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Department of Business Administration

THE IMPACT OF TECHNO-STRESS ON INTRAPRENEURSHIP: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF DECISION-MAKING STYLES

Master Thesis

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Turkish Abstract	**:**	Günümüzün hızla değişen dijital dönüşüm çağında, yüksek teknolojiye sahip organizasyonlar, yeniliği teşvik etmek ve rekabet avantajını sürdürmek amacıyla gelişmiş bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerine (BİT) giderek daha fazla bağımlı hale gelmektedir. Ancak, bu teknolojilerin sürekli benimsenmesi, çalışanların bilişsel işlevleri ve davranışsal tepkileri üzerinde önemli sonuçlar doğuran yeni bir mesleki stres türü olan teknoloji stresi (technostress) ile sonuçlanmaktadır. Bu araştırma, teknoloji stresinin girişimcilik davranışı (stratejik yenilenme ve girişimcilik davranışı) üzerindeki etkisini ve bu ilişkide karar verme stillerinin (rasyonel ve sezgisel) aracılık rolünü incelemektedir.

Hollanda'da bir yüksek teknoloji firmasında çalışan 330 çalışandan toplanan verilere dayanarak bu çalışma, temel yapılar arasındaki ilişkileri incelemek için Smart PLS 4.0 yazılımını kullanmıştır. Bulgular, teknoloji stresi ve sezgisel karar verme arasında anlamlı ve pozitif bir ilişki olduğunu göstermektedir. Rasyonel karar verme değişkeninde ise hem stratejik yenilenme hem de girişimcilik davranışı arasında olumlu ve pozitif yönde ilişki olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Ayrıca, teknoloji stresi ile girişimciliğin her iki boyutu arasında anlamlı ve negatif bir ilişki olduğu görülmüştür. Son olarak, teknoloji stresi ile iç girişimcilik davranışı arasındaki ilişkide karar verme stillerinin aracılık rolü olmadığı tespit edilmiştir. Bu bulgular, dijital stres kaynaklarının neden olduğu zihinsel yükü azaltmak ve iç girişimcilik girişimlerini destekleyen bir işyeri kültürü oluşturmak isteyen örgüt liderleri için anlamlı çıkarımlar sunmaktadır.

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that in the preparation of this thesis, scientific ethical rules have been followed, the works of other persons have been referenced in accordance with the scientific norms if used, there is no falsification in the used data, any part of the thesis has not been submitted to this university or any other university as another thesis.

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TO ISTANBUL GELISIM UNIVERSITY
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The thesis study of Maha BAYADO titled as The Impact of Techno-stress on Intrapreneurship: The Mediating Role of Decision-Making Styles has been accepted as MASTER THESIS in the Department of Business Administration by our jury.

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ÖZET

Günümüzün hızla değişen dijital dönüşüm çağında, yüksek teknolojiye sahip organizasyonlar, yeniliği teşvik etmek ve rekabet avantajını sürdürmek amacıyla gelişmiş bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerine (BİT) giderek daha fazla bağımlı hale gelmektedir. Ancak, bu teknolojilerin sürekli benimsenmesi, çalışanların bilişsel işlevleri ve davranışsal tepkileri üzerinde önemli sonuçlar doğuran yeni bir mesleki stres türü olan teknoloji stresi (technostress) ile sonuçlanmaktadır. Bu araştırma, teknoloji stresinin girişimcilik davranışı (stratejik yenilenme ve girişimcilik davranışı) üzerindeki etkisini ve bu ilişkide karar verme stillerinin (rasyonel ve sezgisel) aracılık rolünü incelemektedir.

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Anahtar Kelimeler: teknoloji stresi, karar verme stilleri, iç girişimcilik

SUMMARY

In today's rapidly evolving digital transformation era, high-tech organizations are increasingly reliant on advanced information and communication technologies (ICT) to foster innovation and sustain a competitive edge. However, the continuous adoption of these technologies results in a new type of occupational stress known as technostress, which significantly impacts employees' cognitive functions and behavioral responses. This research explores how technostress influences intrapreneurship (strategic renewal and venture behavior), with a specific emphasis on the mediating influence of decision-making styles, particularly rational and intuitive decision-making.

