Bustamante et al., 2020).
- The Latino population is the country's second-largest ethnic group, behind only White non-Hispanics (Passel et al., 2022).
- The Hispanic population can be found throughout the United States, with the fastest growing sector being in the South at +26% (Passel et al., 2022).

Given that technological advances of globalization have blurred geographical borders, multicultural dynamics have not only influenced popular culture (Cárdenas et al., 2021; Sui & Paul, 2020) but also significantly impacted the way organizational leaders lead team dynamics and the variables that influence an individual's decision-making process (Chin & Trimble, 2015; Ferdman & Deane, 2013; Holtzman & Anderberg, 2011). Researchers have confirmed the significant growth of the Hispanic in the U.S. population and the need to understand the Hispanic community's linguistic, cultural, and organizational dynamics (Johnson & Lichter, 2016; Lichter & Johnson, 2020).

Leaders are not only tasked to develop the procedural models that will bring about organizational continuity, but also construct organizational praxis that both acknowledges diversity and creates opportunities for organizational diversity to further the mission of the organization (Chin & Trimble, 2015; Ferdman & Deane, 2013; Homan et al., 2020; Javidan et al., 2006; Lisak et al., 2016). As organizational praxis, cultural diversity, and ethical standards from a multicultural perspective are in a constant state of flux (Stahl, Maznevski, et al., 2010), the construct of leadership is in a continuous state of development and redefinition to address the shifting landscape of organizational leadership (Avolio, 2007; Pietraszewski, 2020; Vogelgesang et al., 2013). The concept of leadership is a paradox of ideas lacking consensus in the literature regarding a singular definition (Bass, 1985), a standard applicational model that addresses every situation (Mumford et al., 2007), and uniformity in methods of multicultural leadership, team cohesion, and consistent decision-making (Burns, 1978; Meindl et al., 1985).

Extant multicultural challenges and inconsistent organizational praxes regarding the phenomenon of the exponential growth of the Hispanic population in the United States are not limited to the role of the leader. Recent scholarly efforts have focused on multicultural team dynamics (Chin & Trimble, 2015; Korporowicz, 2016; Matthews et al., 2021) and multilayered cultural variables that impact the leader, team, and decision-making (Stahl, Maznevski, et al., 2010). Congruently, the blurring of national geographical borders has found organizations needing to reevaluate what it means to be a leader, a group member within a multicultural framework, and the processes by which decisions are made at every level of the organization (Anderson & Sun, 2017; Lisak et al., 2016). Researchers have ascertained that globalization offers a new opportunity to examine leadership and leadership paradigms from a broader, more cross-cultural frame of reference (Guttormsen, 2018; Hanges et al., 2016; Pietraszewski, 2020; Plachy & Smunt, 2021).

Hofstede (2001, 2011) and colleagues developed a quantifiable way to understand cultural perspectives globally and the implications of these diverse perspectives on organizational leadership and organizational theory (Hofstede et

al., 2010; Leonardi & Rodriguez-Lluesma, 2013; Lisak et al., 2016). Hofstede detected five central dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, and long-term versus short-term orientation. These five dimensions were categorized as the lenses through which individuals see and understand the situation in which they find themselves (Gallego-Álvarez & Pucheta-Martínez, 2021; Matthews et al., 2021; Stępień & Dudek, 2021; Taras et al., 2012). With over 40,000 citations (Beugelsdijk et al., 2017), Hofstede's research contributed significantly to an individual's ability to gain a cross-cultural perspective of someone with a different cultural mindset (Gallego-Álvarez & Pucheta-Martínez, 2021; Taras et al., 2012)—all of which impact the decision-making process of the individuals in the room. As Hofstede et al. (2010) suggested, "the source of one's mental programs lies within the social environments in which one grew up and collected one's life experiences" (p. 5). Although Hofstede's (2001, 2011) original five dimensions were not the focus of this research project, the work of Hofstede serves as an example of cultural tendencies inherent in every individual, influencing every aspect of their life, including the decision-making process. What researchers have not sufficiently addressed is the paradox presented to leaders and organizational teams when the decision-making process is informed by diverse perspectives that influence team consensus on the decision's direction, implementation, and validity.

The leaders and the teams that make up the organization are essential to an organization's operation (Alvesson, 2020; Uhl-Bien & Arena, 2018). The primary objective for establishing the leader-team relationship is to make decisions, communicate those decisions, and align their findings with the organization's mission and goals. This symbiotic relationship is foundational in any organization—a process that often starts before the formalization of the organization. Before an organization is formed, there is a methodology by which an individual, or individuals, decides what the mission, vision, and objectives will be, all of which are predicated on a decision-making process. Discussions that construct the parameters and terminology of organizational praxis, the methodology by which the organization will be run on a day-to-day basis, and the

practical implications of agreed-upon decisions. As Ashford et al. (2021) theorized, "team performance will often include individual or collective decision-making to be the difference between a win, loss, or draw" (p. 1). The research of Ashford et al. (2021) aligns with the notion that the foundation of organizational congruency is predicated on the normative action of decision-making and the corresponding deliberative action on the decisions being made (Hahlweg et al., 2017; Ladinig et al., 2021).

Diverse in their perspectives and findings, researchers have continued to examine the decision-making process in various management and applicational models (Gomez & Levine, 2022; Liu et al., 2021). With increased pressure to measurably improve team performance through constructive decision-making, scholars have sought to understand what sound decision-making processes look like and the variables that impact the decision-making process (Ashford et al., 2021; Ladegard & Gjerde, 2014). Some recent examples of such research include the study of Chen et al. (2022), who sought to understand how the decision-making process is organized when the founders "exhibit" a confidence bias toward their perspective and the decisions they make (p. 842). Liu et al. (2021) examined two central perspectives of decision-making, that of the top management team (TMT) and the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the organization, with a focus on how these two organizational stakeholders align in decision-making meetings. From a political and policy perspective, Gomez and Levine (2022) examined the decision-making process through selection policies, individual selection decisions, and a corresponding intervention that addresses the phenomenon. Ashford et al. (2021) determined that there are three contributors to the decision-making process (i.e., information process, ecological dynamics, and naturalistic behavior), and it is these contributors that an individual utilizes to influence a corresponding decision and behavior. While recent research has provided valid and significant contributions to decision-making literature, the need to explore the role of diverse cultural perspectives on the decision-making process remains. Further, even though the multifaceted growth of the Hispanic community in the United States has been well-documented and empirically supported (Krogstad et al., 2022; T. Mitchell, 2017;

Passel et al., 2022), few scholars have focused on the ramifications of such exponential growth of a specific people group (i.e., their culture, organizational practices, leadership paradigms, and team dynamics) have on the decision-making styles and processes from within the Hispanic community and whether the following generations utilized the same paradigm. Therefore, an examination would contribute to the knowledge base and clarify the challenges and opportunities in the U.S. Hispanic community.

Statement of the Problem

There are several challenges when seeking to understand the Hispanic paradox. First, the Hispanic community in the United States presents several challenges to the researcher. The term Hispanic is a generalized term that "masks" the considerable diversity found within this people group (Guglani, 2016, p. 345). The diversity found in the Hispanic community creates space for a myriad of perspectives, ideologies, and cultural paradigms (Ortiz, 1993; Rodriguez, 2011). As with many such cultural perspectives, the Hispanic subculture differs across all social-economic, political, educational, or ideological views (R. R. Lopez et al., 2005; Ortiz, 1993; D. R. Sanchez, 2006). Hispanics do not think the same, act the same, dress the same, or vote the same (Guglani, 2016). All these contribute to the difficulty of understanding the Hispanic community as a mono-culture with standard practices, values, and identities.

Second, the various Hispanic generations are often seen in the literature as a monolinguistic subculture unified by a common language. (Alba et al., 2002; Lipski, 2008). Although this may seem to be the case from an external perspective, there is no congruency between a centralized usage of or a common language (Lipski, 2008). Most people in this Hispanic subculture are bilingual in language and thought (Krogstad & Barrera, 2015; Rodriguez, 2011). Data from the U.S. Census revealed that about six in 10 U.S. adult Hispanics (62%) speak English or are bilingual. U.S. Hispanics are divided into three groups regarding their language use: 36% are bilingual, 25% mainly use English, and 38% mainly use Spanish. Among those who speak English, 59% are bilingual (Krogstad & Barrera, 2015).

Every problem, decision, and vision for the future is shaped by cultural paradigms such as language, background, and years in the United States.

Rodriguez (2011) stated that the "overwhelming majority of US-born English-dominant Latinos are still Latinos at heart…they embrace many values and attributes of the dominant group in the United States" (p. 16). Bilingual Hispanics in the United States are part of two competing realities. One is a cultural perspective significantly influenced by the host country, while the other is influenced by the world of their parents and grandparents (M. Morales, 2016; Ortiz, 1993; D. R. Sanchez, 2006). Diversity issues such as inclusion, equality, and identity are seen differently, creating an intercultural disconnect between generational members of the Hispanic community (M. Morales, 2016; Ortiz, 1993). These various constructs influence how the individual expresses and manages tension related to a diverse framework within a Hispanic, bilingual organization or team (Martinez, 2016; Ortiz, 1993).

Third, many leadership paradigms focus on a more general intercultural tension (Dodd, 1991; Guttormsen, 2018; Korporowicz, 2016). For example, Oswald and Johnson (2010) proposed that a leader is tasked with opposing realities in which one cannot stand alone without the other, given that one reality depends on the other. Javidan et al. (2006) resolved that value-based, team-oriented, participative, human-oriented, autonomous, and self-protective are critical in addressing intercultural diversity issues. Building on the work of Allport (1954), Pettigrew (1973) similarly conjectured that the distinct characteristics of equal status, common goals, intergroup cooperation, and support of authorities, law, or customs are essential in addressing intergenerational tension.

Fourth, the research of Hofstede (2001, 2011) empirically supported the notion that there are many differences among individuals when the variable of national culture is considered (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Stahl, Maznevski, et al., 2010). Hofstede identified a framework of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, and long-term versus short-term orientation. Through these lenses, an individual can understand cultural perspectives globally and the implications of these diverse perspectives on

organizational leadership and organizational theory (Leonardi & Rodriguez-Lluesma, 2013; Lisak et al., 2016). Hofstede's research contributed significantly to an individual's ability to gain a cross-cultural perspective of someone with a different national culture mindset (Gallego-Álvarez & Pucheta-Martínez, 2021; Taras et al., 2012). What is lacking is how these perspectives across foreign-born immigrants and the following generations culturally align and where they diverge when living in the same country—in this context, the United States (Ferdman & Deane, 2013; Gallegos & Ferdman, 2007, 2012; R. R. Lopez et al., 2005).

Although research, such as those considered here, is significant in their contributions to understanding intercultural tension, they do not specify how Hispanic leadership teams address decision-making polarities. Specifically when variables such as years in the United States, language divergence, cultural diversity, and communication are present (Guglani, 2016). Further, while there has been a significant amount of research in the area of intergenerational communications with diverse populations, diverse and immigrant populations, no studies to date have centered on the relationship between generational differences and decision-making styles in the Hispanic community.

Purpose of the Research

The researcher of this study examined the differences in decision-making styles of first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanic pastors and leaders in the Assemblies of God fellowship. The second objective was to determine whether there is a statistically significant interaction effect for study participant gender and generation upon decision-making styles. (Fox et al., 2015; Guglani, 2016).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

When seeking to understand the Hispanic paradox of generational difference, several problems should be addressed. One is researchers' proclivity to perceive the Hispanic community in the United States as one monoculture holding all norms, cultural perspectives, and use of the Spanish language in common (Guglani, 2016; Lipski, 2008). Among the different Hispanic generations, there is a lack of consensus regarding inclusion (Ferdman & Deane, 2013), equality (Carr &

Kutty, 2008), and a central identity (Portes & MacLeod, 1996). Yet another challenge is that much of the existing literature focuses on a more general topic of intergenerational tension in decision-making, not how Hispanic leadership addresses decision-making polarities. Researchers such as Hofstede (2001, 2011) have recognized inherent differences but did not seek to understand how these differences could be understood in the decision-making styles of a culturally diverse group of individuals seeming to come from the same culture group. The current researcher examined the differences in decision-making styles of first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanic pastors and leaders in the Assemblies of God fellowship, as well as the relationship between time lived in the United States and the interaction effect for study participant gender and generation upon decision-making styles (Fox et al., 2015; Guglani, 2016).

Research Question 1

Although relatively new, there is a growing interest among researchers to explore the differences among Hispanic generations in the United States. For example, Hull (2022) investigated the academic progress of different generations of Hispanics in the United States. Guglani (2016) explored language preferences among Hispanics living in the United States. Both provided valid and significant contributions. Yet, there is a need to examine generational differences in the Hispanic community in the United States regarding decision-making styles. Therefore, the inquisitive framework for this study was structured by one central research question:

RQ1: Is there a statistically significant effect for generation upon decision-making styles?

H1a: There is a statistically significant effect on decision-making styles among first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanics.

H1b: There is a statistically significantly higher level of rational decision-making style compared to intuitive decision-making style among second and third-plus-generation Hispanics.

Research Question 2

RQ2: Is there a statistically significant interaction effect for study participant gender and generation upon decision-making styles?

H1a: There is a statistically significant effect for decision-making styles among first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanics.

Significance of the Research

The U.S. Hispanic community is often approached in the literature as a mono subculture with a central set of variables that can be researched as understood from a monocultural (Potochnick & Perreira, 2010; Suro & Passel, 2003). No known study had previously combined the examination of intergenerational Hispanics (i.e., first-, second-, third-plus-generation), diversity in the Hispanic community, and the influence of these variables on their decision-making styles. Existing studies have focused their attention on the ramifications of the exponential growth of the Hispanic community in the United States (Abascal, 2015; Johnson & Lichter, 2016; Lichter & Johnson, 2020). M. Morales (2016) posited that diversity issues such as inclusion, equality, and identity are seen differently within multigenerational Hispanic organizations, which may create an intercultural disconnect among the different generations (M. Morales, 2016; Ortiz, 1993). M. Morales (2016) called for researchers to examine the paradigm that makes up the Hispanic generational paradox, in this context, the second, third-plus Hispanic generations born here in the United States. The objective was to understand these dynamics by quantifiably examining a population of Hispanic leaders across four generations (i.e., first-, second-, and third-plus-generations) in order to ascertain better how decision-making styles influence the decision-making process of the individual and the leadership team.

In terms of practical application, such analysis has applicational viability in several domains within the decision-making styles construct. As de Bruin et al. (2007) postulated, the primary focus of decision-making styles has been "studied in isolation"—and, as such, has ignored the subtle nuances in decision-making when the variable of an individual's style is accounted for, as a dynamic of the leadership team. The researcher of the current study acknowledged and focused on these

differences as more than personality types, decision-making tendencies, and limited perspective. Instead, the findings may expose these multilayered perspectives as foundational to team leadership, praxis, and efficacy (Bayram & Aydemir, 2017; Dabić et al., 2015; Palmiero et al., 2020). This study's findings may also aid organizational and team leaders in creating a framework for understanding the role of cultural differences and an individual's decision-making style. A need was identified by Dabić et al. (2015) when they argued that decision-making styles and cultural differences have mainly been "marginalized" when compared to "other aspects [of] management research" (p. 276). The current researcher examined these differences and detected possible methodologies that may have been overlooked by management and decision-making research. In so doing, the researcher sought to create a framework of decision-making styles that help clarify the actions and reactions of individual leadership team members when making decisions (Li et al., 2015) with the ultimate goal of understanding diverse decision-making styles that could aid communication methodology and team cohesiveness in diversity in decision-making styles.

Additionally, the current body of literature has generally ignored the reality that the local church pastor is not only a critical spiritual leader but also often serves as the church's organizational executive (Masenya & Booyse, 2016). As such, they are called upon to make decisions impacting the entire church organization, not just matters of faith. It was further argued that there is a significant gap in the literature in identifying church leaders (i.e., pastors) as more than spiritual leaders but as leaders responsible for an organization's operations (Wrenn et al., 1995). Responsibilities include team leadership (Rowold, 2008), managing organizational diversity (R. Romero, 2020; Rusaw, 1996), and those that create their church's mission. This delineation is significant, given the local church's role in the Hispanic community (R. Romero, 2020).

Conceptual Framework

A theoretical framework helps in positioning and hypothesizing the research theories, assuring that the researcher aligns and works within the theoretical confines of the study (Franz, 2023). The conceptual framework for this study was

(a) generational differences among Hispanics in the United States, (b) Hofstede's (2001, 2011) cultural dimension, and (c) decision-making styles among Hispanic generations in the United States. The theoretical foundation for this study was the assumptions made due to Hofstede's cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 2001, 2011) and decision-making styles (Phillips et al., 1984; Scott & Bruce, 1995). Given that no research, to date, has examined the decision-making styles of different Hispanic generations in the United States, the concepts were relevant. They served as an applicable foundation from which to test the hypotheses.

Hofstede's Five Dimensions

At first glance, the research of Hofstede (2001, 2011) may seem unconnected to this research project. His findings are supportive, however, in that national cultures inform an individual's belief systems, attitudes, and preferences, often without the formal knowledge of the individual (Zhang et al., 2007). What Hofstede's research exposed was how to understand the existence of national cultures, at least from a meta-perspective. As a result, Hofstede's dimensions created a framework from which thousands of research studies have been examined (Chiang, 2005; Gallego-Álvarez & Pucheta-Martínez, 2021; Tekic & Tekic, 2021). The five original dimensions of Hofstede's research are power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, long-term versus short-term orientation, and indulgence versus restraint (Hofstede, 2001, 2011; Hofstede et al., 2010). Hofstede's research allowed an individual from one country to gain a cultural perspective of someone from another culture or country (Gallego-Álvarez & Pucheta-Martínez, 2021; Taras et al., 2012). Hofstede's five dimensions acknowledged the lenses through which every individual sees and interacts with the world, whether foreign or domestic. As a result, they create generational differences from one generation to another as the national culture shifts within the different subcultures (Portes & MacLeod, 1996; E. Romero, 2004). Within this study, national perspectives informed by Latin American national culture and Hispanic national cultures shaped and informed in the United States (Portes & MacLeod, 1996). Hofstede's resulting book, *Culture's Consequences*, has become one of the most cited books on national cultures, the five dimensions, and

social sciences (Stępień & Dudek, 2021, p. 62), giving researchers a robust framework from which to analyze diversity.

Generational Differences

The Hispanic community in the United States diverges in how they see and experience acculturation, socio-economic opportunities, and their place in U.S. society (McKeever & Klineberg, 1999). The Hispanic community in the United States is often seen and researched from a monocultural perspective (Gallegos & Ferdman, 2012; Lichter & Johnson, 2020; E. Romero, 2004). From a macro perspective, the research of Hofstede (2001, 2011) identifies the differences that can be found in a multicultural group of individuals (Stępień & Dudek, 2021; Taras et al., 2012). The current researcher hypothesized that there are identifiable differences among Hispanic immigrant generations from the first generation Hispanic immigrants to the second and third-plus generations (Kiang et al., 2011; Pan & Pierre Lu, 2015). The lack of a collective self-identity among Hispanics (Portes & Truelove, 1987) indicates a construct of differences in how Hispanic generations interact and understand each other within the community and how they interact with those outside the Hispanic community (Ackert et al., 2021; DeCamp & Bundy, 2012).

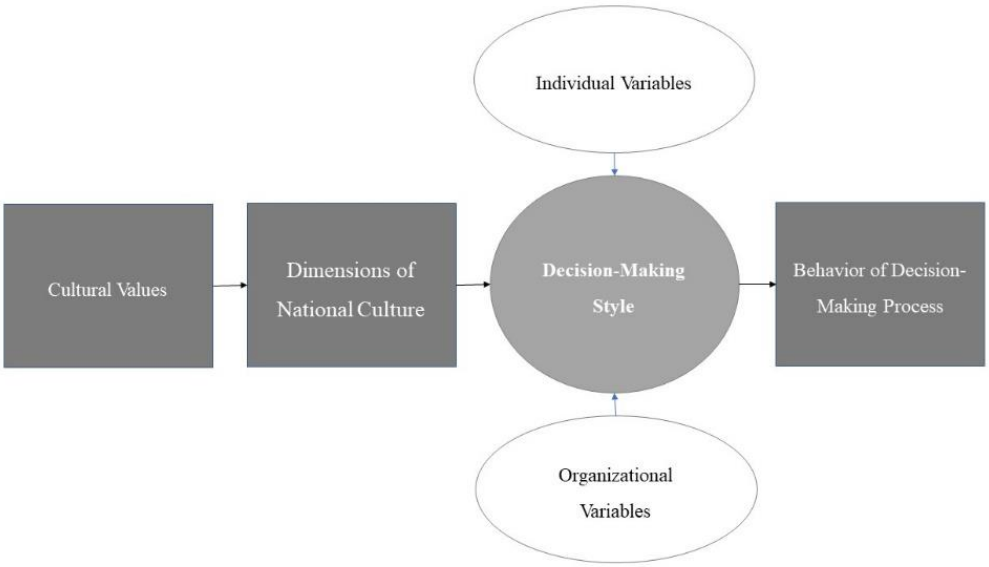
For example, due to generational differences among the Hispanic community, one political party cannot claim to be the primary voice of the Hispanic community in the United States (Espinosa, 2014). As acculturation of the second and third-plus generations enter the political process, there is growing diversity in social justice, immigration, and socioeconomic perspectives (Abrajano & Alvarez, 2010; Torney-Purta et al., 2006). Another example was identified by McKeever and Klineberg (1999), who conjectured that the "length of exposure to U.S. culture among Hispanic immigrants…is positively associated with educational attainment and negatively associated with poverty-related behaviors" (p. 38). These two examples identify generational paradoxes within the U.S. Hispanic community when seeking to understand them as a monoculture that shares common ideological and methodological perspectives (Portes & Truelove, 1987).