Based on data gathered from 330 employees working in a high-tech firm in the Netherlands, this study employed Smart PLS 4.0 to examine the relationships between key constructs. The results demonstrate that technostress has a positive relationship with intuitive decision-making. Rational decision-making has a positive impact on both strategic renewal and venture behavior. Moreover, technostress negatively impacts both aspects of intrapreneurship. However, decision-making styles did not serve as a mediator in the association between technostress and intrapreneurial behavior. These insights provide meaningful practical implications for organizational leaders seeking to alleviate the mental strain caused by digital stressors and for fostering a workplace culture that supports intrapreneurial initiatives.

Keywords: technostress, decision-making styles, intrapreneurship

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ABBREVIATIONS

TS	**:**	Technostress
ICT	**:**	Information and Communication Technology
IBS	**:**	Irritable Bowel Syndrome
ERP	**:**	Enterprise Resource Planning
R&D	**:**	Research and Development
SEM	**:**	Structural Equation Model
TPB	**:**	Theory of Planned Behavior
PBC	**:**	Perceived Behavioral Control
IS	**:**	Information Systems
IT	**:**	Information Technology
JD-R	**:**	Job-Demands-Resources
GDMS	**:**	General Decision-Making Styles
EIS	**:**	Employee Intrapreneurship Scale
PLS-SEM	**:**	Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling
AVE	**:**	Average Variance Extracted
CR	**:**	Composite Reliability
VIF	**:**	Variance Inflation Factor
HTMT	**:**	Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio

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PREFACE

I would like to express my profound gratitude to my supervisor for his expert guidance and to my family for their unwavering support during this academic journey. Their contributions have been essential to the completion of this work.

To my family, thank you for being my constant source of strength. Your love, patience, and support in every possible way made this journey not only possible but meaningful. I am forever grateful for everything you have done to help me reach this point.

INTRODUCTION

In the modern world, stress has become an unavoidable component of daily life, impacting individuals in both personal and professional domains (Schneiderman et al., 2005). According to the World Health Organization (2022), job stress alone results in an annual worldwide loss of nearly $ 1 trillion in productivity, an economic hardship exacerbated by swift technological advancements. Stress influences both individuals' perceptions and interactions with their surroundings, as well as their decision-making process under high-pressure situations (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Within the organizational setting, Lepine et al. (2005) state that extended exposure to stress correlates with decreased psychological well-being, lower job satisfaction, and poor performance outcomes. The increasing use of digital technologies creates a novel form of workplace stress, technostress, that requires academic study. This introductory section establishes the framework for the discussion that follows by providing an understanding of both traditional stress and its contemporary digital counterpart.

In recent decades, technostress, stress caused by the rapid adoption of new technologies, has become a growing concern in digital workplaces. While technological change is often necessary, it can also overwhelm employees, making technostress a key challenge in modern work settings (Tarafdar et al., 2019). Among the growing kinds of occupational stress, technostress originating from the ongoing integration and use of digital technologies has emerged as a significant issue in modern workplaces, thus posing new difficulties for employees and organizations (Ayyagari et al., 2011). The increasing complexity of contemporary work environments is exemplified by this rising paradox, where digital technology both increases productivity and imposes psychological constraints (Daud, 2025). This duality, technology as both a facilitator of productivity and a source of psychological distress, underscores the necessity to investigate how technostress impacts fundamental organizational competencies like creativity and innovation.

Employees are under increased pressure to handle complex systems, maintain their digital abilities, and balance the increasingly hazy boundaries between work and personal life (Ayyagari et al., 2011; Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008). According to Maier et al. (2015), these ongoing pressures cause cognitive overload, exhaustion, and a feeling

of disengagement with the company. Technostress–induced psychological strain is also linked to mental and physical health problems, such as obesity, musculoskeletal pain, depression, and high blood pressure. For example, a study conducted on Indian IT workers found that over half had depressive symptoms, and 56% had musculoskeletal difficulties (Padma et al., 2015). The extensive effects impact individual health and may hinder critical cognitive functions vital for innovation and decision-making (Sweller, 1988). Therefore, the combination of physical health problems and cognitive overload highlights the necessity of investigating how technostress affects workplace decision-making.