Decision-Making Styles

Decision-making styles create a framework to understand an individual's decision-making process, problem-solving matrix, and how they interact with other organizations and team members (Rowe & Boulgarides, 1983). Podrug (2011) confirmed that decision-making styles are multilayered and dependent on several factors, such as the values and beliefs of the individual, national cultural differences, and the variables involved with the decision process (see Figure 1).

Figure 1

Influence of National Culture on Decision-Making Style



Note. Adapted from Podrug, N. (2011). Influence of national culture on decision-making style. *Southeast European Journal of Economics and Business*, *6*(1), 37.

As Hofstede (2001, 2011) recognized, individuals bring a cultural perspective shaped by a national culture. Their cultural perspective is not only a significant contributor to their general parameters of the decision-making process but also informs the style they usually resort to when seeking to make a decision individually or as part of a group (Hall et al., 1964; Phillips et al., 1984). The unique cultural perspective is not limited to matters of language (Guglani, 2016), values (Rodriguez, 2011), and leadership paradigms (E. Romero, 2004), but also the framework that is accessed when seeking to make a decision of any kind (de Bruin et al., 2007; Edwards, 1954; Simon, 1979). Podrug (2011) conceptualized the

construct in two ways: first, the decision-making process aligns an individual's cultural background and "right answer" (p. 37), and second, their decision-making style is "dependent on the individual's values and belief systems to navigate the decision-making style" (Podrug, 2011, p. 37). This clarification submitted by Podrug was congruent with the need to understand how a Hispanic national culture informed by a country other than the United States (i.e., first-generation Hispanics) and by an evolving national culture informed by the host country's acculturation process (i.e., second- and third-plus-generation Hispanics).

Methodology

The current researcher used a quantitative research method to examine the difference in the decision-making styles among first-, second-, and third-plus-generation U.S. Hispanics and the relationship between the years living in the United States and the decision-making styles of first-generation Hispanic immigrants. The quantitative research method aids scholars seeking to examine a problem empirically, state a hypothesis, collect data, and analyze the results for possible relationships and associations (Babbie, 2020; Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Fowler, 2014; Salkind & Frey, 2020).

Participants

The population for this study included individuals actively serving in local churches as pastors and leaders (i.e., lead, executive, associate, ministry) of the Assemblies of God (Hispanic) districts. It has been stated that most research starts with the researcher's life experience, curiosities, and contextual observations, and this research paper was no different (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018). The Hispanic districts of the Assemblies of God were selected for their unique Hispanic population matrix. For example, within the Southern Pacific District (SPD), first-generation Hispanic pastors lead 45% of the 231 churches that make up the district. Of the 431 ministers who make up the SPD, 40% who speak English prefer Spanish as their primary language of communication. The rest of the Hispanic pastoral and leadership makeup is diversified among second and third generations. It should be clarified that the statistics used were not obtained by the empirical, peer-reviewed method, but rather self-reported by the District

Superintendent's office. Although the other districts that were contacted for this study do not numerically have the same population makeup, SPD is an example of the general parameters for the other districts' Hispanic population profile.

In addition to all that has been stated, the AG was selected due to its commitment to the Hispanic community in the United States. Due to a missional mandate to explore the needs of the Hispanic community in the United States, the AG and its constituents are the selected population for this research project. With the formation of the Office of Hispanic Relations, the AG has sought to address four complexities within the Hispanic community in the United States. First, the Office of Hispanic Relations aims to engage the mixed demographic of U.S.-born and international-born members. The second aim is to support churches that embrace both Spanish and English. Third is to provide resources for multi-generational churches with both an aging population and the youngest ethnic minority group in the United States, and fourth is addressing the challenges facing the organization related to legal immigration, family security, as well as economic and employment uncertainty (Assemblies of God, n.d.).

It should be further clarified that the researcher's interest in this community of Hispanic pastors and leaders was not to analyze the pastorate but to survey pastors and leaders as nonprofit managers who make a myriad of decisions every day—many of which are not theological in nature but standard organizational praxis, such as conflict management, budget allocation, facility management, and market orientation (Masenya & Booyse, 2016; Rusaw, 1996; Wrenn et al., 1995). Instead, the researcher engaged with this population of pastors and leaders to explore whether there is a difference in decision-making styles among first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanics in the United States. Second, the researcher sought to ascertain whether there is a relationship between the years living in the United States and the decision-making styles of first-generation Hispanic immigrants.

Data Collection

The process of recruitment of participants was accomplished by (a) communicating with district superintendents for access to the pastoral lists, (b)

communicating to all pastors on the district's pastoral list to ascertain interest, and (c) sending an email containing the link to an online Survey Monkey tool. The online survey was created using SurveyMonkey, containing one measurement scale. Scott and Bruce's (1995) General Decision-Making Style (GDMS) was designated as the instrument for this analysis. The GDMS survey was available to a sampling of Hispanic first-, second-, and third-plus-generation pastors and leaders of the Assemblies of God. Given that the rationale for sampling was to collect data from a small subset of a particular population for analytical and representation purposes (Field, 2018), it was suited for this study.

Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 28 for Windows, a statistical software platform, was used to analyze the sample data collected (Field, 2018; Hair et al., 2012). The SPSS software creates multivariant tables and frequency distributions for data analysis. Using the SPSS software, a MANOVA was conducted to ascertain whether there is there a relationship between the first, second, and third-generation Hispanic pastors and leaders being studied (RQ1). As is congruent among most data analyses, a baseline, descriptive analysis containing the mean, mode, median, variance, and standard deviation will be extracted from the sample. For RQ2, a factorial multivariate analysis of variance (2 x 3 MANOVA) was conducted to determine whether there are statistically significant differences in the linear combination of the decision-making styles. The viability of the GDMS instrument (was assessed in three ways: (a) using Cronbach's alpha (*a*) to test internal reliability, (b) creating a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) model, and (c) conducting a Chi-square goodness of fit (GOF) test to evaluate the degree to which the CFA model fit the study's data adequately.

Missing Data

Missing data can occur for several reasons. The most frequent is that some participants do not complete the requested data (Field, 2018; Salkind & Frey, 2020). Missing data can compromise the statistical power and reliability of the findings. This possibility was addressed in the current study using the listwise deletion method of incomplete responses (see Salkind & Frey, 2020). All of these

were considered during the data-coding and data-entry phases of the study (see Salkind & Frey, 2020).

Ethical Considerations

In conjunction with sound quantitative research methodology, the goal is to align best research practices and analysis with professional research practices. Creswell and Creswell (2018) stated that research is a process of collecting data from people about people and, as such, requires the highest ethical considerations possible. The Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Southeastern University reviewed the research project to protect the research participants (see Appendix G). Southeastern University not only requires this measure, but has identified it as a critical procedural step toward analyzing the research methodology, verifying articulated goals and objectives for the study, and the privacy of the participants through all forms of internet data collection (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). All stated ethical measures are in an attempt to make sure the study meets with the highest levels of integrity, research rigors, and the trust of Southeastern University. To protect participants from misconduct or impropriety, the following measures were taken during the data collection phase of the research process. Before taking the survey, participants were informed that participation is voluntary, anonymous, and without obligation (see Appendices C and D, Informed Consent). All responses were collected anonymously to protect the participants and encourage participation in the study. Although every measure was taken to ensure the anonymity of the participants, should any identifiers have surfaced (e.g., email addresses, IP addresses), the researcher provided written assurance that no connection to the participant's identity would be made public in any way.

Scope and Limitations

Several significant limitations impacted this study. The scope of the research was limited to Hispanic pastors in the United States and represents only a small portion of the Hispanic population in the United States. As a result, it is difficult to generalize the findings to the greater Hispanic community in the United States. The research was limited to 1 month in 2023 for efficiency reasons. Perhaps

a longitudinal study encompassing a more extended period may yield different results. The perspectives of pastoral leaders are limited to the ecclesiastical setting, so the findings cannot easily be generalized to other leadership settings. The surveys are bilingual (i.e., Spanish and English). Although careful consideration was taken to translate the questions effectively, the Spanish and English participants may differ in how the questions are understood. Although there may be similarities in other ethnic communities in the United States, the population was limited to first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanic pastors. Given these limitations, the goal remained to contribute meaningfully to the body of literature by identifying tentative conclusions about Hispanic pastors' decision-making styles in the United States.

Definition of Terms

Acculturation is the process by which adult immigrants acquire the cultural competencies of a new or host culture (Baldwin-White et al., 2017; Berry, 1992; Lee et al., 2020).

Avoidant decision-making style is characterized by "attempts to avoid decision-making (Scott & Bruce, 1995, p. 820).

Church is a nonprofit, religious-based organization where individuals practice religious ordinances. The church is both a central building and a group of individuals.

Culture refers to an integrated systems of societal behaviors, products, and ideas "integrated system of learned patterns of behavior, ideas, and products characteristic of a society…culture is always created within a specific society, that is, within a group of people who use the customs of a culture and hold to its beliefs" (Heibert, 1990, as cited in Rodriguez, 2011, p. 30).

Decision-making is the process of choosing from several alternatives to achieve a desired outcome (Edwards, 1954; Lunenburg, 2010).

Decision-making style is the habitual framework that an individual uses when making a decision[s] (Phillips et al., 1984; Scott & Bruce, 1995).

Dependent decision-making style is characterized by "a search for advice and direction from others" (Scott & Bruce, 1995, p. 820)

Enculturation is a familial process by which children of immigrants adapt cultural competencies by observing their parents in the new or host culture (Cano et al., 2012; Rodriguez, 2011).

First-generation Hispanics are born outside the United States, and their primary language is Spanish. They can be naturalized U.S. citizens, legal immigrants, or undocumented immigrants (Suro & Passel, 2003).

Hispanic is a general category that refers to individuals who speak Spanish and trace their ethnicity to a Spanish-speaking people group (Ortiz, 1993; Rodriguez, 2011).

Intuitive decision-making style is characterized by "reliance on hunches and feelings (Scott & Bruce, 1995, p. 820).

Latino is a term often used synonymously with Hispanic. The ethnic category Latino was initially used to delineate those who came from, or whose descendants were from, Latin America (D. R. Sanchez, 2006).

Organizational decision-making is predicated on human problem-solving processes and rational human choice (Pettigrew, 1973).

Pastor[s] is a term primarily utilized in an ecclesiastical organization. Pastors are generally nonprofit organization leaders and are seen as the primary leader (i.e., CEO) of a local congregation of individuals.

Rational decision-making style is characterized by a "thorough search for and logical evaluation of alternatives" (Scott & Bruce, 1995, p. 820)

Second-generation Hispanics [Bi-cultural] are born in the United States with at least one foreign-born parent, came as children, are bilingual, the preferred language is Spanish, and are U.S. citizens by birth (Suro & Passel, 2003).

Spontaneous decision-making style is characterized by a "sense of immediacy and a desire to get through the decision-making process as soon as possible (Scott & Bruce, 1995, p. 823).

Third-generation Hispanics are born in the United States, both parents born in the United States as well, although bilingual, prefer English more than Spanish, and U.S. citizens by birth (M. Morales, 2016; D. R. Sanchez, 2006).

Summary

Decision-making theory has been well-documented in the literature for decades (Edwards, 1954; Lunenburg, 2010; Pettigrew, 1973). The exponential growth of the Hispanic community has also been well-documented (Johnson & Lichter, 2016; Lichter & Johnson, 2020). Few researchers, however, had previously examined the ramifications and bifurcation of the Hispanic immigrant community into generations—primarily differentiated by place of birth and years in the United States. Even fewer had sought to understand the implications of such diversity in the Hispanic community's decision-making style. Through this study, the researcher addressed these gaps in the literature by incorporating theoretical and empirical research from the decision-making styles, cultural diversity, and Hispanic generations. Specifically, the researcher examined the decision-making styles of foreign- and domestic-born Hispanic pastors in the United States.

Chapter 2 – Literature Review

For many decades, social and behavioral scientists have attempted to study how individuals make decisions (de Bruin et al., 2007; Simon, 1955; Thunholm, 2004). Early decision-making researchers primarily focused on the framework, process, problem prompting the decision, and outcome (Douma et al., 2020; Harrison, 1996; Lunenburg, 2010). A definition for decision-making is conceptually borrowed from Simon (1955), where it was suggested that the "decision-making process comprises three principal phases: finding occasions for making a decision; finding possible courses of action; and choosing among courses of action" (p. 2). Although the current researcher focused on the decision-making styles of first-, second-, and third-plus-generations of Hispanic leaders, the general construct of a decision-making process is peripherally connected and worthy of notation. Decision-making theorists such as Edwards (1954) have theorized that decision-making is an individual or collective process by which two competing options are processed toward resolution and direction. One congruent factor among all organizations, large and small, is the necessity and role of making decisions (Edwards, 1954; Lunenburg, 2010).

The need for decisions impacts every area of the organization, from administrative policies to goal setting and missional alignment (Harrison, 1996). Simon suggested that most decisions have three central components. These components are "[a] set of alternatives open to choice, the relationship that determines the pay-offs as a function of the alternative, and the preference-ordering among pay-offs," narrowing the process of decision-making to a procedural exercise focused on the outcome (Simon, 1979, p. 100). Thunholm (2009) contended, however, that to suggest that there are minimal differences among individuals requires revision and contains a flawed presupposition—a conclusion supported by an abundance of research, theoretical processes, and congruency among researchers (see Edwards, 1954; Gomez & Levine, 2022; Lunenburg, 2010). Decision-making theorists continue to make substantial contributions to the literature; researchers have also begun to analyze the factors influencing an individual's decision-making process (Arroba, 1977; Dewberry et al., 2013; Driver,

1979; Rowe & Boulgarides, 1983; Thunholm, 2004, 2008). This study explored whether there is a statistically significant effect for generation upon decision-making styles and whether there is a statistically significant interaction effect for study participant gender and generation upon decision-making styles. Further, in an attempt to reach topic saturation (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018) while at the same time remaining focused on the subject matter being researched, in this study, the following literature is reviewed: decision-making theory, decision-making styles, and Hispanic/Latino: national culture, acculturation, and enculturation.

Decision-Making Theory: From Objective to Behavior

Historically, decision-making theorists have primarily focused their attention on the goal or objective (Harrison, 1996), measurement of possible outcomes, alternatives (Chankong & Haimes, 2008), appropriate procedures (Simon, 1955, 1979), and commitment to act (Edwards, 1954; Pettigrew, 1973). While every aspect of decision-making theories described here is appropriate and has applicational viability as a field of study, the need for an improved base for understanding decision-making behaviors and influences cannot be ignored (Arroba, 1977; Hesketh, 1982; Jepsen, 1974b, 1974a). Early in the history of decision-making style theory, Jepsen (1974a, 1974b) purported that there is, within an individual, a predisposition toward a particular decision-making behavior. A decision-making behavior is "the array of conscious attitudes, actions, and thoughts given in response to social expectations"(Jepsen, 1974b, p. 285). This decision-making behavior is unique to the individual making the decision and creates an individual's methodology for decision-making (Dewberry et al., 2013; Hall et al., 1964; Phillips et al., 1984) while accounting for internal and external locus control (Ongun & Eyupoglu, 2020; Rotter, 1966). Rotter projected that external and internal variables, what he identified as locus control, is the understanding that all decisions are influenced by the actions of the individual and by external environmental factors and, as such, contribute to the decision-making styles selected by the individual. This has prompted researchers to develop and explore the construct of decision-making behavior encapsulating an individual's bias

toward certain behaviors accessed when making a decision and the ramifications of such behavioral bias on team and organizational praxis (Arroba, 1977; Driver, 1979; Hesketh, 1982). This understanding of an individual's decision-making tendencies portrays a bias toward a particular way of addressing the myriad of decisions individuals face daily.

Decision-Making Styles: A Framework of Biases and Predictive Behavior

Arroba (1977) suggested that decision-making theorists focused on a more pragmatic synthesis of decision-making methodology predicated on the skills of the individual, the decision to be made, and the decision-making process. Arroba (1977) advanced that a necessary aspect of decision-making behavior theory was emerging—an individual's decision-making style—specifically, a better understanding of how an individual makes decisions daily. Arroba (1977) suggested that the term style is "analogous to a personality trait, in that it is a label which describes consistencies in the individual's behavior" (p. 149). Arroba (1977) further propositioned that style is best understood as a description of an individual and behavior. In that, the individual not only has an external decision-making process but also possesses "a repertoire" of styles (i.e., logical, no thought, hesitant, emotional, compliant, and intuitive) that influence every decision– personal and professional (p. 150). In an attempt to clarify the emerging decision-making styles construct, Driver (1979) defined decision-making style as "a habitual pattern individuals use in decision-making" (p. 60). The findings of Driver and Arroba (1977) supported the hypothesis that decision-making classifications are not limited to the general construct of decision-making but also include inherent decision-making styles (Hesketh, 1982; Phillips et al., 1984; Thunholm, 2004).

Similarly, Hunt et al. (1989) described a cognitive decision-making style predicated on an individual's predisposition to analyze and commit to a decision from an intuitive analytical strategy throughout the decision-making process. Such research findings support that decision-making and decision-making styles have been acknowledged as complex processes unique to the individual and contain some corresponding commonality among all individuals (de Bruin et al., 2007; Dewberry et al., 2013; Driver, 1979; Lysonski et al., 1996). Although significant,

there was a need for a quantifiable way to measure and understand this dichotomy. A. M. Parker et al. (2007) discovered that individuals tend to be predisposed toward decision-making maximization, or "perfectionist tendencies" (Leykin & DeRubeis, 2010; Zhu et al., 2022). A. M. Parker et al. (2007) speculated that those whom tended toward perfectionist tendencies were often left with doubt in their decision-making skills and worry about external perceptions of their decision and stress—both centered on how the individual feels once a decision is made (de Bruin et al., 2007; Leykin & DeRubeis, 2010; D. F. Parker & DeCotiis, 1983). Given that decision-making styles are now being conceptualized as the access when making a decision (Phillips et al., 1984), a correlation is suggested in that an individual with a rational decision-making style is more likely to address a problem than avoid it. Congruently, those who engage in a dependent-making style are likely to make a decision but doubt their judgment (de Bruin et al., 2007; A. M. Parker et al., 2007).

Decision-Making Styles: Personality Traits

Bayram and Aydemir (2017) sought to build on the work of Riaz et al. (2012) and Bajwa et al. (2016), both of whom studied the personality traits and decision-making styles of university students. Bayram and Aydemir (2017) explored the relationship between decision-making styles and personality types among college students. Using the five-factor model of personality types as a framework to denote consistency among an individual's processing methodology, Bayram and Aydemir proved that personality traits significantly correlate with decision-making styles. Bayram and Aydemir pointed out that in conjunction with decision-making styles, "personality traits can be conceptualized as a set of stable individual differences in people's motivational reactions to circumstances" (p. 906). This finding is congruent with the previous result of Bajwa et al. (2016), who indicated that personality types not only have a peripheral correlation but, in actuality, substantially impact an individual's decision-making style. Michailidis and Banks (2016) reasoned that processing factors (i.e., cognitive and intuitive) are not the only variables affecting both process and style. Personality characteristics significantly contribute to cognitive and emotional decision-making processes (Bayram & Aydemir, 2017; Halama & Gurňáková, 2014). They highlighted the

diversity of components that not only create the need for a decision but also the stress factors that impact both the decision-making process and the ultimate decision style that is employed when making a decision (Allwood & Salo, 2012; Bayram & Aydemir, 2017; Irimciuc & Măirean, 2021; Michailidis & Banks, 2016; Thunholm, 2008).

Within generational differences, stress can often lead to conflict among individuals, management, and employees (Fitzgerald et al., 2017; Friedman et al., 2000). Thunholm (2008) took this line of thinking further by concluding that these factors not only characterize how an individual may feel once a decision is made but may also cause stress and feelings of inadequacy before the process begins. Such responses to the decision-making process are pre-emptive variables that may contribute to poor or inadequate decisions (de Bruin et al., 2007; Leykin & DeRubeis, 2010; Salo & Allwood, 2011; Thunholm, 2008). Although the correlations expressed here are well supported, there was a need to understand the possible impact on organizational teams (Chen et al., 2022; Fitzgerald et al., 2017). They started with the fundamental assertion that decision-making styles are unique to the individual and procedural convergence of many external and internal locus variables (Ongun & Eyupoglu, 2020).

Decision-Making Styles: Implications for Organizational Leaders

Fitzgerald et al. (2017) sought to move the research beyond the individual to the impact of individual decision-making styles on a team—specifically, how diverse decision-making styles may lead to unhealthy conflict among the team members. This approach was thought to be a necessary contribution to decision-making style literature in that most decision-making styles focus on the individual and not the impact on a team. Many variables aid individuals in navigating team cohesion and dynamics, personality, decision-making, and decision-making styles, all of which could contribute to a conflict of one form or another (Behfar et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2021). The importance of this was advanced by Chen et al. (2022), who, from an entrepreneurial leadership team construct, suggested that decision-making, which creates space for diverse decision-making styles and methodologies, should be addressed at the formation of an organization.

Behfar et al. (2008) offered that "scholars are increasingly suggesting that various aspects of group process and group dynamics serve to ameliorate or exacerbate the impact of conflict has on group outcomes" (p. 170). In conjunction with this conclusion, Fitzgerald et al. stated that conflict is not only predicated on the individual's decision-making style (i.e., cognitive, rational, intuitive) but also on the stressors and conflict that may arise when attempting to make the perceived right decision as a group. While simultaneously navigating conflicting and diverse opinions and rationales for the right decision (Abubakar et al., 2019; Behfar et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2022; Fitzgerald et al., 2017). Similar to what Driver et al. (1998) claimed that managers and leaders seek to understand not only the scoop of their decisions, but also the people impacted by their decisions and their impact on the organization.

Through the lens of knowledge management theory, Abubakar et al. (2019) created a framework for understanding the influence of the decision-making styles of management on the organizational final product or output. In their study, knowledge is understood as containing contextual information, individual and collective experience, and the values of the individual and organization. The four central components within the knowledge management process theory are knowledge management enablers, knowledge creation, decision-making style, and organizational performance, which identifies a framework and creates procedural continuity between decision-making styles, organizational performance, and knowledge-based management theory (Dalkir, 2017). The connection to decision-making styles, knowledge management, and organizational praxis contributed to the literature and created an updated construct that creates space for society's access and proclivity for information—generating new knowledge and decision processes that implement the new information.

Decision-Making Styles: Clusters and Main Categories

In the early 1980s, Rowe and Boulgarides (1983) sought to understand what decision-making styles managers used when making a decision. Not unlike Arroba (1977), Jepsen (1974a, 1974b), Harren (1979), and Hesketh (1982), Rowe and Boulgarides (1983) tested four decision-making style categories: directive,

analytical, conceptual, and behavioral. All four decision-making styles are variants of an individual's tolerance for ambiguity, cognitive complexities, and relational outcomes (Rowe & Boulgarides, 1983). Their research further supported the hypothesis that everyone has a set of innate decision-making styles that impact the decision-making process. Therefore, starting with the primus that "few individuals change their basic styles over time" (Rowe & Boulgarides, 1983, p. 4), these authors aimed to identify a decision-making style framework and in agreement with Rowe and Boulgarides, Hesketh (1982) maintained that there was little empirical examination of whether there is a hierarchy within the decision-making style domain. Both seek to clarify the hypothesis that one decision-making style is better than the other. Attempting to answer this essential question, Hesketh theorized congruent concepts within the research of Arroba (1977) and Jepsen (1974a, 1974b) that significantly simplified the construct of decision-making styles.

Hesketh (1982) contended that Jepsen (1974a, 1974b) proposed clusters of the findings into two distinct categories: active planners and singular fatalists. Arroba (1977) compared three general decision-making style types: logical, no thought, and compliant. Although individually significant in their findings, such categorizations presented to researchers the possible alignment of several decision-making styles into general categories (Harren, 1979; Harren et al., 1978). Note that congruency is not found in the exact names and definitions that individual researchers have given their categories. Instead, the emergence of active and passive decision-making types is beginning to be both hypothesized and empirically confirmed (Harren, 1979; Hesketh, 1982; Rotter, 1966; Thunholm, 2004). Lifting two terms from the work of Scott and Bruce (1995), Thunholm (2004) theorized that decision-making styles are perhaps better understood as subcategories of intuitive and rational types. The intuitive decision-making process addresses the complexities of decision-making and allows for unpredictable variables and outcomes (Gati et al., 2019; Simon, 1955). They submitted that the influence of rational and intuitive decision-making styles is not only an indicator of good decision-making processes, but serves as a benefit to the individual making the decision. Although different conceptually, the idea of including two different

constructs as necessary components of a sound decision-making style framework is reminiscent of the research of Rotter (1966), which recognized the conjunctive inclusion of internal and external influence in the decision-making process.

By categorizing multiple styles into thematic types, Harren et al. (1978) built a questionnaire that measured the decision-making styles of adolescents using rational, intuitive, and dependent – previously unidentified categories. Their research confirmed congruency in the three decision-making styles, the active-passive dimensions (Arroba, 1977; Jepsen, 1974b) and satisfaction with the decision made (Harren, 1979; Harren et al., 1978). Now researchers can use predetermined categories to measure and identify the decision-making styles of an individual (Lysonski et al., 1996; Phillips et al., 1984; Sprotles & Kendall, 1986). Sprotles and Kendall (1986) argue that within the consumer space, there are "certain basic decision-making styles" that have commonality among individuals (p. 267). The decision-making styles categorized by Sprotles and Kendall were perfectionism, brand consciousness, novelty-fashion consciousness, value for money, impulsiveness, confusion from over-choice, and habitual, brand-loyal oriented. Although these categories are not replicable across all decision-making sectors, they support that decision-making styles, while diverse, can be conceptualized in categories (Hunt et al., 1989). These categories identify the internal dynamics that govern an individual's decision-making processes and their correlated decision-making style (Azadeh et al., 2016; Palmiero et al., 2020).

Decision-Making Styles: The Need for a New Measure

In the mid-1990s, Scott and Bruce (1995) put forward that much of the empirical research regarding decision-making had focused analysis on the decision task (Edwards, 1954; Harren, 1979; Pettigrew, 1973; Simon, 1955) and the decision situation (Phillips et al., 1984). Although such analysis is appropriate for the furtherance of decision-making theory, Scott and Bruce discovered that there were limited validated instruments that measured the decision-making styles of an individual. Having acknowledged this gap in decision-making literature, Scott and Bruce sought not only to identify decision-making styles but also to create a quantifiable measurement tool that researchers could use to measure the decision-

making styles of individuals. Scott and Bruce further advanced that such a measurement tool would significantly contribute to researchers understanding an individual's biases and style when entering the decision-making process.

Table 1

Five Decision-Making Styles

Decision-Making Style	Description
Rational Decision-Making Style	Characterized by a thorough search for and a logical evaluation of alternatives
Intuitive Decision-Making Style	Characterized by a reliance on hunches and feelings
Dependent Decision-Making Style	Characterized by a search for advice and direction from others
Avoidant Decision-Making Style	Characterized by attempts to avoid decision-making
Spontaneous Decision-Making Style	Characterized by a sense of immediacy and a desire to get through the decision-making process as soon as possible

Note. Adapted from Scott, S. G., & Bruce, R. A. (1995). Decision-making style: The development and assessment of a new measure. *Educational & Psychological Measurement*, *55*(5), 818–831.

Scott and Bruce (1995) clarified that a decision-making style is not a "personality trait but a habit-based propensity to react in a certain way" when making a decision (p. 820). Through empirical analysis and research, Scott and Bruce hypothesized four behavioral styles that would serve as the basis for their measure. The four styles initially suggested by Scott and Bruce were rational, intuitive, dependent, and avoidant, with the addition of a fifth, spontaneous, once the analysis started (see Table 2).

These decision-making style categories not only narrowed the focus of their research but created a framework to analyze the decision-making styles of an individual (Girard et al., 2016; Loo, 2000; Thunholm, 2004, 2008). This resulted in the development of a decision-making style measurement tool, as well as its efficacy in that it can and has been used to measure decision-making styles in a myriad of decision situations (Girard et al., 2016; Loo, 2000; Mau, 1995; Thunholm, 2004). At the same time, they addressed the need for a psychometrically sound measurement tool for measuring the decision-making styles of individuals (Driver et al., 1998; Girard et al., 2016; Loo, 2000; Spicer & Sadler-Smith, 2005).

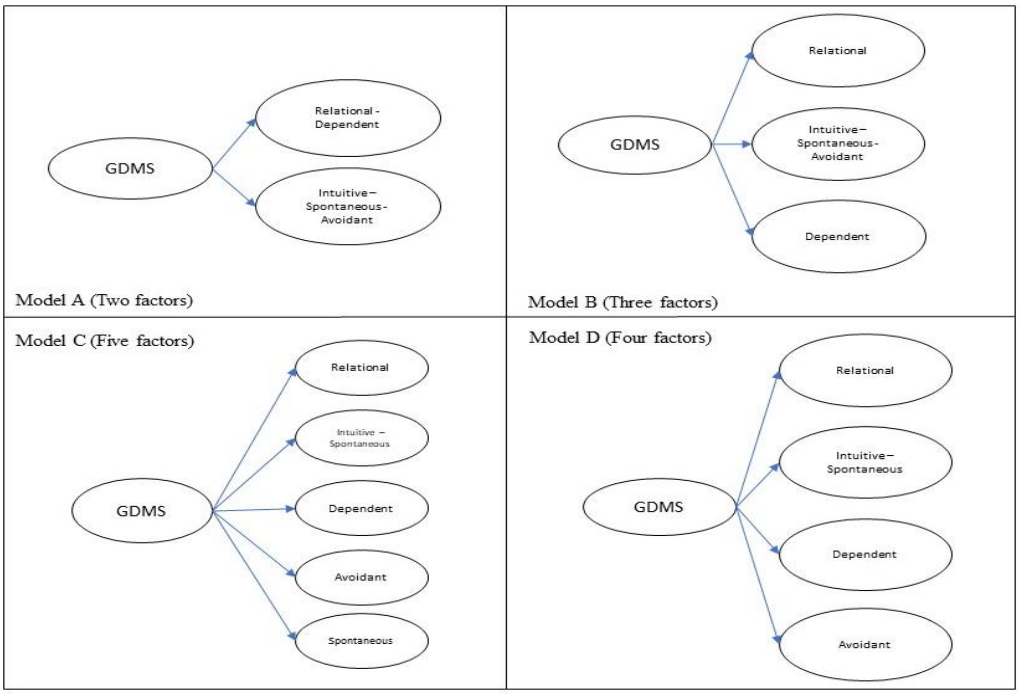
The categorization of decision-making styles suggested is similar in concept to the five categories of better-characterized decision-making styles that Driver et al. (1998) named decisive, flexible, hierarchical, integrative, and systemic.

Building on the research of Scott and Bruce (1995) and, by extension, the work of Driver (1979), Spicer and Sadler-Smith's (2005) study followed "demands for further analysis of the GDMS [General Decision-Making Styles]" (p. 138). To clarify and test the applicational viability advanced in the five dimensions of the general decision-making style questionnaire. Spicer and Sadler-Smith claimed that the tenets offered by decision-making style theorists (e.g., Loo, 2000; Scott & Bruce, 1995; Thunholm, 2004) were closely related to the general construct of cognitive style. In that, the way individuals come to different interpretations of the same decision is an exercise of cognitive processing in conjunction with intuitive factors of personality and perception of the situation (Hunt et al., 1989; Spicer & Sadler-Smith, 2005). Further, there is a commonality between cognitive and decision-making styles in that they both contain elements of analytical and intuitive decision-making processes. Using the decision-making style identifiers purported by Scott and Bruce, Spicer and Sadler-Smith determined that a four-model framework (see Figure 2) better articulates a more cohesive understanding of decision-making styles.

Spicer and Sadler-Smith (2005) said that delineating five autonomous styles "overlooked the relationship between their theoretical model of decision-making and other possible structures" (p. 140). For example, it is put forward by Spicer and Sadler-Smith that *Model A* (see Figure 2) shows that a two-factor decision-making style is conceptually similar to the two components of cognitive decision-making styles (Hunt et al., 1989; Phillips et al., 1984; Simon, 1955).

Figure 2

Four Competing Models of Decision-Making Styles



Note. Adapted from Spicer, D. P., & Sadler-Smith, E. (2005). An examination of the general decision-making style questionnaire in two UK samples. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 20*(2), 137–149.

Similarly, the three-factor framework illustrated in *Model B* is based on the work of Harren (1979). *Models C and D* represent the original work hypothesized by Scott and Bruce with the addition of a fifth component, spontaneous, during the research process.

Thunholm (2009) sought to build on his original work by examining military leaders and their subordinates. Thunholm discovered that 50% of team leaders had a different style configuration than the team members. Military leaders were found to be more dependent on their rational decision-making style and less disposed to avoidance, dependency, and delay of a decision. The possible rationale introduced by Thunholm (2009) is that the rational decision-making style is a "desired configuration" of military leadership praxis (p. 323). Thunholm concluded, however, that many factors influence the decision-making styles of military leaders and their subordinates. The influences of Leykin and DeRubeis

(2010) were recognized as external stressors and internal "nonrational" influencers often presented during decision-making. They distinguished external factors that superseded an individual's decision-making style and exposed the multilayered complexities of the decision-making process (Kidwell & Jewell, 2003). Substantiating the conclusions offered by Thunholm (2009) that to think decision-making styles are predicated only on a predetermined framework that can address every decision-making process is an incomplete analysis. As the framework of the GDMS instrument, research congruency developed using Scott and Bruce's (1995) five decision-making styles, along with other decision-making style constructs (see: (Gambetti et al., 2008; Girard et al., 2016; Loo, 2000; Spicer & Sadler-Smith, 2005).

Dewberry et al. (2013) maintained that although significant gains had been made in decision-making style research literature, it is still without a congruent theoretical framework and has led to a "fragmented" understanding of the construct recognized as the decision-making style (p. 566). Dewberry et al. established that the framework of two harmonious systems composes a better understanding of the construct in that decision styles are not disjointed "trait-like" factors. Instead, Dewberry et al. recommended that the two-component model be understood as a two-part system: one containing intuitive, automatic, associative, fast, and heuristic, and system two comprising analytic, explicit, rules-based, and slow. These authors' two-system model served as a way to both conceptualize decision-making styles and build on Thunholm's (2008) concept of connecting the possible role of anxiety in regulatory decision-making styles. Supporting the theory by Allwood and Salo (2012), where it is advanced, a better understanding of the relationship between decision styles and stress may help organizational leaders support employees responsible for decision-making tasks. Such as in the case where an employee's cognitive and intuitive decision-making style is impaired by burnout (Denizsever et al., 2021; Halama & Gurňáková, 2014), lack of self-confidence (Irimciuc & Măirean, 2021), and chronic stress often associated with ongoing decision-making (Alkharabsheh et al., 2014; Michailidis & Banks, 2016).

Decision-Making Styles: Leadership Style versus Decision-Making Style

Alkharabsheh et al. (2014) indicated empirical congruency between leadership style and the decision-making style of their employees. Specifically, it is suggested that a correlation exists between an individual's leadership style serving as a "mediator between characteristics of crisis and decision-making styles" (p. 283). Further, confirming the need to understand and explore the diversity of factors that identify an individual's decision-making style (Loo, 2000; Scott & Bruce, 1995; Thunholm, 2004), the rationale of why a particular style is preferred (Hall et al., 1964; Harren, 1979), and what mitigating factors might cause an individual to choose a specific style of decision-making (Halama & Gurňáková, 2014; Rowe & Boulgarides, 1983).

Like Abubakar et al. (2019), Ding et al. (2020) focused their research on potential Chinese organizational leaders, specifically seeking to identify a difference in decision-making styles when the decision-maker has previous business experience and those organizational leaders that do not have extensive business experience. They also clarified whether there is a difference when the variable of gender is introduced to the equation. Their rationale for using the word "potential" was that most individuals surveyed were business graduate students and had not yet moved into the business sector (Ding et al., 2020). The findings support an interesting proposition in that the majority of Chinese students, both male and female, acknowledged the need for a particular decision-making style. This finding differs from other research in that it is commonly presumed that most individuals have access to all decision-making styles (Bayram & Aydemir, 2017; Halama & Gurňáková, 2014; Palmiero et al., 2020, 2020). Although the findings of Ding et al. (2020) are not divergent from the previously mentioned research, they discovered that due to a lack of Chinese business students, the need to utilize a more rational decision-making style was not only appropriate but necessary—an interesting finding when seeking to test the hypothesis (H1b) that there is a a statistically significantly higher level of rational decision-making style compared to intuitive decision-making among second- and third-plus-generation Hispanics. As a general construct, the research of Ding et al. highlighted the need to understand where

individuals may need to be directed and trained on a particular decision-making style.

Although the findings of Ding et al. (2020) are empirically tested and sound, Palmiero et al. (2020) determined that the combination of rational and intuitive decision-making styles leads to more creative thinking and problem-solving methodologies. Zhu et al. (2022) similarly purported that the two central elements of the maximizing decision-making style and rational choice model comprise a more coherent method that maximizes choice while satisfying the individual making the decision. Although distinct, both constructs conclude that different decision-making styles are accessed throughout the decision-making process and are critical in how an individual processes information and comes to a final decision (Zhu et al., 2022). This analysis is not unlike the conclusion that Dewberry et al. (2013) reached when they made the case that previous decision-making analyses (see Leykin & DeRubeis, 2010; Scott & Bruce, 1995) needed revision. Revision in that, although significant, the work of Leykin and DeRubeis (2010) and Scott and Bruce (1995) conceptualized an individual's decision-making style as independent factors. The two-system model addresses the overlapping nature of an individual's decision-making process and style. Palmiero et al. (2020) stated that all decision-making styles are not mutually exclusive but instead are foundational components of effective decision-making processes.

The association between decision-making and an individual's decision-making style continues to develop empirically, and there is a corresponding dichotomy when creating a framework for a literature review. The literature reviewed is intended to give the reader a general overview of the construct while, at the same time, making decisions as to what research narratives to follow, given that many areas are being developed and explored continually. For example, within the standard 10-year criterium (Creswell & Creswell, 2018), researchers have expanded their knowledge of the decision-making styles of consumers (see: Mittal, 2017; Rajh, 2022; Tanksale et al., 2014; Yilmaz et al., 2016), career choice (see: Bimrose & Mulvey, 2015; Di Fabio & Saklofske, 2014; Gati et al., 2019), and parenting styles (Guan et al., 2016; Smetana, 2017; Sovet & Metz, 2014). While

these are only a small example of the significant research occurring in the decision-making style construct, they are listed as an acknowledgment of the many different directions this review could have taken. It is essential to note, however, that the topics mentioned are significant yet fall outside the parameters of this study. Given that the parameters of this study were to ascertain whether there is an (RQ1) statistically significant effect for generation upon decision-making styles and (RQ2) whether there is a statistically significant interaction effect for study participant gender and generation upon decision-making styles, the internal and external variables that shape an individual's decision-making style was what most relevant. Therefore, the consumer, parenting, educational, and other decision-making styles are intentionally omitted from this literature review.

The Dichotomy of National Culture, Acculturation, and Enculturation. As globalization continues to develop interdependence among countries (Hofstede, 2001, 2011), people groups (Bimrose & Mulvey, 2015; Dabić et al., 2015), and organizations (Bergh et al., 2016; Shakil & Imran, 2022), the need for researchers to understand decision-making styles across different cultures. Dabić et al. (2015) indicated that "the decision-making process depends on cultural background…the decision-making style depends on values and beliefs of people involved in the decision-making process" (p. 276). Further, the decision-making process is predicated on the options presented to the individual and viewed through the lens of one's cultural background (Dabić et al., 2015; Podrug, 2011). In the general construct of culture and an individual's decision-making process, Yates and de Oliveira (2016) defined culture as "the myriad of ways of ways of living…ways that are transmitted from one generation to the next" (p. 106), while Zhang et al. (2007) defined culture as "conceptualized as shared symbols, norms, and values in a social collectivity" (p. 56). From a Hispanic population perspective, culture contains shared belief systems, ideologies, and cultural norms. Rodriguez (2011) stated that culture is composed of these five elements: *ideas*, mental images through which people perceive reality; v*alues*, the worth, importance, and ethical input of ideas; *behavior*, the observable ways of doing things in culture; a*rtifacts* that make up visual, material culture; *institutions*, the organization structure of a

culture (Rodriguez, 2011, p. 31). These five elements exemplify a theoretical lens through which the Hispanic community understands internal and external influences and defines who is part of the group and who is not (Leonardi & Rodriguez-Lluesma, 2013). Each identified variable denotes the importance of an individual's decision-making process and style.

For this study, there was a need to explore the relationship between the culture of the individual and the decision-making styles, as a conceptual framework for the decision-making process cannot be understated. Through the lens of generational diversity (i.e., first-, second-, third-plus-generation Hispanics), decision-making is navigated through another level of influence: influence from the individual's cultural backgrounds and diverse ideological perspectives. All of these inform and influence different generations of Hispanics in the decision-making process (Yates & de Oliveira, 2016). The opportunity, or insight in this context, centers around the diversity within this growing generational subculture categorized as the Hispanic community in the United States (M. Morales, 2016). Although not from a distinctly Hispanic perspective, Leonardi and Rodriguez-Lluesma (2013) confirmed that "workers draw their identities and, consequently, their work styles from the various cultures" (p. 479), a critical delineator when seeking to understand the decision-making style of first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanics containing diverse individual and national cultures.

The Role of National Culture

As noted in the introduction, perhaps the best example of cultural diversity among different people groups is exposed in the research of Hofstede (2001, 2011). Hofstede's work developed a quantifiable way to understand cultural perspectives globally and the ramifications of these perspectives on organizational praxis (Leonardi & Rodriguez-Lluesma, 2013; Lisak et al., 2016; Mansson et al., 2016), the understanding of multicultural group dynamics, and decision-making (Hanges et al., 2016). A key component of Hofstede's research is the role and definition of national culture. Working from the findings of Hofstede's study, Tekic & Tekic (2021) summarized the concept of national culture as referring to

A nation's central tendencies towards specific values, beliefs, norms,

> attitudes, and preferences. As these tendencies transfer almost unchanged from generation to generation in the form of the collective programming of the mind (Hofstede, 2001), they distinguish nations among each other while shaping the cognitive schema of a society member. (p. 386)

They were solidifying a construct that not only identifies the diversity to be found in groups of different national cultures but also how these diverse perspectives are embedded in the framework of the individual and how their national culture is developed (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Luria et al., 2019; Podrug, 2011; Xu & Hao, 2021). As influencers to the software of the mind (Hofstede et al., 2010), the six dimensions (i.e., power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, the later added long-term versus short-term orientation, and indulgence versus restraint) are in function at all times and influence team effectiveness, ethics, leader-follower relationship, and the decision-making process (Chiang, 2005; Gallego-Álvarez & Pucheta-Martínez, 2021; Zhang et al., 2007).