Although these effects are widely recognized, the cognitive consequences of technostress, particularly how it influences the decision-making process, have received relatively little attention in research. According to Yildirim & Elber Börü (2023), technostress has been demonstrated to impede crucial decision-making processes in high-pressure industries like aviation, potentially jeopardising operational effectiveness and safety. This increasing data indicates that technostress can undermine both performance and the strategic reasoning essential for organizational progress.

Effective decision-making plays a vital role in employee performance and innovation, especially in fast-paced environments where strategic thinking and adaptability are crucial for success(Scott & Bruce, 1995). The direct effects of technostress on productivity and well-being have been the subject of extensive research (Salanova et al., 2013a; Tarafdar et al., 2015), but less attention has been paid to how technostress affects decision-making styles and how these, in turn, impact intrapreneurial behaviors. Decision-making is an essential part of the managerial position, especially in high-stress situations with cognitive demands and uncertainty (Scott & Bruce, 1995). Techno-stressed workers are more likely to make impulsive or avoidant decisions, which can impair their capacity for strategic thought, creativity, and risk-taking (Wang et al., 2023; Yildirim & Elber Börü, 2023). These inclinations for making decisions contrast with the rational or intuitive methods that are generally associated with impacting intrapreneurship (Cañas et al., 2010; Hodgkinson, 2018).

This underscores the significance of decision-making styles as a psychological pathway through which technostress can either hinder or promote intrapreneurial behaviors (Yildirim & Elber Börü, 2023). Therefore, decision-making styles work as

a psychological mediator, converting the effects of technostress into their restricted or encouraged entrepreneurial behavior in businesses. Examining this mediating function offers important insights into how businesses might improve workers' creative abilities while mitigating the detrimental effects of technostress.

Intrapreneurs, defined as employees' ability to drive innovation from within, advocate for new ideas, and support organizational renewal, depend on cognitive abilities like forward thinking, creativity, and thoughtful risk-taking (Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001) . The mediating role of decision-making styles is especially evident in industries where technological innovation is not only beneficial but essential to long-term competitiveness. In these contexts, intrapreneurship is defined by employee-led innovation and the continuous renewal of organizational strategies (Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001; Ireland et al., 2003) which requires a high degree of proactive thinking, quick adaptation, and initiative in the face of uncertainty.

However, when employees are under technostress, they frequently suffer from cognitive exhaustion and a shift towards reactive, short-term thinking, which can significantly limit their capacity to come up with new ideas or make a meaningful contribution to strategic transformation (Hessari et al., 2024; Thakur & Kumari, 2024). This change from proactive to reactive decision-making impairs the potential to foster an innovative corporate culture, in addition to impeding creative outputs (Amalia & Kramer, 2011). This cognitive exhaustion can undermine the intrapreneurial capabilities that organizations rely on to stay adaptable and resilient in today's fast-changing digital economy (Tarafdar et al., 2019). Consequently, if the psychological toll on employees is not addressed, even companies with well-developed technology infrastructure may find that their ability to innovate is compromised (Arias-Pérez et al., 2021). Thus, managing technostress is a strategic necessity for maintaining innovation and intrapreneurial vigor rather than just a concern for employee well-being.

In an attempt to address this gap, the current study examines how technostress influences intrapreneurial behavior, with decision-making styles serving as a key mediating factor. This study examines how technostress affects intrapreneurial behavior, with a particular focus on how decision-making styles influence this relationship.