These cultural norms and traditions can create individual differences in ideologies, values, behaviors, and decision-making styles (Dabić et al., 2015). From an organizational perspective, Xu and Hao (2021) observed that due to a convergence of national cultures due to globalization, there is a dependency on "business-to-business relationships with partners from other parts of the globe" (p. 27). Xu and Hal also point out that 50% of these business-to-business relationships fail due to a lack of understanding of the dynamics of national culture. They highlighted the value of understanding the role of national culture in an individual's decision-making styles and the critical contribution these diverse perspectives have on the organization. As we seek to understand the diversity in the decision-making styles of first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanics, it is essential to highlight the role of national cultures (i.e., United States, Mexico, Central, and Latin America) when they converge in one country.

Acculturation

The introduction of this study contained a citation that from 2010 to 2019, the Latino population increased from 10% to 18%. This growth accounts for over

half (52%) of the U.S. population growth in the United States (Noe-Bustamante et al., 2020). The Latino population is the country's second-largest ethnic group, behind only White non-Hispanics (Passel et al., 2022). The Hispanic people can be found throughout the United States, with the fastest growing sector being the South at +26% (Passel et al., 2022). These statistics highlight the significant growth of the Hispanic community in the United States and the need to understand the process of assimilation into the U.S. culture (Berry, 1992; Berry & Sam, 1980). Acculturation is critical to assimilation into a new host country (Berry, 2003; Flores et al., 2006; Redfield et al., 1936).

Acculturation is the process by which an immigrant to a new country changes and adapts their "beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors when living in a multicultural society" (Flores et al., 2006, p. 260). Redfield et al. (1936) offered a definition of acculturation that has been widely held as foundational in understanding the construct (Baldwin-White et al., 2017; Berry & Sam, 1980; Bhatia & Ram, 2009). Redfield et al. (1936) defined acculturation as follows:

> [A] phenomena which result when groups of individuals having different cultures come into continuous first-hand contact, with subsequent changes in original cultural patterns of either or both groups. (p. 149)

Berry (1992) further clarified the definition of acculturation when he defined it as a "process of cultural and psychological changes" (p. 699)—a significant clarification of the construct in that linear, procedural process predicated on time in the new host county, to one that contains elements of a linear process and emotional-psychological changes in the individual.

Berry (2003) suggested that there is relevance in researchers seeing acculturalization as a multidimensional process comprising four different strategies (i.e., integration, assimilation, separation, and marginalization). In this framework, integration is the process by which an individual is bicultural, attempting to keep the best of both cultures—as perceived by the individual. Assimilation attempts the immigrant to become wholly immersed in the host culture, trying to distance themselves from their nation of birth. Separation is the process by which the immigrant attempts to be culturally oriented to their country, and marginalized

immigrants refuse to accommodate any aspect of both cultures. Although the immigrant acculturalization processes contain, in one form or another, elements of all four categories (Lee et al., 2020; Masgoret & Ward, 2006), it speaks to the complexity when seeking to define one congruent process that is uniform for all individuals. As with the Hispanic population being examined in this study, it is suggested that they will be at different points in their acculturation process and have varied cultural relationships between the nation they have immigrated from and the United States.

Enculturation

Traditionally, the classic understanding of enculturation was defined by Herskovits (1949) as a process of socialization of an individual's cultural norms, ideologies, and cultural heritage. While acculturation is the process by which an immigrant adapts their "beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors when living in a multicultural society" (Flores et al., 2006, p. 260), enculturation is the process by which an individual is exposed to the cultural norms and traditions held by their family and the community in which they were born (Wiesche et al., 2017). Within an immigrant context, enculturation is the cultural paradigm exampled and taught as part of the socialization process (Dunham et al., 2013; Herskovits, 1949; Wiesche et al., 2017). Wiesche et al. (2017) furthered the constructs of acculturation and enculturation, contending that enculturation is more significant in that "the term enculturation is used to emphasize the agentic individual incorporating cultural elements during socialism, whereas acculturation typically references migrants' movement towards and adoption of the mainstream receiving culture" (p. 125)—a significant clarification when seeking to understand the decision-making styles of first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanic leaders. To understand the differences between acculturation and enculturation, it is essential to return to the origins of an individual's cultural narrative (Dunham et al., 2013). For instance, first-generation Hispanics learned their cultural paradigms in a country other than the United States. In contrast, Hispanics born in the United States discovered a cultural paradigm that is a mix of their parent's culture and the

dominant U.S. culture observed daily (Abrajano & Alvarez, 2010; Duong et al., 2016; Lichter & Johnson, 2020; Portes & Truelove, 1987).

Diversity within the U.S. Hispanic population cannot be understated. When individuals arrive in the United States, they bring with them a rich cultural heritage shaped by traditional values, norms, and high reliance on the community (Yan et al., 2021). These cultural norms and values shape every aspect of their lives. As emerging Hispanic generations are born and grow in a U.S. cultural mindset, there is a corresponding cultural shift in these traditional values held by their immigrant parents (Pan & Pierre Lu, 2015; Rodriguez, 2011). The challenge for researchers is to identify the diversity within the Hispanic subcommunities and align these differences in a cohesive framework that describes and values the multicultural phenomenon found in first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanics in the United States.

Generational Differences

To ascertain whether there is a statistically significant effect of generation on decision-making styles, it is essential to understand what generational differences mean in this study's context. To that end, it is prudent to briefly describe what aspects of generational differences are not being discussed in this study. For example, generational differences could be examined through the lens of being born within the same 20-year window (Mannheim, 1952, 2005; Twenge et al., 2015). Foundationally, the differences found among different generations were examined in the work of Mannheim (1952), when he determined that the generation theory is an essential component when seeking to understand societal changes and intellectual movements. As of 1901, each of the generations was given a name used by researchers (i.e., the Greatest Generation, born 1901–1924; the Silent Generation, born 1925–1945; Baby Boomers, born 1946–1964; Generation X, born 1965–1979; Millennials, born 1980–1994; Generation Z, born 1995–2012; and Gen Alpha, born 2013–2025) to identify the different age groups and populations (Espinoza & Ukleja, 2016). Mannheim (1952) defined a generation as a group of individuals born within the same historical and socio-cultural context who

experience the same formative experiences and develop unifying commonalities. In the expansion of Mannheim, Eyerman and Turner (1998) defined a generation as a

> cohort of persons passing through time who come to share a common habitus and lifestyle and has a strategic temporal location to a set of resources as a consequence of [a] historical accident and the exclusionary practices of a social closure. (p. 302)

Wyatt (1993) excogitated that some specific causes or determinants shape generations to develop the construct further. These six components are as follows: (a) traumatic event[s] that shape a specific timeframe, (b) mentors or voices of a generation of a particular generation, (c) demography which is shaped by shifts in populations, (d) privileged internal[s] that "bracket" a generation, (e) sacred places (e.g., specific geographical locations) essential to a generation of people, and (f) "the happy few" shaped by those that support each other (pp. 3–4). These definitions of generational differences not only shape individuals' understanding of the theory, but also highlight the diversity found in the term's description (Joshi et al., 2010; Twenge et al., 2015; Wyatt, 1993). Twenge et al. (2015) suggested that as society and cultural ideologies shift, generational shifts occur as well. These authors supported the notion that there is a correlation between the common or collective ages of a population and societal and cultural shifts that occur within a host country.

For the past 2 decades, researchers have increasingly focused on the construct of generational differences in the workplace. From an organizational context, generational differences may refer to those among employees whose diversity is predicated on the variety of ages represented in their employee population (Joshi et al., 2011; Lyons et al., 2015). Although it may seem similar to the generational difference described above, the organizational perspective differs in that researchers look at the role of age as a variable of inter-generational interactions (Dencker et al., 2008; Joshi et al., 2010, 2011; Kupperschmidt, 2000). The need to explore such variables cannot be understated (Joshi et al., 2011). As Lyons et al. (2015) stated, understanding generational differences in the workplace impacts organizational culture and praxis in recruitment, retention, and succession

management. Costanza and Finkelstein (2015) indicated that within the framework of generational differences within the workplace, three congruent categories are functioning: (a) age of the individuals, (b) the period in which the coworkers live, and (c) cohort based on shared experience. Kupperschmidt (2000) indicated that understanding the construct of generational differences is not is not solely predicated on age, but on organizational culture challenges that arise as new idioms and norms that challenge the status quo are introduced to the work population (Costanza & Finkelstein, 2015; Joshi et al., 2011).

The findings of Frey (2018) not only presented a framework for analysis but also identified a new quantifiable reality in the United States. From a demographic perspective, U.S. Census data collected in 2010 has confirmed that between 2015–2060, the Hispanic and Asian populations in the United States will more than double in size, as well as a shift toward a "nation in which no racial group is the majority," with a diminished growth and aging of the white American population (Frey, 2018, pp. 3–4). In addition, the data identifies a growing second and third-plus generation of individuals whose cultural perspective is formed by more than one culture (Kwak & Berry, 2001). Although these areas of generational differences research are significant as a field of study, methodological limitations require focusing on the variable of generational difference among Hispanic people groups (i.e., first, second, and third-plus) and how these differences influence their decision-making process. Further, while the findings in these studies can be generalized to certain aspects of generational differences, they do not sufficiently construct an understanding of the United States' first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanics.

Realities and Characteristics Facing First-Generation Immigrants

One of the paradoxical issues facing researchers today is the reality that no two immigrant experiences are the same (Bersani, 2014; Fendian, 2021). Although there is a commonality in each immigrant's migration narrative, such as leaving and entering a new host country, what is shared is limited and often focused on a specific people group (Fendian, 2021; Wiley et al., 2013). Kwak and Berry (2001) posited that generational differences and acculturation should be examined from the

perspective of unique cultural issues that define a particular subgroup of immigrants. Given that the process of acculturation starts the moment an immigrant enters a new host country, the process of redefining the individual's identity through the lens of a new social paradigm, linguistic expectations, and cultural literacy becomes not only a reality but a social construct of how to function in their new host country (Bhatia & Ram, 2009; Chakraborty & Chattaraman, 2021; Guglani, 2016; Masgoret & Ward, 2006). As social scientists continue to adapt and clarify the construct of generational differences, the first-immigrant narrative offers researchers new insights into the phenomenon.

First-Generation Immigrants: Cultural Assimilation. Given that most immigrants come to a new host country—in this case, U.S. society—to assimilate and become part of their new country, there are congruent challenges that first-generation immigrants face once they arrive (Cano et al., 2012; Chakraborty & Chattaraman, 2021). In describing this phenomenon, Fendian (2021) projected that a primary challenge facing first-generation immigrants to the United States is seeking to identify a balance between the two polarities of "physically abandoning one's country" while at the same time "safeguarding" the cultural values of the country they left (p. 3). While attempting to retain the cultural heritage of their nation of birth, first-generation immigrants are often exposed to a paradox: both the cause and result of migrating to a new country (Alarcón et al., 2016). The lack of a clearly defined monolithic group further complicates the immigrant paradox. For example, within the first-generation Hispanic community, there are a myriad of cultural identities, Spanish dialects predicated on what part of Mexico, Central, and Latin America the immigrant comes from, and motives for leaving their country (Alarcón et al., 2016; Bersani, 2014; Yan et al., 2021).

First-Generation Immigrants: Immigration Policy. In the United States, first-generation immigrants face diverse societal perspectives regarding immigration policy and perception (Abascal, 2015; Gomez & Levine, 2022)—a challenge exasperated by the lack of a clear and cohesive immigration policy (Abrajano & Alvarez, 2010; Frey, 2018). Given that acculturation by a first-generation immigrant requires both a psychological and behavioral shift over an

extended length of time (Cristancho et al., 2014), the social and political narrative in which the immigrant is portrayed becomes a long and arduous process—a process complicated by limited understanding of the host country's primary language, communication barriers, and inadequate information (Masgoret & Ward, 2006). Congruently, first-generation immigrants are often described as having low socio-economic status (Gordon-Larsen et al., 2003), an interesting characteristic to navigate given that the primary objective indicated by most first-generation immigrants is to chase the American dream and support their family. Fendian (2021) cited that while 80% of first-generation immigrants are willing to work hard for financial stability, difficulty identifying and procuring a well-paying job with benefits is difficult and often perceived as impossible.

First-Generation Immigrants: Language Acquisition Challenges. Due to the return migration of first-generation immigrants and underrepresentation in national census counts, attempting to study the language demographics of the Spanish-speaking community unilaterally is complex and confusing (Lipski, 2008). From a linguistic identity paradigm, within the first-generation immigrant community, there is a wide array of languages, subdialects, and cultural idioms (García, 2005; Magro & Martínez-Ávila, 2018). Although this reality is commonly held and empirically understood, the influence of a *heritage language* is authentic and seen as a language to be passed on to the next generation (García, 2005). The commitment to do so by first-generation immigrants not only brings difficulty when seeking to communicate with those outside their cultural group, but can be seen as less relevant by second and third-plus generations (Alba et al., 2002; Casielles-Suárez, 2017; Farley & Alba, 2002; Lipski, 2008) as exampled by the Hispanic community in the United States, where many Spanish languages and dialects, including U.S. Spanish (i.e., Chicano, Spanglish), influence the language usage of first-generation Hispanic immigrants (García, 2005; Guglani, 2016; McWilliams et al., 2016; G. J. Sanchez, 1995). Although García (2005) contended that within the United States, the concept of a heritage language other than English is better relocated to the fond memory of the past, Magro and Martínez-Ávila (2018) indicated that language choice (i.e., Spanish, English, bilingual, Spanglish)

are closely affiliated with cultural identity, connection to other members of the subgroup, and preference when communicating. This substantiates the role of language—and, by extension, language choice—as a critical component of the assimilation process.

Realities and Characteristics of Second-Generation Hispanics

Whereas the exponential growth of culturally diverse people groups is a relatively new phenomenon in many countries around the world countries (Dustmann et al., 2012), within the geographical borders of the United States, the immigrant narrative has been a consistent societal factor (Abramitzky et al., 2014; Farley & Alba, 2002). A fact perhaps best illustrated by what researchers call the Age of Mass Migration (1850–1913), in which 30 million European immigrants came to the United States; as a result, in 1910, nearly 22 percent of the U.S. workforce was comprised of foreign-born immigrants (Abramitzky et al., 2014). Although the Age of Mass Migration was a phenomenon that occurred in the early 20th century, societal and political concerns center around one primary challenge: the assimilation and integration of new immigrants into the existing populations of immigrants and their new host country. Researchers have consistently and continually grown in understanding the children of first-generation immigrants in the United States (Farley & Alba, 2002; Karthick Ramakrishnan, 2004; Suro & Passel, 2003). As theorized by Dustmann et al. (2012), "the integration of immigrants and, in particular, their children is a key challenge of policymakers" (p. 146). A challenge that researchers have seen as critical to the understanding of immigrant assimilation, adaptation, and integration into every aspect of U.S. society (Karthick Ramakrishnan, 2004; Kouyoumdjian et al., 2017; Portes, 2017).

Second-Generation Immigrants: Growing Population. Although immigration is a life-changing experience for first-generation immigrants, the second-generation immigrant narrative encapsulates possible societal shifts in the perceptions of immigrant assimilation, socioeconomic status, and language acquisition of immigrants and their families. To clarify what immigrant group was being examined, the U.S. Census defines the second-generation immigrant as anyone in the country with at least one foreign-born parent (U.S. Census Bureau,

2021). The children of first-generation immigrants create a new perspective from which to examine the acculturation narrative. This process of assimilation begins the moment a child is born in the United States to first-generation immigrant parents (Marks et al., 2014; Portes et al., 2009; Portes & MacLeod, 1996; Portes & Truelove, 1987; Sirin et al., 2013). As the second generation of immigrant families seeks to navigate the process of self-identification, they are also tasked with understanding the consequences of adopting and categorizing hyphenated labels created by the society in which they are now born (Farley & Alba, 2002). This paradox is a question that second-generation children of immigrants are not only seeking to understand as a convergence of culturally mandated actions, as with enculturation (e.g., culture as presented and learned in the home), but a new cultural paradigm that is informed by a language other than the one spoken at home, the educational process, and relational diversity (Farley & Alba, 2002; Ortiz, 1993; Rodriguez, 2011). This is perhaps best articulated in the question, "What do I call myself?" (Portes & MacLeod, 1996).

Second-Generation Immigrants: Language Acquisition. Language and language acquisition are critical differentiators between first and second-generation immigrants (Dietrich & Hernandez, 2022; Magro & Martínez-Ávila, 2018). There is alignment among researchers that in a dual language context, language acquisition and development has the highest level of success during early childhood (Guglani, 2016; Montrul & Sánchez-Walker, 2013; Palomares et al., 2018). The capturing of such data by the U.S. Census Bureau regarding language usage in the home can be traced to the 1890 census. Although the form of the question has evolved over the following decades, the primary focus was to ascertain the primary language used in the homes of those in the United States and over 10 years of age (Dietrich & Hernandez, 2022). Identifying significant linguistic changes in the U.S. population in that by the year 2000, the total population that self-identified as speaking a language other than English in the home was 47.0 million—a substantial increase of 14 percent (31.8 million) in 1990 and 11 percent (23.1 million) in 1980 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2003).

The challenge facing this continually growing subpopulation of second-generation immigrants is twofold: (a) second-generation immigrants are required to learn the language of their parents at home, while at the same time (b) learning the language of their new host country—in this context, English (Montrul & Sánchez-Walker, 2013). The linguistic paradox that second-generation immigrants face is that in most cases, children speak their parent's language until they are of school age (Kim et al., 2015; Montrul & Sánchez-Walker, 2013). Once school age, the same individual is required to learn English to function academically (Dustmann et al., 2012; Orupabo et al., 2020), develop socially (Flores et al., 2006), and navigate the cultural idioms of their new environment (Kouyoumdjian et al., 2017). Karthick Ramakrishnan (2004) argued, however, that due to immersion into the English language navigated by second-generation immigrants, their mastery of both English and Spanish is significantly better than those of their parents. This dichotomy is an interesting phenomenon that often creates tension in the homes of immigrant families.

Second-Generation Immigrants: Academic Acculturation. From an academic acculturation perspective, second-generation immigrant faces a myriad of opportunities for growth as they seek to find a balance between the cultural narrative embraced by their parents and the educational system in which they now find themselves a part of daily. Montrul and Sánchez-Walker (2013) categorized second-generation immigrants as *heritage speakers* containing both “simultaneous and sequential bilingual” language learners (p. 109). The impact of acquiring both languages before the age of 5 years was significant to their findings in that exposure to the host countries' language created a heritage language deficit over time. Further, as a result of the continued growth of first-generation immigrants migrating to the United States, there became a need for the educational system to adapt in order to accommodate the needs of Spanish-to-English learners (Farley & Alba, 2002; Kim et al., 2015; Orupabo et al., 2020). As the educational system in the United States is faced with the needs of English language learners (ELLs), researchers and academics have been challenged to define and create a framework

that addresses the divergence of languages spoken in the homes of U.S. immigrants and the need to speak English in the school (August, 2018).

To clarify the construct, Kim et al. (2015) identified five dominant models of language acquisition methodologies. The first model is *submersion*, a process by which the language learner is not given any particular language service, best understood as a "sink or swim" methodology (Kim et al., 2015, p. 237). Second is a model identified as ESL or English for speakers of other languages (ESOL), in which individualized instruction focuses on developing and acquiring the English language. Third is *transitional bilingual education* (TBE), in which both Spanish and English are spoken in the classroom as a way of helping the individual acquire the English language as soon as possible. The fourth methodology used in the U.S. educational system is a process understood as *developmental bilingual education*, which differs from ELLs in that academic instruction is given in their native tongue for several years. The fifth methodology identified by Kim et al. (2015) is *dual language* education, in which native language speakers (i.e., English) who wish to speak a second language (i.e., Spanish) are placed in the same classroom where both languages are taught and used throughout the day. Given that in most cases, the type of language emersion is not given as an option to the family, each school selects which method they will employ; the feeling of lack of control over one's future is not only prevalent but is one example of the stressors that immigrants face daily (Chakraborty & Chattaraman, 2021).

Second-Generation Immigrants: Acculturation Stress. Another perspective that has garnered much attention from acculturation theorists is the stress that develops from growing up in and participating in a new host country (Cervantes et al., 2013; Chakraborty & Chattaraman, 2021; Sirin et al., 2013). Perhaps the best definition of acculturated stress was constructed by Sirin et al. (2013), which is "the potential challenges immigrants face when they negotiate differences between their home and host cultures" (p. 737). Often, given that the second-generation class is primarily made of younger individuals, the stressors of acculturation are significant, difficult to navigate, and unclear. The second-generation immigrant is often faced with the socio-economic reality that as of 2006,

one in every five second-generation children or one in 10 second-generation adults live in poverty (Dixon, 2006). There is also the unforeseen stress that is not only predicated on language acquisition, but as the second-generation immigrant grows into adulthood, there is a challenge to maintain an expected connection to their family's old culture while simultaneously incorporating and navigating the new culture which they were born (Bhatia & Ram, 2009; Masgoret & Ward, 2006; Sirin et al., 2013).

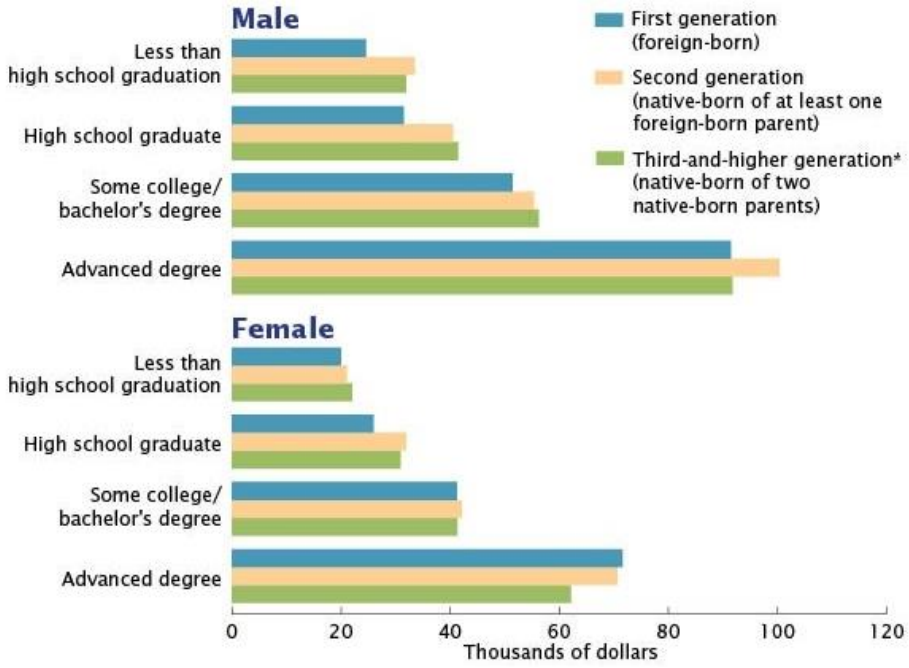
Acculturation stress can come from many elements of the acculturation process, such as increased anti-immigrant sentiment in the United States (Portes et al., 2009; Portes & Truelove, 1987). As asserted by Sirin et al. (2013), "acculturation stress also arises from negative stereotypes attitudes the [host] culture might harbor about immigrants" (p. 737). One such anti-immigrant comment that often follows the second-generation immigrant in the United States is centered around the notion that they should leave their country of birth (i.e., the United States) and go home—with the inference to return to a country other than the United States. This narrative is a statement that second-generation immigrants perceive as irrelevant and somewhat ignorant, given that they are native to the United States and consequently live in their home country (D. R. Sanchez, 2006; G. J. Sanchez, 1995). While such narratives are generally understood as part of the process by most immigrant families, researchers have discovered a significant correlation between acculturation stress and depression, anxiety, and low self-esteem (see Im et al., 2014; Rogers-Sirin et al., 2014; A. Romero & Piña-Watson, 2017; Wong et al., 2017).

Although the findings above are well supported by empirical research, A. Romero and Piña-Watson (2017) reasoned that this does not describe a unilateral acculturation process in which all second-generation immigrants experience the process in the same way (i.e., stress, depression, anxiety, and low self-esteem). A. Romero and Piña-Watson (2017) hypothesized that many second-generation immigrants successfully navigate the process of maintaining elements of their heritage culture and adopting the culture in which they were born. Further, as the bilingual characteristics of the second-generation immigrant grew in their

understanding and usage of English, many availed themselves of academic opportunities. As illustrated in Figure 3, first-generation immigrants had the lowest high school graduation rate at 72.1 percent, with the highest proportion of people who completed ninth grade or less (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016). Second and third-plus-generation immigrants were more likely to attend some college or earn an associate's degree at 26.7 percent and 28.9 percent, respectively (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016). Further, from a socioeconomic perspective, first-generation married couples have twice the poverty rate, 13.9 percent, than second-generation married couples, 5.8 percent (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016).

Figure 3

Generational Earnings and Education: Median Earnings of Full-Time, Year-Round Workers Ages 25–64



Note. The percentage of first-, second-, and third-plus-generations does not include data from Puerto Rico. Obtained from U.S. Census Bureau. (2016). *Children of foreign-born parents generation more likely to be college-educated than their parents, Census Bureau reports*. https://www.census.gov/newsroom/press-releases/2016/cb16-203.html.

What Figure 3 illustrates is the diverse socioeconomic and educational divergence to be found between the first and second-generation immigrants in the United States. Second-generation immigrants in the United States often find themselves at the cross-section of two different cultures: a culture informed and modeled by their parents and the culture that is lived and experienced throughout their educational process, social interactions, and careers (Abrajano & Alvarez, 2010; Abramitzky et al., 2014; Farley & Alba, 2002). Although these realities may seem disjointed when seeking to understand the decision-making process of first-, second-, and third-plus-generational Hispanic leaders in the United States, it is well documented that the acculturation process identifies many factors and generational immigration theories articulate and identify variables that impact the way an individual makes decisions throughout the entirety of their life (Marks et al., 2014; Portes, 2017; Rumbaut & Komaie, 2010).

Realities and Characteristics of Third-Plus-Generation Hispanics

Third-plus-generation Hispanics are in what Vasquez (2011) portrayed as being in the "in-between zone" where they have lived in the United States for the entirety of their life (p. xi). As a result, they are intentionally selective about which cultural traditions, ideologies, and norms they will maintain while at the same time living a fully "American acculturated" life and "indistinguishable from those native-born Americans" (Vasquez, 2011, p. xi). Although third-generation immigrants have limited knowledge of their heritage language, English is their first and preferred language (Alba et al., 2002; Vasquez, 2010, 2011). For example, U.S. Census data from within the Hispanic community confirmed that between 2009 and 2019, two crucial acculturation factors were confirmed when seeking to understand the third-plus-generation Hispanic. First, the percentage of native-born is steadily increasing, and as of 2019, they make up two thirds of the Hispanic population in the US; second, native-born Hispanics speak English at home (Santos, 2022). Further, as acculturation research has a copious amount of historical and sociological literature that focuses on the process of assimilation, the third-plus-generation Hispanic falls into a category of those that, due to being born here, are

characterized as the assimilated (Baldwin-White et al., 2017; Manning & Robert, 2001).

Third-Generation Immigrant: Socioeconomic Status Expectations. As such, the third-plus generation cannot be examined with the same paradigms as the first and second-generation immigrants (Fix et al., 2001; Vasquez, 2011). For instance, although a small percentage of first-generation immigrants came to the United States with marketable skills (i.e., doctors, lawyers, professors, managers), most first-generation immigrants came and acquired manual and service-oriented jobs (i.e., construction, landscape, and restaurant workers). Within the immigrant community, there is an "expectation that one's economic status will improve over one's parents and grandparents…the first generation often must work harder to overcome numerous cultural and economic challenges" (Vasquez, 2011, p. 1). Immigration researchers have discovered that Hispanic third-plus-generation immigrants can take advantage of their second-generation parent's elevated socio-economic status, firm middle-class standing, English fluency, and academic mobility (see Figure 3; Vasquez, 2011). Also, within the largest minority community in the United States, 79 percent of Hispanics see themselves as typical Americas, compared to 21 percent who see themselves as very different from a typical American (Gonzalez-Barrera, 2020).

Third-Plus-Generation Hispanic: Spanglish, the Hybrid Voice. As generational theorists continue to examine the complexities of generational shifts, one consistent variable continues to be a part of the phenomenon – that of the role of language throughout different generations (Alba et al., 2002; Andrade Maureira, 2019; Bazán-Figueras & Figueras, 2014). In narrowing the focus to third-generation Hispanics in the United States, English is the language taught, preferred, and commonly used (Alba et al., 2002; Bazán-Figueras & Figueras, 2014; Casielles-Suárez, 2017; E. Morales, 2007). Even though by the third generation, the dominant linguistic choice is monolinguistic in favor of English, the embrace of the mother tongue (i.e., the language of their parents), while present, is fragmented at best or completely lost at worst (Alba et al., 2002). Given the third-generation's close ties to their second-generation bilingual parents, an Americanized blend of

Spanish and English has been understood as *Espanglish* in the Spanish-speaking world and *Spanglish* in the United States (Lipski, 2008). The term Spanglish was first credited to a Puerto Rican writer named Salvador Tió in the late 1940s, and from that time to the present, it has been used to describe the blending of Spanish and English in the United States (Casielles-Suárez, 2017). Stavans (2004) defined Spanglish as "the verbal encounter between Anglo and Hispano civilizations" (p. 5). Bazán-Figueras and Figueras (2014) described Spanglish as a "speech modality" used in the United States and is a mix of Spanish/English grammar and linguistic elements—a phenomenon not limited to the United States but growing globally in countries where Spanish has been the dominant language.

Although common among third-generation Hispanics, Spanglish is seen among Spanish speakers as displacing Spanish in the United States, in so doing, creating another disadvantage to first-generation standard Spanish-speaking Hispanics (Guglani, 2016; Lipski, 2008; McWilliams et al., 2016; Otheguy & Stern, 2011; Stavans, 2004). Stavans (2004) further quantified that the usage and term of Spanglish as a communication methodology is often "described as a trap, *la trampa*, Hispanics fall into on the road to assimilation, *el obstáculo en el camino*" (p. 3). Otheguy and Stern (2011) suggested that the term Spanglish was a linguistic misnomer and that such a blending of Spanish and English should be called Spanish or Spanish in the United States. Otheguy and Stern (2011) further claimed that

> Spanish in the USA is not a hybrid character, that is, the term Spanglish is not only technically flawed, but it also contributes to closing the doors of personal and economic progress of speakers who would be better served by thinking of themselves as Spanish speakers. (p. 98)

Casielles-Suárez (2017) agreed that the usage of Spanglish by some within the Hispanic community is seen and embraced with a sense of pride. This author maintaine, however, that to do so is disregarding the social, cultural, and political ramifications of such linguistic practices.

A linguistic ideology combining Spanish and English is one way that third-plus generation Hispanics and Latinas[os] are distinct as an ethnoracial group

(Alim et al., 2016). E. Morales (2007), to clarify the rationale behind the term and usage of Spanglish, resolved that "there is no better term for what a mixed race culture means than a hybrid language, and informal code…a social construction with different rules" (p. 3). Mernaugh (2017) made the case that Spanglish should not be seen as an incongruent, inconsistent meshing of Spanish and English; instead, a "rule-governed and expression of two sociolinguistic identities that can co-exist within a particular person, family, or community" (p. 4). Chappell (2017) stated that instead of using Spanglish as a derogatory linguistic paradigm, it should be understood as a "positive marker of hybrid identity" narrative within the third-plus-generation Hispanic community, a linguistic history shaped by a decades-long acculturation process unique to the Hispanic immigrant journey. Although the use of Spanglish may be complicated to linguistic theorists seeking to categorize its role in communication methodologies, the hybrid nature of the Spanglish dialect identifies a framework to understand the influence of cultural divergence (Lipski, 2008; Santos, 2022), ethno-generational distinction (Portes, 2017; Vasquez, 2010), and identity (Gonzalez-Barrera, 2020; E. Morales, 2007; Peart & Lescher, 2016; Vasquez, 2010). Peart and Lescher (2016) also offered that Spanglish is not a lower form of Spanish or English, but rather a cultural, normative, and linguistic "identity marker" for Hispanics in the United States (p. 1).

To understand generation differences among immigrants in the United States, one must first be willing to concede that there is little evidence of a standard strait-line assimilation process (McKeever & Klineberg, 1999), nor can it be understood as an unrelated quagmire of culturally acculturated processes (Berry, 1992, 2003, 2005). Instead, generational differences are best understood as a paradox of cultural ideologies (Abascal, 2015; Hines et al., 1992; Mannheim, 1952), linguistic acquisition (Andrade Maureira, 2019, 2019; Magro & Martínez-Ávila, 2018), and a diverse socioeconomic status (Cross, 2018; Duncan & Trejo, 2015; McKeever & Klineberg, 1999). It is empirically supported that generational differences are predicated on the acculturation process unique to each generation's migration narrative—whether an individual finds themselves as a member of the first, second, or third-plus generation (Masgoret & Ward, 2006). It is further

empirically supported that as immigrant generations evolve, there is a corresponding evolution of diverse ideologies unique to a generational subset, linguistic acquisition both by choice and usage, and how the different generations of immigrants adapt to the culturally diverse society of which they are now a part (Pivovarova & Powers, 2019).

Summary

The empirical research material of decision-making theory, decision-making styles, acculturalization, and generational (i.e., first, second, and third-plus) differences presented in this literature review serves as foundational knowledge toward an understanding of each construct (i.e., decision-making theory, decision-making styles, acculturalization, and generational differences), relevance, and applicational viability. The literature submitted in this study shows congruent decision-making analysis as a process toward goal objectives (Abubakar et al., 2019; Edwards, 1954; Simon, 1955) and the predetermined decision-making styles of the individuals making the decisions (Arroba, 1977; Driver, 1979; Rowe & Boulgarides, 1983). Decision-making styles are critical contributors to the decision-making process, given that an individual's decision-making style is the lens through which each decision is examined, conceptualized, and understood. An individual's decision-making style informs and contributes to their organizational decision-making methodology (Abubakar et al., 2019; Felfe & Petersen, 2007; Fitzgerald et al., 2017). The literature reviewed also identified a conjunctive correlation between an individual's decision-making style and cultural background.

A narrative empirically supported by literature examination of language acquisition, academic modality, and cultural adoption from both the perspective of the individual and the country of their birth (note: for second and third-plus generations, the country of birth is the United States). This cultural dichotomy is examined through the generational differences that occur as first-generation immigrants have children in their new host country. As the construct of generational differences (i.e., first, second, and third-plus) developed, decision-making styles theorists confirmed a correlation between an individual’s decision-making style, cultural experience, and migrant narrative (Cano et al., 2012;

Masgoret & Ward, 2006). Furthermore, the literature proves that generational differences in education accessibility (Duong et al., 2016), perceived generational deserters (Pyke, 2005), and identity (Baldwin-White et al., 2017; Bhatia & Ram, 2009; Gallegos & Ferdman, 2007; Guglani, 2016) contribute significantly to the acculturation process.

Finally, although the literature reviewed in this study established a general sense of existing literature on decision-making theory, decision-making styles, acculturalization, and generational (i.e., first, second, and third-plus) differences, this literature review also contains research focused on the Hispanic immigrant in the United States (Baldwin-White et al., 2017; E. Morales, 2007; Santos, 2022). To do so was not without merit, given that the objective of this study was to ascertain whether there is a statistically significant effect for Hispanic generations upon decision-making styles and to what degree do study participants' years living in the United States associate and predict the decision-making styles of first-generation Hispanic immigrants. Positioning the Hispanic leaders as the lens from which to examine the decision-making styles of first-, second-, and third-plus-generations allows individuals and organizational leaders insight into the myriad of variables that contribute to the decision-making styles of the largest minority community in the United States.

Chapter 3 – Methodology

The primary purpose of this study was to empirically evaluate whether there is a statistically significant effect for generation upon decision-making styles (RQ1). The researcher hypothesized that there would be a statistically significant effect on decision-making styles among first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanics (H1a) and that there would be a statistically significantly higher level of rational decision-making style compared to intuitive decision-making style among second- and third-plus-generation Hispanics (H1b). Additionally, the researcher assessed whether there is a statistically significant interaction effect for study participant gender and generation upon decision-making styles (RQ2). The hypothesis was that there would be a statistically significant interaction effect for study participant gender and generation upon decision-making styles. To test the hypotheses of the study, the researcher selected a quantitative, survey-based, cross-sectional, nonexperimental study to aid in the analytical process (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Franz, 2023).

Research Design and Methodology

A quantitative, nonexperimental research design was employed to address the study's topic, research problem, and test hypotheses (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2016; Franz, 2023; Schutt, 2019). As Schutt (2019) specified, "Quantitative methods are a collection of techniques that rely on numbers to represent empirical reality" (p. 55). Within the construct of quantitative theory, the survey-based approach was selected as the best method for the current research questions (Babbie, 2020; Fowler, 2014). The rationale for doing so was predicated on the core characteristics of the survey method (e.g., quantitative data collection, relational, associative, and pattern analysis of a group or population; (Dullen et al., 2021; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2016; Schutt, 2019). In addition, as a result of the continually changing Hispanic landscape in the United States, the quantitive survey method allowed for a point-in-time analysis of the population—in this context, the first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanic/Latino[as] (Babbie, 2020; Fowler, 2014; Somekh & Lewin, 2004). Perhaps most significant to the selection of

the quantitative survey method was access to a large population of first, second, and third-plus-generation Hispanic leaders, which makes the qualitative method unrealistic and limiting. Although attractive from a researcher's perspective, geographical access was challenging given that the possible participants were spread throughout the United States. As a result, the qualitative interview methodology was not chosen due to the cost, access, and time commitment required for individual interviews and coding.

Second, given that the researcher's objective was to obtain as robust a sampling for analysis as possible (Fowler, 2014), it was determined that a qualitative survey methodology contained the highest probability of participant engagement. Further consideration was given to personal relationships and access to critical organizational leaders within the Assemblies of God (AG) and Hispanic Districts (i.e., General Superintendent, Regional and District leaders). As an ordained minister of the Southern Pacific District (SPD), a division of the AG (Springfield, MO), the researcher found a correlation between the Hispanic community in which he is involved and the research questions seeking clarification in this study. The Hispanic districts of the AG were the organization from which the participants were recruited both for accessibility and personal familiarity with the cultural makeup of the district communities. Further, as a leader in the AG and a bilingual Hispanic church leader, the researcher perceives himself as part of the narrative. The researcher was personally interested in this research study's discovery, analysis, and findings.

Population and Sampling

The population for this quantitative study included first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanic leaders from throughout the United States. The sample included Hispanic districts (e.g., the Southern Pacific District, the Northern California District, and the Texas-Louisiana District) associated with the AG (Missouri, MO). The Office of Hispanic Relations of the AG detailed:

> People of Hispanic origin have grown to be the largest ethnic or racial minority in the United States, constituting a population of 57.5 million or 17.8% of the nation's total population. Hispanic adherents within the AG

> have grown to 718,785 (22.2%) in 2016 from 540,431 (19.1%) in 2006. This growing demographic of the AG is served by over 2,800 Hispanic churches and 3,793 credentialed ministers as of 2016. (Assemblies of God, n.d., para. 2)

These Hispanic districts of the AG were selected because they are affiliated, nonprofit organizations whose primary population fits the general profile of Hispanic, multigenerational and whose congregations are a mix of individuals and leaders who speak Spanish, English, or are bilingual (i.e., meetings and services are held using a mixture of Spanish and English). Within the context of this study, Hispanic leaders were primarily made up of district superintendents, district staff, local pastors, and church leadership (e.g., Board of Elders, Associate Pastors, and Department Heads).

Given the geographical limitations and population clusters in the form of national, regional, and district offices, the sample design for this study was a multistage clustering of participants (Babbie, 2020; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The stratification methodology was present in that the Hispanic districts—whose primary population is Hispanic first-, second-, and third-plus-generation individuals—were intentionally selected instead of the entirety of the AG (Babbie, 2020; Fowler, 2014). Further, given that each Hispanic district office sends out the email containing the link to the survey, there was an inherent random sampling in three forms: those who choose to open the email, those who choose to participate in the survey, and those who complete the survey—all of which contribute to population (*n*) factor for the study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2016).

To reach representative analysis, Hair et al. (2012) suggested that a study should achieve .80 of the desired significance and level and effect size of .5 or smaller through a 20:1 ratio of responses to the variables. On average, 400 individuals per district are differentiated as either Pastors or leaders, to obtain 75 to 100 participants for each generation being examined (i.e., first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanic pastors and leaders). A range was articulated due to an anomaly with the participant group. An anomaly was that second- and third-plus-

generation Hispanics in the United States are the fastest-growing segment of the population (Alba et al., 2002; Johnson & Lichter, 2016; Lichter & Johnson, 2020). Although this anomaly was present within the population of interest, the researcher had confidence due to the large number of participants that were invited to participate (2,400 individuals) that the recommended 1:20 ratio per variable and a minimum of 300 participants would be exceeded in this study (Hair et al., 2012; Salkind & Frey, 2020).

Instrumentation

Decision-making styles of first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanic leaders were assessed using the General Decision-Making Style (GDMS) survey instrument (Scott & Bruce, 1995). The GDMS is a survey instrument that collects data that aids researchers in assessing an individual's decision-making style through five categories (Loo, 2000; Scott & Bruce, 1995). The five categories are rational decision-making style, intuitive decision-making style, dependent decision-making style, avoidant decision-making style, and spontaneous decision-making style. For a brief description of each decision-making style, see Table 2. The conceptual framework behind this instrument presupposes that an individual's decision-making style is developed through a combination of learning (e.g., life experiences, cultural background, and ideological perspective) and habit (e.g., the decision-making style most often accessed when making a decision; see Girard et al. 2016; Scott & Bruce, 1995).

The respondents were presented with 25 items measuring the five styles: rational, avoidant, dependent, intuitive, and spontaneous (Scott & Bruce, 1995). After reading each question, the participants self-rated their connection to a particular decision-making style using a 5-point Likert scale. The score range is 1 = *Strongly Disagree*, 2 = *Somewhat Disagree*, 3 = *Neither Agree nor Disagree*, 4 = *Somewhat Agree*, and 5 = *Strongly Agree*. The GDMS scale has an overall Cronbach's alpha of good to very good, $\alpha = .84$ (del Campo et al., 2016; Loo, 2000). The following heading was used to guide the participants: "Listed below are statements describing how individuals go about making important decisions" (Scott & Bruce, 1995, pp. 821–822).

As previously asserted, the measurement of the decision-making styles of first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanics in the United States was the 25-item scale developed by Scott and Bruce (1995). Although the GDMS is a well-established measurement scale, it has only been translated into Spanish in one other research study (see del Campo et al., 2016) for a sample of English and Spanish-translated items (see Table 2). This reality does not imply that the GDMS has not been translated into other languages; the instrument has been adapted to Swedish, Italian, Dutch, Slovak, French, and German (Alacreu-Crespo et al., 2019). As postulated in the literature review, language acquisition among first-generation immigrants is one of the primary challenges they face; thus, given that first- and second-generation Hispanic leaders may prefer to take the survey in Spanish, making a Spanish language translation available was essential.

Table 2

Sample English to Spanish Translated Items from Scott and Bruce (1995)

Item	English	Spanish
1	I plan my important decisions carefully (R1)	Planifico mis decisiones importantes con cuidado
2	When I make a decision, I rely on my instincts (I1)	En la toma de deciciones me fı´o de mis instintos
3	I often need the assistance of other people when making important decisions. (D1)	Con frecuencia necesito la ayuda de otras personas cuando tomo decisiones importantes
4	I avoid making important decisions until the pressure is on. (A1)	Evito tomar decisiones importantes hasta que me siento presionado
5	I generally make snap decisions. (S1)	Generalmente tomo decisiones sin pensarlo mucho

Note. The Spanish translation is from del Campo, C., Pauser, S., Steiner, E., & Vetschera, R. (2016). Decision-making styles and the use of heuristics in decision-making. *Journal of Business Economics*, *86*(4), 389–412. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11573-016-0811-y

Alacreu-Crespo et al. (2019) confirmed that “although there are several scales to evaluate decision-making styles, GDMS is the most widely used in the literature, so a Spanish validation is needed” (p. 740). Therefore, for this study, a Spanish

translation of all the material (e.g., email, instructions, survey questions) was provided to each possible participant. It should be noted that the rationale for all materials being translated and sent out congruently was within the parameters of this study. It was impossible, however, to ascertain which language a possible participant would prefer when deciding to participate. This action to translate all material to Spanish was taken to remove any possible deterrents from those wishing to participate.

Procedures

The AG Hispanic districts were selected for this research because the pastors and leaders that comprise the organization's population meet the target population's demographic profile (i.e., first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanics) and interact and lead culturally diverse organizations and teams. The data collection methodology began by sending a link to a self-administered survey (Fowler, 2014) to all pastors and leaders in the Hispanic districts in the AG. Although the researcher had a direct relationship with most of the district superintendents, the data collection procedure began by contacting a recently retired Hispanic District Superintendent for contact information and help communicating the research project. Hispanic District Superintendents first received the online survey link with a letter of support from the previous District Superintendent.

The agreed-upon instructions for the survey were mass-emailed in Spanish and English to every pastor and leader in the district's roster—approximately 2400 individuals (note: the Spanish survey and email content was approved by a certified translator). Contained within the email was an introduction to the study, encouragement to participate in the study, and a link to press in case the individual was willing to move forward. Once pressed, the email link took them to an online portal containing the GDMS survey instrument. Consistent translation of all communication and survey material was performed following the recommendation of Fowler (2014) that efforts are made to ensure that all respondents are getting the "exact" same questions, with the same meaning, in a familiar or common language (p. 79).

The first page of the survey introduced the participant to the study's purpose, goals, objectives, biographical information, survey language preference, and consent to participate. Once a selection was made as to whether to participate, the participant was granted access to the survey's first question. If they did not wish to participate, they were not given access to the GDMS survey. The online platform SurveyMonkey was selected for data collection and data transference to *IBM SPSS 24 Statistics for Windows* software. The SurveyMonkey platform was chosen for its excellent reputation in data storage, data security, and overall support.

Data Analysis

After downloading the data from SurveyMonkey to SPSS, the researcher analyzed the data using both multivariate analyses of the variance (MANOVA) with post hoc testing for the research question. MANOVA aids researchers in comparing the variance across the means of different groups (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). MANOVA was appropriate to ascertain whether there is a difference in the decision-making styles among first-, second-, and third-plus-generation U.S. Hispanics (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Franz, 2023). The study's demographic data were specifically analyzed using the descriptive statistical techniques frequencies (*n*), measures of central tendency (mean scores), variability (minimum/maximum; standard deviations), standard errors of the mean (SE_M), and data normality (skew; kurtosis).

RQ1 asked whether there is a statistically significant effect for generation upon decision-making styles. To answer this, a MANOVA was conducted to assess whether there were statistically significant differences in the linear combination of the decision-making styles of rational, intuitive, dependent, avoidant, and spontaneous between the levels of study participant generation. Following the MANOVA, univariate ANOVAs were conducted to evaluate the effect exerted upon decision-making styles by study participants' respective generations.

To answer RQ2, the researcher determined whether there is a statistically significant interaction effect for study participant gender and generation upon decision-making styles. A factorial multivariate analysis of variance (2 x 3 MANOVA) was conducted to determine whether there were statistically significant

differences in the linear combination of the decision-making styles of rational, intuitive, dependent, avoidant, and spontaneous between the levels of study participant gender and generation. The study's research instrument was evaluated using both Cronbach's alpha (*a*) to interpret the internal reliability achieved in each of the analyses and a CFA model to assess the degree to which the study's latent variable generational decision-making adequately described the study's data. Finally, a Chi-square goodness of fit (GOF) test was conducted to evaluate the degree to which the CFA model adequately fit the study's data.

Summary

This chapter contained an overview of the methodology chosen to examine the decision-making styles of the AG's first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanic pastors and leaders. The rationale for the population selected for this study was three-fold. First, the Hispanic pastors and leaders of the AG Hispanic districts fit the demographic profile (i.e., first-, second-, or third-plus-generation pastors and leaders). Second, the AG Hispanic pastors and leaders lead organizations or groups and, therefore, must make daily personal and organizational decisions. The third factor was the researcher's relationship with the district officials who can grant access to the district's mass email lists. The procedure for how the survey would reach the participants was presented and clarified, as well as the analytical procedure once all data had been collected. The procedure aligns with the rigors of critical quantitative data analysis through descriptive statistical methods toward addressing research questions and testing the hypotheses (Babbie, 2020; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2016; Fowler, 2014). It was further explained in this chapter that due to the efficacy, validity, and reliability of the GDMS survey in quantitative methods, it was the correct instrument for this research study ($\alpha = .84$; see Loo, 2000; Thunholm, 2004, 2008, 2009).

Chapter 4 – Findings

The current study was designed to evaluate the effect that study participant generation might exert upon the decision-making styles of first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanic pastors and leaders in the Assemblies of God fellowship. The study's topic was addressed using a quantitative, nonexperimental research design. The selected research methodology was a survey research approach. The researcher used descriptive and inferential statistical techniques to analyze the collected data. The following represents the formal reporting of findings achieved in the study.

Preliminary Descriptive Statistical Findings

Demographic Information

The study's demographic information was evaluated using descriptive statistical techniques (Field, 2018; Salkind & Frey, 2020). The study's demographic data was specifically analyzed using the descriptive statistical techniques of frequencies (*n*) and percentages (%). Table 3 contains a summary of findings for the demographic variables of study participant age category, gender, generation, primary language, and Hispanic descent status.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics Summary Table: Demographic Variables

Variable	*n*	*%*	Cumulative *%*
Age Category			
Under 18	3	1.33	1.33
18–24	22	9.73	11.06
25–34	41	18.14	29.20
35–44	41	18.14	47.35
45–54	48	21.24	68.58
55 and Older	71	31.42	100.00
Missing	0	0.00	100.00
Gender			
Male	120	53.10	53.10
Female	106	46.90	100.00
Missing	0	0.00	100.00
Generation			
First Generation	66	29.20	29.20
Second Generation	94	41.59	70.80
Third Generation	57	25.22	96.02
Missing	9	3.98	100.00
Language			
English	178	78.76	78.76
Spanish	46	20.35	99.12
Missing	2	0.88	100.00
Hispanic Descent Status			
Yes	214	94.69	94.69
No	10	4.42	99.12
Missing	2	0.88	100.00

Descriptive Statistics: Survey Response Data for Decision-Making Styles

Descriptive statistical techniques were utilized to assess the study's response dataset within the study's identified generational decision-making styles. The survey response data were specifically addressed using the descriptive statistical techniques of frequencies (*n*), measures of central tendency (mean scores), variability (minimum/maximum; standard deviations), standard errors of the mean (SE_M), and data normality (skew; kurtosis).

Table 4 contains a summary of findings for the descriptive statistical analysis of the study's data associated with study participants' generational decision-making styles.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics Summary Table: Generational Decision-Making Styles

Style	*M*	*SD*	*n*	SE_M	Min	Max	Skew	Kurtosis
Rational	3.24	0.67	225	0.04	1.00	4.60	-0.43	-0.07
Intuitive	2.77	0.52	225	0.03	1.00	4.20	-0.54	0.98
Dependent	2.54	0.53	224	0.04	1.00	4.20	-0.09	0.40
Avoidant	2.79	0.52	223	0.03	1.00	4.20	-0.81	1.74
Spontaneous	2.65	0.51	222	0.03	1.00	4.40	-0.45	1.45

Table 5 contains a summary of findings for the descriptive statistical analysis of the study's data associated with study participants' generational decision-making style by study participant category of age.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics Summary Table: Decision-Making Styles by Age Category

Age/Style	*M*	*SD*	*n*	SE_M	Min	Max	Skew	Kurtosis
Under 18								
Rational	2.80	0.20	3	0.12	2.60	3.00	4.12×10^{-15}	-1.50
Intuitive	2.47	0.12	3	0.07	2.40	2.60	0.71	-1.50
Dependent	2.20	0.53	3	0.31	1.60	2.60	-0.60	-1.50
Avoidant	2.47	0.50	3	0.29	2.00	3.00	0.24	-1.50
Spontaneous	2.67	0.23	3	0.13	2.40	2.80	-0.71	-1.50
18–24								
Rational	3.11	0.73	22	0.16	1.00	4.20	-1.28	1.51
Intuitive	2.81	0.60	22	0.13	1.00	4.20	-0.84	2.73
Dependent	2.43	0.63	22	0.14	1.00	4.20	0.35	1.88
Avoidant	2.66	0.71	22	0.15	1.00	4.20	-0.41	0.30
Spontaneous	2.59	0.56	22	0.12	1.00	3.20	-1.21	1.22
25–34								
Rational	3.09	0.69	41	0.11	1.40	4.60	-0.006	-0.44
Intuitive	2.67	0.46	41	0.07	1.40	3.60	-0.39	0.06
Dependent	2.33	0.50	41	0.08	1.00	3.00	-0.51	-0.16
Avoidant	2.69	0.53	41	0.08	1.00	3.60	-0.97	1.32
Spontaneous	2.48	0.51	41	0.08	1.00	3.40	-0.70	0.45
35–44								
Rational	3.13	0.70	41	0.11	2.00	4.40	0.14	-0.88
Intuitive	2.77	0.44	41	0.07	1.80	3.80	0.28	-0.09
Dependent	2.55	0.53	40	0.08	1.40	3.60	-0.11	-0.57
Avoidant	2.71	0.57	41	0.09	1.00	3.40	-0.80	0.40
Spontaneous	2.69	0.61	41	0.10	1.00	4.40	0.18	1.23
45–54								
Rational	3.27	0.58	48	0.08	1.80	4.60	-0.10	-0.24
Intuitive	2.80	0.47	48	0.07	1.80	3.60	-0.32	-0.64
Dependent	2.57	0.43	48	0.06	1.80	3.60	0.11	-0.61
Avoidant	2.92	0.38	48	0.05	2.40	4.20	0.89	1.21
Spontaneous	2.70	0.41	47	0.06	1.60	3.80	-0.20	0.28
55 and Older								
Rational	3.44	0.64	70	0.08	1.60	4.60	-0.96	0.73
Intuitive	2.81	0.60	70	0.07	1.00	4.00	-0.87	0.93
Dependent	2.67	0.55	70	0.07	1.00	3.80	-0.20	0.33
Avoidant	2.86	0.47	68	0.06	1.00	3.80	-0.99	2.55
Spontaneous	2.72	0.50	68	0.06	1.00	4.00	-0.70	1.52

Table 6 contains a summary of findings for the descriptive statistical analysis of the study's data associated with study participant generational decision-making styles by study participant generation designation.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics Summary Table: Decision-Making Styles by Generation Designation

Generation/Style	*M*	*SD*	*n*	SE_M	Min	Max	Skew	Kurtosis
First Generation								
Rational	3.25	0.67	66	0.08	1.80	4.60	-0.33	-0.61
Intuitive	2.74	0.54	66	0.07	1.20	4.00	-0.10	0.32
Dependent	2.59	0.50	66	0.06	1.60	3.60	0.00	-0.89
Avoidant	2.84	0.47	66	0.06	1.60	3.80	-0.54	0.29
Spontaneous	2.67	0.49	64	0.06	1.40	3.80	-0.16	0.002
Second Generation								
Rational	3.19	0.67	94	0.07	1.40	4.60	-0.32	-0.30
Intuitive	2.79	0.49	94	0.05	1.20	4.20	-0.41	0.93
Dependent	2.53	0.55	93	0.06	1.00	4.20	0.00	0.86
Avoidant	2.74	0.52	93	0.05	1.00	4.20	-0.57	1.03
Spontaneous	2.64	0.52	94	0.05	1.00	4.40	0.01	1.44
Third-Plus Generation								
Rational	3.30	0.60	57	0.08	1.80	4.60	-0.20	-0.58
Intuitive	2.76	0.51	57	0.07	1.00	3.60	-0.89	1.09
Dependent	2.47	0.53	57	0.07	1.00	3.80	-0.03	0.29
Avoidant	2.79	0.51	56	0.07	1.00	3.60	-1.38	3.34
Spontaneous	2.67	0.50	56	0.07	1.00	3.60	-1.37	2.73

Instrument Validation: Internal Reliability

The internal reliability of study participant responses to survey items represented on the study's research instrument was evaluated using Cronbach's alpha (*a*). The conventions of interpretation for Cronbach's alpha designed by George and Mallery (2020) were used to interpret the internal reliability achieved in each of the analyses. As a result, the internal reliability level achieved in the study was considered good to very good for the overall value and for each of the three generational values.

Table 7 contains a summary of findings for the internal reliability of study participant responses to the 25 survey items featured on the research instrument associated with the construct of generational decision-making styles.

Table 7

Reliability Table for Generational Decision-Making Styles

Scale	# of Items	α	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Decision-Making Styles	25	.84	.82	.87

Note. The lower and upper bounds of Cronbach's α were calculated using a 95.00% confidence interval.

Table 8 contains a summary of findings for the internal reliability of study participant responses to the 25 survey items featured on the research instrument associated with the construct of generational decision-making styles for the first generation.

Table 8

Reliability Table for Decision-Making Styles by Generation: First-Generation

Scale	# of Items	α	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Decision-Making Style: First Generation	25	.83	.78	.88

Note. The lower and upper bounds of Cronbach's α were calculated using a 95.00% confidence interval.

Table 9 contains a summary of findings for the internal reliability of study participant responses to the 25 survey items featured on the research instrument associated with the construct of generational decision-making styles for the second generation.

Table 9

Reliability Table for Decision-Making Styles by Generation: Second-Generation

Scale	# of Items	α	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Decision-Making Style: Second Generation	25	.85	.81	.88

Note. The lower and upper bounds of Cronbach's α were calculated using a 95.00% confidence interval.

Table 10 contains a summary of findings for the internal reliability of study participant responses to the 25 survey items featured on the research instrument associated with the construct of generational decision-making styles for the third generation.

Table 10

Reliability Table for Decision-Making Styles by Generation: Third-Plus Generation

Scale	# of Items	α	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Decision-Making Styles: Third-Plus Generation	25	.81	.75	.87

Note. The lower and upper bounds of Cronbach's α were calculated using a 95.00% confidence interval.

GDM Model Validation: Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

A CFA model was conducted to evaluate the degree to which the study's latent variable of generational decision-making adequately described the study's data. Maximum likelihood estimation was used to determine the standard errors for the parameter estimates. First, the reliability of the analysis was evaluated based upon the sample size used to construct the model. The results were assessed using the Chi-square goodness of fit test and associated appropriate indices. Lastly, the squared multiple correlations (R^2) for each endogenous variable in the analysis were evaluated. The results of the CFA model are presented in Table 11. The visual representation of the CFA model is presented in Figure 4.

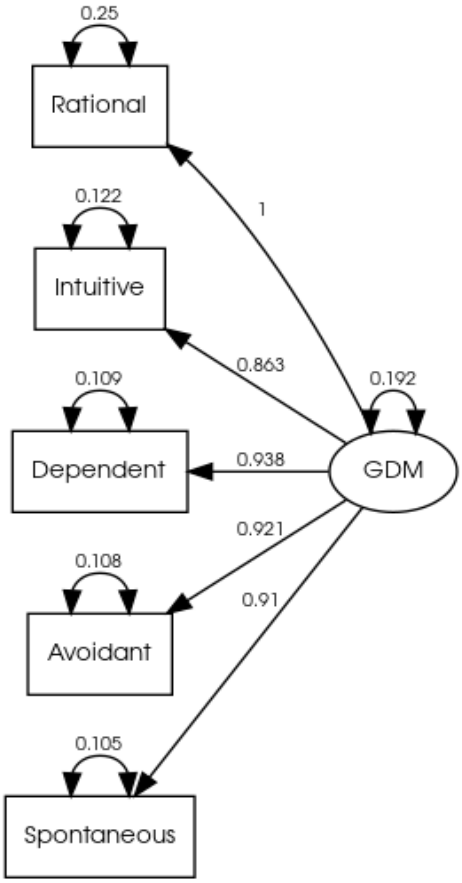
Table 11

Unstandardized Loadings (Standard Errors), Standardized Loadings, and Significance Levels for Each Parameter in the CFA Model (N = 219)

Parameter Estimate	Unstandardized	Standardized	*p*
Loadings			
GDM → Rational	1.00(0.00)	0.66	--
GDM → Intuitive	0.86(0.09)	0.73	< .001
GDM → Dependent	0.94(0.10)	0.78	< .001
GDM → Avoidant	0.92(0.10)	0.78	< .001
GDM → Spontaneous	0.91(0.10)	0.78	< .001
Errors			
Error in Rational	0.25(0.03)	0.57	< .001
Error in Intuitive	0.12(0.01)	0.46	< .001
Error in Dependent	0.11(0.01)	0.39	< .001
Error in Avoidant	0.11(0.01)	0.40	< .001
Error in Spontaneous	0.11(0.01)	0.40	< .001
Error in GDM	0.19(0.04)	1.00	< .001

Figure 4

CFA Model Visual Representation



CFA Model Fitness

A Chi-square goodness of fit (GOF) test was conducted to evaluate the degree to which the CFA model adequately fits the study's data. The results of the Chi-square GOF test were not significant ($\chi^2(5) = 5.03$, $p = .41$), suggesting that the model fit the data well. Follow-up fit indices were calculated to further determine the model's fitness using the study's data using the convention of fit index conventions designed by Hooper et al. (2008). The resulting TLI value was greater than or equal to .95, indicating that the model is a good fit for the data. The CFI value was greater than .95, suggesting that the model fit the data well. The RMSEA index was less than .08, RMSEA indicative of a good model fit, and the SRMR value was less than .05, indicating that the model fits the data well (Hooper

et al., 2008). A summary of findings for the evaluation of the fit indices is presented in Table 12.

Table 12

Fit Indices Summary Table: GDM Model

NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
0.99	1.00	1.00	0.01	0.02

The individual relationship between each indicator variable and the latent variable was assessed by the observed variable's R^2 value. The R^2 value identifies how much of the indicator variable's variance explains a respective factor. All five observed variables reflected R^2 values $\geq .20$, indicating satisfactory levels of explained variance were reflected in each of the five decision-making styles. The R^2 values and error variances for each observed variable are presented in Table 13.

Table 13

Estimated Error Variances and R^2 Values for Each Indicator Variable – Latent Variable Relationship in the CFA model.

Endogenous Variable (Style)	Standard Error	R^2
Rational	0.25	.43
Intuitive	0.12	.54
Dependent	0.11	.61
Avoidant	0.11	.60
Spontaneous	0.11	.60

Findings by Research Question

One research question and accompanying hypotheses were stated to address the study's purpose. The following represents the findings achieved in the analyses associated with the study's research question.

Research Question 1

The first research question asked: Is there a statistically significant effect for generation upon decision-making styles? A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to assess if there were statistically significant differences in the linear combination of the decision-making styles of rational,

intuitive, dependent, avoidant, and spontaneous between the levels of study participant generation. As a result, the main effect for study participant generation was nonstatistically significant (F (10, 410) = 0.96, p = .48, $\eta^2 p$ = 0.02), indicating that the linear combination of the decision-making styles rational, intuitive, dependent, avoidant, and spontaneous was similar for each level of for study participant respective generation. The results of the MANOVA are summarized and presented in Table 14.

Table 14

MANOVA Summary Table: Decision-Making Styles of Rational, Intuitive, Dependent, Avoidant, and Spontaneous by Generation

Variable	Pillai	*F*	*df*	Residual df	*p*	$\eta_p 2$
Generation	0.05	0.96	10	410	.48	0.02

Follow-Up Univariate ANOVAs

Follow-up, univariate ANOVAs were conducted with the purpose of evaluating the effect exerted upon decision-making styles by study participants' respective generations. The following represents the findings achieved in each of the five analyses conducted in evaluating the effect exerted by study participant generation upon decision-making styles:

Rational Style

The finding for the "rational" style of decision-making was nonstatistically significant (F (2, 214) = 0.60, p = .55), indicating that the differences in the decision-making style of "rational" among the levels of study participant generation were all similar (Table 15). The main effect of study participant generation was nonstatistically significant (F (2, 214) = 0.60, p = .55), indicating there were no statistically significant differences in the decision-making style of "rational" by the levels of study participant generation. The means and standard deviations of the ANOVA are presented in Table 15.

Table 15

ANOVA Summary Table: Rational Decision-Making Style by Generation

Model	*SS*	*df*	*F*	*p*	$\eta_p 2$
Generation	0.51	2	0.60	.55	0.01
Residuals	90.79	214			

Table 16

Summary Table: Mean, Standard Deviation, and Sample Size for the "Rational" Decision-Making Style by Generation of Study Participant

Generation	*M*	*SD*	*n*
First Generation	3.25	0.67	66
Second Generation	3.19	0.67	94
Third Generation	3.30	0.60	57

Intuitive Style

The finding for the "intuitive" style of decision-making was nonstatistically significant (F (2, 214) = 0.20, p = .82), indicating that the differences in the "intuitive" decision-making style among the levels of study participant generation were all similar (Table 17). The main effect, study participant generation was nonstatistically significant (F (2, 214) = 0.20, p = .82), indicating no statistically significant differences in the decision-making style of "intuitive" by levels of student participant generation. The means and standard deviations of the ANOVA are presented in Table 17.

Table 17

ANOVA Summary Table: Intuitive Decision-Making Styles by Generation of Study Participant

Model	*SS*	*df*	*F*	*p*	$\eta_p 2$
Generation	0.10	2	0.20	.82	0.00
Residuals	55.15	214			

Table 18

Summary Table: Mean, Standard Deviation, and Sample Size for the Intuitive Decision-Making Style by Generation of Study Participant

Generation	*M*	*SD*	*n*
First Generation	2.74	0.54	66
Second Generation	2.79	0.49	94
Third Generation	2.76	0.51	57

Dependent Style

The finding for the "dependent" style of decision-making was nonstatistically significant (F (2, 213) = 0.80, p = .45), indicating that the differences in the "dependent" decision-making style among the levels of study participant generation levels were all similar (Table 19). The main effect, study participant generation, was nonstatistically significant (F (2, 213) = 0.80, p = .45), indicating no statistically significant differences in the decision-making style of "dependent" by levels of study participant generation. The means and standard deviations of the ANOVA are presented in Table 19.

Table 19

ANOVA Summary Table: Dependent Decision-Making Style by Generation of Study Participant

Model	*SS*	*df*	*F*	*p*	$\eta_p 2$
Generation	0.45	2	0.80	.451	0.01
Residuals	59.46	213			

Table 20

Summary Table: Mean, Standard Deviation, and Sample Size for the Dependent Decision-Making Style by Generation of Study Participant

Generation	*M*	*SD*	*n*
First Generation	2.59	0.50	66
Second Generation	2.53	0.55	93
Third Generation	2.47	0.53	57

Avoidant Style

The finding for the "avoidant" style of decision-making was nonstatistically significant (F (2, 212) = 0.74, p = .48), indicating that the differences in the "avoidant" decision-making style among the levels of student participant generation were all similar (Table 21). The main effect, study participant generation, was nonstatistically significant (F (2, 212) = 0.74, p = .48), indicating no statistically significant differences in the "avoidant" decision-making style by levels of study participant decision-making style. The means and standard deviations of the ANOVA are presented in Table 21.

Table 21

ANOVA Summary Table: Avoidant Decision-Making Style by Generation of Study Participant

Model	*SS*	*df*	*F*	*p*	$\eta_p 2$
Generation	0.37	2	0.74	.479	0.01
Residuals	53.26	212			

Table 22

Summary Table: Mean, Standard Deviation, and Sample Size for the Avoidant Decision-Making Style by Generation of Study Participant

Generation	*M*	*SD*	*n*
First Generation	2.84	0.47	66
Second Generation	2.74	0.52	93
Third Generation	2.79	0.51	56

Spontaneous Style

The finding for the "spontaneous" style of decision-making was nonstatistically significant (F (2, 211) = 0.12, p = .89), indicating that the differences in the "spontaneous" decision-making style among the levels of study participant generation were all similar (Table 23). The main effect, study participant generation, was nonstatistically significant (F (2, 211) = 0.12, p = .89), indicating no statistically significant differences in the decision-making style of "spontaneous" by levels of study participant generation. The means and standard deviations of the ANOVA are presented in Table 23.

Table 23

ANOVA Summary Table: Spontaneous Decision-Making Style by Generation of Study Participant

Model	*SS*	*df*	*F*	*p*	$\eta_p 2$
Generation	0.06	2	0.12	.89	0.00
Residuals	54.05	211			

Table 24

Summary Table: Mean, Standard Deviation, and Sample Size for the Spontaneous Decision-Making Style by Generation of Study Participant

Generation	*M*	*SD*	*n*
First Generation	2.67	0.49	64
Second Generation	2.64	0.52	94
Third Generation	2.67	0.50	56

H1a stated: There is a statistically significant effect for decision-making styles among first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanics. Considering the nonstatistically significant effect for decision-making styles by generation of study participant, the alternative research hypothesis in RQ1 was rejected. H1b stated: There is a statistically significantly higher level of rational decision-making style compared to intuitive decision-making style among second- and third-plus-generation Hispanics. Considering the nonstatistically significant effect for decision-making styles of "rational" and "intuitive" by generation of study participant (second and third generations), the alternative research hypothesis under RQ2 was rejected.

Research Question 2

The second research question was: Is there a statistically significant interaction effect for study participant gender and generation upon decision-making styles? The researcher conducted a factorial multivariate analysis of variance (2 x 3 MANOVA) to determine whether there are statistically significant differences in the linear combination of the decision-making styles of "rational," "intuitive," "dependent," "avoidant," and "spontaneous" between the levels of study participant gender and generation. The interaction effect between student participant gender

and generation was nonstatistically significant (F (10, 404) = 1.26, p = .25, η^2p = 0.03), indicating that the linear combination of the decision-making styles was similar for each factor level combination of participant gender and generation. The main effect for study participant gender was nonstatistically significant (F (5, 201) = 0.62, p = .69, η^2p = 0.02), indicating that the linear combination of the decision-making styles was similar for each level of study participant gender. The main effect for study participant generation was nonstatistically significant (F (10, 404) = 1.24, p = .26, η^2p = 0.03), indicating that the linear combination of the decision-making styles was similar for each level of study participant generation. A summary of the factorial MANOVA results is contained in Table 25.

Table 25

MANOVA Summary Table: Decision-Making Styles of Rational, Intuitive, Dependent, Avoidant, and Spontaneous by Gender and Generation of Study Participant

Source	Pillai	*F*	*df*	Residual df	*p*	η_p2
Gender	0.02	0.62	5	201	.69	0.02
Generation	0.06	1.24	10	404	.26	0.03
Gender x Generation	0.06	1.26	10	404	.25	0.03

H1a was: There is a statistically significant interaction effect for study participant gender and generation upon decision-making styles. Considering the nonstatistically significant interaction effect for decision-making styles by gender and generation of study participants, the alternative research hypothesis for RQ2 was rejected.

Summary

Chapter 4 contained the reporting of the findings uncovered in the study. The population for this study was Hispanic pastors and leaders of the Assemblies of God fellowship (n = 226), with the focus of this dissertation being to determine whether there is a statistically significant effect for generation upon decision-making styles. The secondary focus was to determine whether there is a statistically significant interaction effect for study participant gender and generation upon

decision-making styles. Three hypotheses were presented and tested for viability in correlation to the first and second research questions. The results of the final analysis revealed that there was nonstatistically significant (F (10, 410) = 0.96, p = .48, $\eta^2 p$ = 0.02). A similar finding for the secondary study question in that the main effect for study participant generation was nonstatistically significant (F (10, 404) = 1.24, p = .26, $\eta^2 p$ = 0.03). Congruently, the three hypotheses for Research Questions 1 and 2 were rejected considering the nonstatistically significant interaction effect.

Chapter 5 – Discussion

Conceptually, every individual has a particular set of protocols and tendencies when making a decision (Arroba, 1977; Driver, 1979; Thunholm, 2004). Lunenburg (2010) posited that the decision-making process and the variables that lead to the final decision are among the most significant factors in organizational and individual praxis. Although decision-making—and, by extension, decision-making styles—has grown in popularity among researchers, minimal quantitative analysis has been constructed or completed on the numerically most significant minority (i.e., the Hispanic community) in the United States from a leadership framework. In seeking to understand such tendencies and from a leadership construct, the primary intention of this quantitative study was to examine the decision-making styles of first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanics in the United States. The secondary aim of this research study was to determine whether there is a significant effect on the gender and decision-making styles of participants. This decision-making style theory advancement was accomplished by conducting a survey-based analysis (i.e., GDMS; Scott & Bruce, 1995) of pastors and leaders of the AG Hispanic districts. In this chapter, the researcher further discusses the answers to the two research questions, as well as the associated professional practice implications, limitations, and implications for future research.

Findings in Research Questions

The research was influenced by cultural diversity (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede et al., 2010), centered on decision-making styles (Scott & Bruce, 1995; Thunholm, 2004), generational differences (McKeever & Klineberg, 1999), and Hispanic Pastors and leaders of the Assemblies of God Hispanic districts. *Decision-making* is the process of choosing from several alternatives to achieve a desired outcome (Edwards, 1954; Lunenburg, 2010). *Decision-making style* is the habitual framework an individual uses when making a decision[s] (Phillips et al., 1984; Scott & Bruce, 1995). The decision-making styles of first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanic leaders were assessed using the General Decision-Making Style (GDMS) survey instrument (Scott & Bruce, 1995). The five categories are

rational decision-making style, intuitive decision-making style, dependent decision-making style, avoidant decision-making style, and spontaneous decision-making style (see Table 2).

Research Question 1

Research Question 1, *Is there a statistically significant effect for generation upon decision-making styles?*, was constructed to ascertain the decision-making styles of the first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanic pastors and leaders in the United States. The data analysis showed that the main effect for study participant generation was nonstatistically significant (F (10, 410) = 0.96, p = .48, $\eta^2 p$ = 0.02), indicating that the linear combination of the decision-making styles rational, intuitive, dependent, avoidant, and spontaneous was similar for each level of for study participant respective generation (see Tables 15–16), which means that among the Hispanic generations, there is a similarity in selection to each of the five decision-making styles proposed by Scott and Bruce (1995) across all generations. Further, as part of the analysis, the researcher hypothesized in two parts that (H1a) there would be a statistically significant effect for decision-making styles among first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanics, and second that (H1b) there would be statistically significantly higher level of rational decision-making style compared to intuitive decision-making style among second- and third-plus-generation Hispanics. The relationship of H1a was found to be nonstatistically significant. Thus, the alternative research hypothesis in RQ1 was rejected. For H1b, generation was found to have a nonstatistically significant effect on decision-making styles of "rational" and "intuitive" by generation of study participant (second and third generations); thus, the alternative research hypothesis in RQ2 was rejected.

The current findings did not correlate with how the researcher perceived the influence of gender, culture, ideology, and generation-impacted decision-making styles in the United States. Further, the results did not align with the overwhelming literature that describes the significant role that gender, culture, ideology, and generation in the United States serve as a point of divergence among Hispanic individuals—at least, in the context of the population examined in this study (see:

Berry, 2005; Gushue et al., 2006; Masgoret & Ward, 2006; Molokwu et al., 2017). Another finding of note was that even the role of language preference (i.e., English, Spanish, Spanglish) did not have an impact on preference toward a rational decision-making style (see Tables 3 and 6).

Research Question 2

Research Question 2 was constructed to ascertain whether there is a *statistically significant interaction effect for study participant gender and generation upon decision-making styles*. The interaction effect between student participant gender and generation was nonstatistically significant (F (10, 404) = 1.26, p = .25, η^2p = 0.03), indicating that the linear combination of the decision-making styles of "rational," "intuitive," "dependent," "avoidant," and "spontaneous" was similar for each factor level combination of participant gender and generation. The main effect for study participant gender was nonstatistically significant (F (5, 201) = 0.62, p = .69, η^2p = 0.02), indicating that the linear combination of the decision-making styles was similar for each level of study participant gender. As part of the analysis, the researcher hypothesized (H1a) that there would be a statistically significant interaction effect for study participant gender and generation upon decision-making styles. Considering the nonstatistically significant interaction effect for decision-making styles by gender and generation of study participant, the alternative research hypothesis in RQ2 was rejected.

Solidifying the narrative findings of RQ1, RQ2 equally confirmed that the addition of variables of gender and generation correlated with this population's propensity toward a rational decision-making style. Given that the findings identified in RQ1 and RQ2 serve as significant and foundational to the furtherance of decision-making style and generation theory, there are still many areas for future study, some of which are presented in the following sections.

Implications

The findings of this study expand the knowledge of decision-making styles and generational theory from the pastor's and leader's perspectives within the context of the local and denominational churches of the Assemblies of God

Fellowship. It is essential to highlight that this study was not an ecclesiastical response to decision-making styles. Instead, the population was recruited due to personal relationships and accessibility (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018). As such, the researcher recommends that the participants in this study be acknowledged as organizational leaders who make significant administrative and team decisions daily (Galbraith, 2014; Ormiston et al., 2021).

Practical Implications

Given the overwhelming data confirming the rational decision-making style as the preferred method for making decisions, it is essential to offer some practical constructs with correlative definitions of decision-making to understand rational decision-making better. Researchers have generally concurred that decision-making is among the most critical activities in which an individual or team engages (Lunenburg, 2010; March, 1994; Schoenfeld, 2010). Within organizational praxis, there are very few—if any—goals, objectives, and missional elements that do not start with a decision-making process. Given the significant role of decision-making styles in decision-making, it is vital to examine the preferred style among the population studied here: rational decision-making (see Table 4). Therefore, it is prudent to present a better understanding of the rational construct and a practical application model to be applied in a real-world context.

Decision-making style is the habitual framework an individual uses when making a decision[s] (Phillips et al., 1984; Scott & Bruce, 1995)**.** March (1994) claimed that rational decision-making is understood from several perspectives. This scholar ascertained that rational decision-making is a measure of intelligence, success, fact-driven, and a process toward action. March designed four central questions to answer when deciding:

1. What are the alternatives?
2. What are the expectations?
3. What are the consequences? and
4. How is a decision to be made among the alternatives? (see Figure 5)

Figure 5

March's (1994) Decision-Making Framework

Note. Adapted from March, J. G. (1994). *Primer on decision making: How decisions happen*. Simon & Schuster.

Schoenfeld (2010) constructed a similar preparatory analysis to consider when making a decision. This scholar suggested that one must consider (a) the knowledge base, (b) problem-solving strategies, (c) how well problem-solving resources are managed, and (d) belief in one's ability to make a decision. From a practical perspective, given that the Hispanic population examined here prefers the rational decision-making style, it is crucial that from either a leader or an individual perspective that a methodology such as the ones proposed by March (1994) and Schoenfeld (2010) be used in preparation and analysis of a decision. Once this procedural step is taken, the rational decision-making framework designed by Lunenburg (2010) designed would help guide the decision-making process.

Lunenburg (2010) posited that the rational decision-making construct is best understood as a recycling process with a predefined set of objectives when making a decision. The first stage in the process is to identify the problem. Perhaps self-

explanatory, part of rational thought is to make sure that the individual or the group understands the problem needing to be solved. Second is considering the process of generating alternatives to the problem—that is, what are the variables and the alternative solutions? Third, the individual or group should evaluate the alternative solutions for application viability and merit. Fourth and fifth are the action steps, choosing an alternative and acting on the agreed-upon course of action. The final step is to evaluate the decision. A procedural framework, like the one presented here, is recommended, given that individuals whose primary decision-making style is rational and informed by a "thorough search for and logical evaluation of alternatives" (Scott & Bruce, 1995, p. 820). A leader or an individual needing to make a decision must do the preliminary work of (a) clearly defining the decision needing to be made and (b) utilizing a system such as the one offered by Lunenburg (2010) to navigate the decision-making process. The rationale is that individuals who prefer a rational decision-making style require concise information to inform their decisions.

Theoretical Implications

The results of Research Question 1 differed from those of previous studies focusing on decision-making styles as an individual framework. From this perspective, researchers presumptively concluded that decision-making styles are unique to the individual. Multiple investigators have advanced that the Hispanic population is unique across all socioeconomic, political, educational, and ideological views (R. R. Lopez et al., 2005; Ortiz, 1993; D. R. Sanchez, 2006). Guglani (2016) determined that Hispanics do not think the same, act the same, dress the same, or vote the same. As characterized in Chapter 2, Jepsen (1974a, 1974b) contended that individuals are predisposed toward a particular decision-making behavior. This decision-making behavior is unique to the individual making the decision and creates an individual's methodology for decision-making (Dewberry et al., 2013; Hall et al., 1964; Phillips et al., 1984). Bayram and Aydemir (2017) pointed out that in conjunction with decision-making styles, "personality traits can be conceptualized as a set of stable individual differences in people's motivational reactions to circumstances" (p. 906). Bajwa et al. (2016)

maintained that the characteristics of an individual are not only peripherally connected to an individual's decision-making style, but substantially impact how an individual's decision-making style is constructed and utilized. Dabić et al. (2015) claimed that cultural norms and traditions create differences in an individual's ideologies, values, behaviors, and decision-making styles. Abubakar et al. (2019) conjectured that an individual's decision-making style is a collection of contextual information, individual and collective experience, and the individual's and organization's values. Although the aforementioned research studies were significant and robust in their findings, the conclusions thereof differ from those presented in this study.

Although Hispanic pastors and leaders in the United States were examined through the lenses of generation (i.e., first, second, third-plus), age range (i.e., 18–55 years and older), and gender (male and female), there was congruency across the entire population toward one decision-making style: that of rational decision-making (see Tables 4–6). This contradicts, at least with this sample, the idea that individuals are diverse in cultural backgrounds, personal ideologies, and decision-making styles. The Hispanic pastors and leaders examined in this study statistically go to a rational decision-making style when making decisions. While the results did not support the hypotheses of the study, there is research that supports the findings. Although the hypotheses in the study were supported by literature (see Hofstede et al., 2010; Leonardi & Rodriguez-Lluesma, 2013; Lisak et al., 2016), scholarly findings have indicated a preference for a rational decision-making style. For instance, Hunt et al. (1989) identified an individual's predisposition to analyze and form an intuitive analytical strategy throughout the decision-making process. Spicer and Sadler-Smith (2005) reasoned that decision-making, while diverse, is at its core a cognitive function and processing. When data were collected from a population of military leaders, Thunholm (2009) determined rational as the preferred decision-making style, with dependency being one of the least desirable (see Table 6). A decision-making style framework that aligns with the population examined in this study. Although decision-making styles have been characterized as unique to the individual, empirical data equally suggest that there is a

corresponding commonality among all individuals (de Bruin et al., 2007; Dewberry et al., 2013; Driver, 1979; Lysonski et al., 1996)—specifically, a rational decision-making style as primary in the decision-making process.

Regarding Research Question 2, there is a gap in the literature regarding gender in leadership across Hispanic generations and decision-making styles. For instance, previous scholars have focused primarily on women's decision-making style concerning consumer patterns (see Bae & Miller, 2009; V.-W. Mitchell & Walsh, 2004; Mokhlis & Salleh, 2009; Yang & Chun Wu, 2004). Although research regarding consumer trends and decision-making styles exists in the consumer space, there is little support for ascertaining a tendency in the decision-making style by gender and throughout generations. The findings of RQ2 contribute to the body of literature by identifying a singular trend when measuring decision-making styles by gender and by generation, that of a tendency toward a standard decision-making style by gender, and, by extension, generation (see Table 25). Aligning with the overall construct of this research project, the mediating role of rational decision-making style as the primary framework for making decisions across all categories.

Limitations

A review of the findings identifies significant data points that aid researchers in the decision-making styles of first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanic pastors and leaders of the Assemblies of God in the United States. Despite the abundant data garnered throughout the research process, some limitations make generalizing the findings to other sample populations difficult. The conclusions contained in this study created a new construct from which to understand the congruencies and divergencies in the different decision-making styles among first-, second-, and third-plus-generations. Additionally, this study contributed to the literature by exploring the decision-making styles of a significant minority group in the United States (i.e., first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanics). Furthermore, a quantitative study of this kind had never offered the GDMS in Spanish to a minority group in the United States, as the previous GDMS Spanish version was administered in Spain (del Campo et al., 2016). The research

methodology was experimental, survey-based, and cross-sectional, analyzing a single point in time (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Dullen et al., 2021; Schutt, 2019). As such, it would be prudent for researchers to explore whether decision-making styles change over time.

Congruent with many quantitative research projects, the current study was limited by the population sample, geographical locations, language, and research methodology. The population for this study was recruited from the 16 Hispanic districts of the Assemblies of God, all contained within the continental United States. Although a robust sample group, the sample population was generally made up of local church pastors and leaders of the AG. As such, the participants may bring a bias in answering the survey questions influenced by their religious affiliation and faith narrative. The population and the resulting findings were limited to a predetermined subgroup of the general Hispanic population in the United States, restricting the opportunity for the conclusions to be generalized to another people group. As such, future researchers may want to administer the Spanish version of the GDMS to other Spanish-dominant countries (i.e., Mexico, Central America, South America). Applying the survey instrument to a more significant population would allow researchers to determine whether there are any differences in a preferred decision-making style.

In order to establish the decision-making styles of first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanics, the GDMS survey was sent to the national office of AG, which was then distributed to the sixteen district superintendents. Given that the 16 Hispanic districts are located throughout the United States, these procedural steps, while necessary, created a limitation in that access was not granted to a mass email list, and, as such, regular follow-up with the participants in the form of reminders was not possible. As a result, extending the 2-week collection period to 1 month was necessary. It is difficult to conclusively articulate the extent to which the limitation of lack of direct access to all participants would have affected the participation rate. Creswell and Creswell (2018) argued that an essential component of quantitative research methodology is clear and consistent communication with all participants. Future researchers may request direct email lists to participants as

part of the request process. This access would create an opportunity for a more streamlined communication mechanism.

Another limitation of this research is that surveying Hispanics in the United States is complicated and has inherent challenges (Evans et al., 2008; Kleiner et al., 2009; Rubenstein, 2015). As noted by Rubenstein (2015), the Hispanic population in the United States is diverse in language, culture, and ideological perspective, resulting in the need for the survey to be submitted in both English and Spanish. While necessary, the addition of multiple languages brings limitations predicated on language selection, comfort with translated terms on the part of the participants, and possible misunderstanding of terminology (Evans et al., 2008; Kleiner et al., 2009). Another limitation of this study is the general mistrust in any survey that could possibly be seen as government-initiated. As Rubenstein (2015) stated, "Studies have shown that Hispanics are more likely to refuse to participate in surveys…this disproportionate refusal rate may in part be driven by a general suspicion of government" (p. 1). Although it was clearly articulated in an email to participants that this was a dissertation research project (see Appendix C, D, and F), there is a general distrust in the survey method that may have resulted in a reduction in participation (Rubenstein, 2015). To mitigate this risk of nonparticipation due to a lack of trust in the survey process, the recommendation of Rubenstein was followed; specifically, the researcher stressed in the introductory email and the informed consent form that all data collected would remain anonymous and that they were part of a randomly selected population (see Appendices C and D).

Yet another limitation centers on presenting the survey and all supporting material in Spanish and English. Although every attempt was made to create an exact correlation between both languages (i.e., first-generation readers and a dissertation committee member with expertise in the Spanish language), there was the probability of something being lost in the translation (Kleiner et al., 2009; Rubenstein, 2015). Perception is particularly complicated by cultural idioms in language usage (Otheguy & Stern, 2011; Peart & Lescher, 2016; Stavans, 2004) and cultural background (Berry, 2005; Wiley et al., 2013) as interpretive filters.

The extent to which terminology, definition of terms, and understanding of ideas expressed in the survey are equally understood is difficult to determine and quantify.

A final limitation was the lack of a question specifically focused on the first generation and years in the United States. A question of this kind may have presented data that clarifies whether years in the United States have changed an individual's decision-making style. Queries or questions examining the impact of years in the United States on decision-making would allow researchers to quantify the effect of decision-making and measure against other generations (i.e., second, third, fourth-plus)—the rationale for which is covered in the next section.

Suggestions for Future Research

Considering implications for future research, several areas are highlighted as a result of the findings and implications, both practical and theoretical. For instance, the researcher postulated that the data was limited in diversification, as the study population only considered Hispanic pastors and leaders. Future researchers may examine what the data would reveal if the population were a different culture and/or minority in the United States (i.e., African American, Vietnamese-American). Although the sample size was sufficient for analysis, it was relatively small (n = 226) and presented overwhelmingly to pastoral faith leaders. Future researchers may want to consider the GDMS survey being made available to a general population of Hispanics outside the ecclesiastical setting. Future researchers may want to make the survey instrument available to medium to large organizations. This perspective is analogous to the analysis accomplished by Hofstede (2001, 2011) on the employees of the IBM Corporation. Other multicultural theorists (Ferdman & Deane, 2013; Gardenswartz & Rowe, 2003; Lisak et al., 2016) may find it prudent to measure the GDMS in a multicultural setting such as a community group, city or school to ascertain whether there is generalized congruency to the findings presented in this project.

When considering the differences in the decision-making styles among first-generation, second-generation, and third-plus-generation Hispanics in the United States, another opportunity to clarify the paradox is presented. Within the first-

generation Hispanic community in the United States, variables of interest are predicated on how long the first-generation Hispanic immigrant has lived in the United States. For example, Cristancho et al. (2014) sought to understand the preferred communication of health information in the United States. Hispanic community. Owens and Lynch (2012) sought to understand whether first-generation Hispanic immigrants were impacted by generalized immigrant stereotypes more than other minorities in the United States. Potochnick and Perreira (2010) conducted a correlational study to explore the implications and possible correlation between being a first-generation immigrant and accelerated depression and anxiety among Latino youth. They discovered that the first years spent in the United States are some of the most challenging during acculturation (Baldwin-White et al., 2017; Berry, 1992; Cano et al., 2012; E. Romero, 2004). Identifying unique qualities and challenges in the Hispanic community predicated on how long they have been in the United States. Yet, there is a need to examine the association of and predictive effect for years that the first-generation Hispanics have lived in the United States and their decision-making style. Future research may explore to what degree study participants' years living in the United States associate and predict the decision-making styles of first-generation Hispanic immigrants.

Future researchers may examine the extended generations of Hispanics, specifically, the decision-making styles of third-, fourth-, and fifth-generation Hispanics individually and as a group. Although it is generally accepted that after the third generation, the following generations are thoroughly acculturated as Americans (Alba et al., 2002; Pivovarova & Powers, 2019; Vasquez, 2011), there may be a correlation between generations regarding intuitive and rational decision-making styles congruently, as the third-plus-generation Hispanics are influenced by their socio-generation moniker (i.e., Millennials, Generation Z, and Generational Alpha), it may be of interest to identify possible decision-making patterns among specific socio-generation of Hispanics.

Summary

In summary, the current researcher aimed to ascertain whether there is a difference in the decision-making styles of first-, second-, and third-plus-generation Hispanics in the United States. A secondary objective was to establish the presence of a significant interaction effect for the participants regarding gender and generation. The findings of previous studies were incongruent with the data contained in this study, in that there is a consistent narrative in the literature that variables such as generation, gender, cultural background, and language preference informed differentiated decision-making styles among Hispanic individuals (see: Stahl, Mäkelä, et al., 2010; Stahl, Maznevski, et al., 2010). This dichotomy between the literature and the findings contained in this study was unexpected, yet yielded an opportunity to present a myriad of practical applications and suggestions for future research topics. In this way, the findings of this study contributed significantly to addressing a gap in the literature regarding decision-making styles and generational theory.

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Appendix A

Demographic Profile Questions (English)

1	Age: Under 18, 18-24 years old, 25-34 years old, 25-34 years old, 35-44 years old, 45-54 years old, Over 55
2	Gender: Male or Female
3	Are you of Hispanic/Latino[a] descent? Yes, No
4	Do you prefer to speak in English or Spanish?
5	What Generation Hispanic/Latino[a] are you in the United States: First-Generation (born outside the United States, and the primary language is Spanish), Second-Generation (born in the United States with at least one foreign-born parent), Third-Plus-Generation (born in the United States, both parents born in the United States as well)

The GDMS Items (English)

R1	I plan my important decisions carefully.
R2	I double-check my information sources to be sure I have the right facts before making decisions.
R3	I make decisions in a logical and systematic way.
R4	My decisions making requires careful thought.
R5	When making a decision, I consider various options in terms of a specific goal.
I1	When making decisions, I rely upon my instincts.
I2	When I make decisions, I tend to rely on my intuition.
I3	I generally make decisions that feel right to me.
I4	When I make a decision, it is more important for me to feel the decision is right than to have a rational reason for it.
I5	When I make a decision, I trust my inner feelings and reactions.
D1	I often need the assistance of other people when making important decisions.
D2	I rarely make important decisions without consulting other people.

D3	If I have the support of others, it is easier for me to make important decisions.
D4	I use the advice of other people in making my important decisions.
D5	I like to have someone steer me in the right direction when I am faced with important decisions.
A1	I avoid making important decisions until the pressure is on.
A2	I postpone decision-making whenever possible.
A3	I often procrastinate when it comes to making important decisions.
A4	I generally make important decisions at the last minute.
A5	I put off making many decisions because thinking about them makes me uneasy.
S1	I generally make snap decisions.
S2	I generally make snap decisions.
S3	I make quick decisions.
S4	I often make impulsive decisions.
S5	When making decisions, I do what seems natural at the moment.

Note. (R) = Rational, (I) = Intuitive, (D) = Dependent, (A) = Avoidant, (S) = Spontaneous styles (Scott & Bruce, 1995; Thunholm, 2009)

Appendix B

Demographic Questions Translated from English to Spanish

Item	English	Spanish
1	Age: Under 18, 18-24 years old, 25-34 years old, 25-34 years old, 35-44 years old, 45-54 years old, Over 55	Edades: Menor de 18 | 18-24 años de edad | 25-34 años de edad | 25-34 años de edad | 35-44 años de edad | 45-54 años de edad | mayor de 55 años de edad
2	Gender: Male or Female	Género: Masculino o Femenino
3	Are you of Hispanic/Latino[a] descent? Yes, No	¿Eres de ascendencia hispana/latina[a]? Sí, No
4	Do you prefer to speak in English or Spanish? English, Spanish	¿Prefieres hablar en Inglés o Español? Inglés, Español
5	What Generation Hispanic/Latino[a] are you in the United States: First-Generation (born outside the United States, and the primary language is Spanish), Second-Generation (born in the United States with at least one foreign-born parent), Third-Plus-Generation (born in the United States, both parents born in the United States as well)	¿Qué generación hispana/latino[a] eres en los Estados Unidos?: Primera generación (nacida fuera de los Estados Unidos, y el idioma principal es el español), Segunda generación (nacida en los Estados Unidos con al menos un padre nacido en el extranjero), Tercera generación o más (nacida en los Estados Unidos, ambos padres nacidos en los Estados Unidos también)

The GDMS Translated Items from English to Spanish

Item	English	Spanish
R1	I plan my important decisions carefully.	Planifico mis decisiones importantes con cuidado
R2	I double-check my information sources to be sure I have the right facts before making decisions.	Verifico varias veces mis fuentes de informacıóon para estar seguro de que tengo los datos correctos antes de tomar una decisıón
R3	I make decisions in a logical and systematic way.	Tomo decisiones de forma lógica y sistemática
R4	My decisions making requires careful thought.	Tomar una decisión requiere pensarlo cuidadosamente
R5	When making a decision, I consider various options in terms of a specific goal.	Para tomar una decisión, evalúo varias opciones segun el objetivo específico
I1	When making decisions, I rely upon my instincts.	En la toma de deciciones me fió de mis instintos
I2	When I make decisions, I tend to rely on my intuition.	Cuando se trata de tomar deciciones, me baso en mis instintos
I3	I generally make decisions that feel right to me.	Normalmente tomo decisiones que siento que son correctas
I4	When I make a decision, it is more important for me to feel the decision is right than to have a rational reason for it.	Cuando tomo una decisıón es más importante para mí sentir que la decision es correcta que tener una razon racional para ella
I5	When I make a decision, I trust my inner feelings and reactions.	Al tomar una decisión,me fió de mis sentimientos internos y reacciones

D1	I often need the assistance of other people when making important decisions.	Con frecuencia necesito la ayuda de otras personas cuando tomo decisiones importantes
D2	I rarely make important decisions without consulting other people.	Raramente tomo decisiones importantes sin consultar otras personas
D3	If I have the support of others, it is easier for me to make important decisions.	Si tengo el apoyo de otro, me resulta más fácil poder tomar decisiones importantes
D4	I use the advice of other people in making my important decisions.	Recibo el consejo de otras personas a la hora de tomar decisiones importantes
D5	I like to have someone steer me in the right direction when I am faced with important decisions.	Me gusta tener a alguien que me dirija en la dirección correcta cuando me enfrento a decisiones importantes
A1	I avoid making important decisions until the pressure is on.	Evito tomar decisiones importantes hasta que me siento presionado
A2	I postpone decision-making whenever possible.	Pospongo tomar decisiones siempre que me es posible
A3	I often procrastinate when it comes to making important decisions.	Con frecuencia retraso el momento de tomar decisiones importantes
A4	I generally make important decisions at the last minute.	Normalmente tomo las decisiones importantes en el último momento
A5	I put off making many decisions because thinking about them makes me uneasy.	Retraso la toma de muchas decisiones porque pensar en ellas me inquieta
S1	I generally make snap decisions.	Generalmente tomo decisiones sin pensarlo mucho

S2	I often make decisions on the spur of the moment.	Con frecuencia tomo decisiones sin pensarlo
S3	I make quick decisions.	Tomo decisiones muy rápido
S4	I often make impulsive decisions.	Con frecuencia tomo decisiones impulsivas
S5	When making decisions, I do what seems natural at the moment.	Cuando tomo decisiones hago lo que me parece logico en ese momento

Note. (R) = Rational, (I) = Intuitive, (D) = Dependent, (A) = Avoidant, (S) = Spontaneous styles (del Campo et al., 2016; Scott & Bruce, 1995; Thunholm, 2009)

Appendix C

Informed Consent in English

Informed Consent

Please read this form and ask any questions before agreeing to participate in the survey.

Title of Study:

Evaluation of the Hispanic Paradox: Conceptualized Through the Lens of Generational Decision-Making Styles of First, Second, and Third-Plus Hispanic Leaders

Principal Investigator:

Rev. Daniel de León, Jr
Doctoral Candidate in Organizational Leadership – Southeastern University
2501 W. 5th St. Santa Ana, CA. 92703
714-936-0136
ddeleonjr@seu.edu

Background Information:

The survey aims to examine the differences in decision-making styles of first, second, and third-plus-generation Hispanic pastors and leaders in the Assemblies of God fellowship. Second, the relationship between time lived in the United States and the decision-making styles among first-generation Hispanic pastors and leaders.

Procedures:

If you agree, you will be asked to participate in a survey lasting approximately 10 to 15 minutes.

Voluntary Nature of the Survey:

Your participation in this interview is voluntary. This statement means that everyone will respect your decision of whether you want to participate in the survey or not. You may decline to answer any or all questions and terminate your involvement at any time if you choose.

Risks:

There is a minimal risk of psychological stress during this survey. If you feel stressed during the survey, you may stop anytime.

Compensation:

There is no compensation for participating in this interview.

Confidentiality:

Any information you provide will be kept confidential. The researcher will not use your information for any purposes outside of the research project. Also, the researcher will not include your name or anything else that could identify you in any reports.

Contacts and Questions:

The researcher's name is Rev. Daniel de León, Jr. The researcher's dissertation chair is Dr. Joshua Henson. You may ask any questions you have now. Or, if you have questions later, you may contact the researcher via email at ddeleonjr@seu.edu or the dissertation chair at jdhenson@seu.edu.

If you want to communicate privately about your rights as a participant, you can contact Dr. Jennifer Carter, the Chair of the Southeastern University Ph.D./DSL programs, at jlcarter@seu.edu.

Appendix D

Informed Consent Form in Spanish

Forma de Consentimiento:

Por favor lea este formulario y realice alguna pregunta que tenga antes de aceptar participar y proceder con la encuesta.

Título del estudio:

Evaluación de la Paradoja Hispana: Conceptualizada a través de la lente de los estilos generacionales de toma de decisiones de primer, segundo, tercer y siguientes líderes hispanos

Investigador Principal:

Reverendo Daniel de León, Jr. Candidato de Doctorando en Liderazgo Organizacional – Southeastern University
2501 W. 5th St. Santa Ana, CA. 92703
714-936-0136
ddeleonjr@seu.edu

Información de Trasfondo:

La encuesta tiene como objetivo examinar las diferencias en los estilos de toma de decisiones de los pastores y líderes hispanos de primera, segunda y tercera generación en la comunidad de las Asambleas de Dios. En segundo lugar, la relación entre el tiempo vivido en los Estados Unidos y los estilos de toma de decisiones entre los pastores y líderes hispanos de primera generación.

Procedimientos:

Si está de acuerdo, se le pedirá que participe en una encuesta que durará aproximadamente de 10 a 15 minutos.

Carácter Voluntario de la Encuesta:

Su participación en esta encuesta es voluntaria. Esta declaración significa que se respetara su decisión ya sea que decida participar en la encuesta o no. Puede negarse a responder alguna o todas las preguntas y terminar su participación en cualquier momento si así lo desea.

Riesgos:

Existe un riesgo mínimo de estrés psicológico durante esta encuesta. Si se siente estresado durante la encuesta, puede detenerse en cualquier momento.

Compensación:

No hay compensación por participar en esta entrevista.

Confidencialidad:

Cualquier información que proporcione se mantendrá en confidencialidad. El investigador no utilizará su información para ningún propósito fuera del proyecto de investigación. Además, el investigador no incluirá su nombre ni ninguna otra cosa que pueda identificarlo en ningún documento.

Contactos y Preguntas:

El nombre del investigador es el reverendo Daniel de León, Jr. El presidente de tesis del investigador es el Dr. Joshua Henson. Puede realizar cualquier pregunta que tenga ahora. Y si llega a tener preguntas más adelante, puede comunicarse con el investigador por correo electrónico a ddeleonjr@seu.edu o con el presidente de disertación al correo jdhenson@seu.edu. Si desea comunicarse de manera privada para hablar acerca de sus derechos como participante, puede contactar a la Dra. Jennifer Carter, presidenta de los programas de Doctorado / DSL de Southeastern University, en jlcarter@seu.edu.

Appendix E

Participants Introduction Email (English)

SUBJECT LINE: Your voice matters!

Greetings in the name of our Lord!

My name is Rev. Danny de León, Jr., an ordained minister of the Southern Pacific District, Assemblies of God. I am reaching out to you today because I am pursuing a Ph.D. in Organizational Leadership and need your help. Given that your voice matters, I invite you to contribute to scientific research by completing this anonymous survey.

This study examines the decision-making styles of first, second, and third-plus-generation Hispanic Assembly of God Pastors and Leaders in the United States. After the demographic questions, you will complete a total of 25 multiple-choice (Likert scale) items. Please select the choice that most closely reflects your actions, behaviors, or beliefs about decision-making. This simple survey will take 5-10 minutes to complete. It is best to complete the survey in one sitting and answer all the questions; only complete surveys can be used in the study.

Your voluntary, anonymous response will be beneficial to this research study; thank you. There is minimal risk and no compensation for participating. The full informed consent details are attached. Please get in touch with me with any questions. Please know that our National Hispanic Director, your District Superintendent, and Southeastern's Institutional Review Board (IRB) have reviewed and approved this survey; however, the results are for my dissertation study and will not be shared with anyone.

Click: **https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/8XHVYY2** to access the survey. By clicking the survey link, you indicate your consent to participate; this email is your copy of the informed consent.

Thank you very much for your time and input!

In His service and yours,

Rev. Danny de León, Jr. (Doctoral Candidate, Ph.D. in Organizational Leadership, Southeastern University)

Appendix F

Participants Introduction Email (Spanish)

SUBJECT LINE: ¡Tu voz es importante!

¡Saludos en el nombre de nuestro Señor!

Soy Danny de León, Jr., un Ministro Ordenado del Distrito del Pacífico Sur, Asambleas de Dios. La razón por la que me comunico con usted hoy es porque estoy cursando para un doctorado en Liderazgo Organizacional y necesito su ayuda. Dado a que su voz importa, le invito a contribuir a la investigación científica completando esta encuesta anónima.

Este estudio examina los estilos de toma de decisiones de Pastores y líderes hispanos de la Asamblea de Dios de primera, segunda y tercera generación en los Estados Unidos.

Después de las preguntas demográficas, completará una encuesta de tres partes, cada parte en una sección separada, para un total de 25 preguntas de opción múltiple (escala Likert). Seleccione la opción que más se acerque a sus acciones, comportamientos o creencias sobre la toma de decisiones. Esta encuesta se tomará de 5 a 10 minutos en completarse. Se sugiere completar la encuesta en el mismo momento que decide responder el cuestionario y responder cada pregunta; Solo se pueden usar encuestas completas en el estudio.

Su respuesta voluntaria y anónima será increíblemente útil para este estudio de investigación, y de ante mano le agradezco tanto por su apoyo. Hay un riesgo mínimo y no hay compensación por participar. Adjunto están los detalles completos del consentimiento. Por favor, póngase en contacto conmigo si tiene alguna pregunta.

Tenga en cuenta que nuestro Director Nacional Hispano, su Superintendente de Distrito y la Junta de Revisión Institucional (IRB) del Sureste han revisado y aprobado esta encuesta. Sin embargo, los resultados son para mi estudio de tesis y no se compartirán con nadie.

Presione aquí: **https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/QWGG6QF** para acceder a la encuesta. Al presionar en el enlace de la encuesta, usted estará indicando su

consentimiento para participar. Este correo electrónico sirve como su copia del consentimiento informado.

¡Muchas gracias por su tiempo y aportación!

Al servicio de Dios y el suyo,

Reverendo Danny de León, Jr. (Doctoral Candidate, PhD in Organizational Leadership, Southeastern University)

Appendix G

IRB Approval Letter

SOUTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY

NOTICE OF APPROVAL FOR HUMAN RESEARCH

DATE:	July 05, 2023
TO:	Daniel de Leon, Joshua Henson
FROM:	SEU IRB
PROTOCOL TITLE:	Generational Decision-Making Styles among Generations of Hispanic Leaders
FUNDING SOURCE:	NONE
PROTOCOL NUMBER:	23 BE 09
APPROVAL PERIOD:	Approval Date: July 05, 2023 Expiration Date: July 04, 2024

Dear Investigator(s),

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) for the protection of human subjects has reviewed the protocol entitled, Generational Decision-Making Styles among Generations of Hispanic Leaders. The project has been approved for the procedures and subjects described in the protocol pending the following changes:

- Please add IRB contact information to the informed consent (irb@seu.edu).

Any changes require approval before they can be implemented as part of your study. If your study requires any changes, the proposed modifications will need to be submitted in the form of an amendment request to the IRB to include the following:

Description of proposed revisions;
If applicable, any new or revised materials;
If applicable, updated letters of approval from cooperating institutions

If there are any adverse events and/or any unanticipated problems during your study, you must notify the IRB within 24 hours of the event or problem.

At present time, there is no need for further action on your part with the IRB.

This approval is issued under Southeastern University's Federal Wide Assurance 00006943 with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP). If you have any questions regarding your obligations under the IRB's Assurance, please do not hesitate to contact us.

Sincerely,

Rustin Lloyd
Chair, Institutional Review Board
irb@seu.edu