The study's fundamental conceptions are introduced in chapter one, which also names intrapreneurship as the dependent variable, decision-making styles as the mediator, and technostress as the independent variable. The second chapter offers a thorough analysis of pertinent ideas and empirical research, pointing out the current investigation. The methodological approach is presented in chapter three, which also describes the use of Smart PLS for statistical analysis and the data gathering procedure carried out in technology–intensive industries. In chapter four, the study explores how changes in decision-making tendencies caused by technostress result in behavioral consequences and presents the findings and their implications. Also, it brings together these insights and provides actionable recommendations for organizations aiming to reduce the cognitive burdens of technostress while nurturing an environment that supports intrapreneurial behavior.

In summary, by examining the relationship among technostress, decision-making styles, and intrapreneurship, this study provides a deeper understanding of how psychological strain influences the ability to innovate within digitally evolving organizations. This study aims to give organizations a better understanding of how technostress impacts decision-making and, in turn, employees' ability to engage in intrapreneurial activities by methodically examining these interrelated variables. This understanding is crucial for finding a balance between the workforce's cognitive adaptability and the rapid advancement of technology, which is becoming more important for organizational resilience and innovation in today's digital economy. By clarifying these intricate relationships, the study not only advances scholarly discussion but also provides useful tactics for promoting sustainable innovation and worker well-being in the digital age.

Objective Of The Study

This study's main objective is to investigate how intrapreneurship, decision-making styles, and technostress interact in organizational contexts. The purpose of this study is to investigate each variable alone and in connection with the others, with an emphasis on the ways in which decision-making styles mediate the relationship between intrapreneurship and technostress. The widespread use of technology in the workplace exposes workers to more stressors, which can hinder their ability to think clearly and act creatively (Ayyagari et al., 2011; Shaukat & Khurshid, 2022).

Therefore, this research explores how an over-reliance on technology leads to technostress and how this impacts workers' capacity to participate in intrapreneurial activities.

An additional goal is to examine the ways in which different decision-making styles impact the relationship between intrapreneurship and technostress. In particular, the study looks at whether some decision-making styles, such as intuitive or rational approaches, can mitigate or even worsen the impacts of technostress (Yildirim & Elber Börü, 2023). Whereas decision-making styles have been extensively researched in behavioral science (Driver et al., 1990), little is known about how they mediate the relationship between intrapreneurial behavior and technostress. According to research, people who possess analytical decision-making abilities may be better able to handle demanding and complicated work settings while preserving their productivity and creativity (Kryscynski et al., 2018).

According to Weil & Rosen (1995), technostress is a type of stress brought on by an inability to handle the demands of information and communication technologies (ICTs) in work environments. When overloaded with digital technologies, workers frequently exhibit behavioral and psychological reactions as weariness, worry, and a decline in job satisfaction (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008). Numerous studies have shown how technostress negatively impacts creativity and job performance, underscoring the urgent need for organizational methods to reduce these effects (Atrian & Ghobbeh, 2023).

For businesses to thrive and keep their competitive edge, intrapreneurship, defined as organizational venture creation and strategic renewal brought by employees, has become essential (Ireland et al., 2003; Morris et al., 2011). Although the literature on technostress and decision-making is expanding (Ayyagari et al., 2011), the research on how these factors interact to affect intrapreneurial behavior is limited. By filling this knowledge gap, the current study hopes to provide a more thorough comprehension of the cognitive and psychological elements influencing intrapreneurship in the contemporary workplace (Gawke et al., 2019; He & Hui, 2020).

CHAPTER ONE

LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. Stress: Definition and Foundational Theories

Stress is a multifaceted construct that has been extensively examined in psychology, health, and organizational behavior. Selye (1956) provided one of the first and most significant definitions of stress, defining it as “the non-specific response of the body to any demand for change”. He subsequently formalized the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) model, delineating three stages —alarm, resistance, and exhaustion — to characterize the physiological course of stress. This approach emphasizes how long-term stress can negatively impact one's physical and mental well-being, possibly resulting in burnout and illness.

The physiological basis of stress entails the activation of the Hypothalamic-Pituitary-Adrenal (HPA) axis, resulting in the release of cortisol and other stress hormones (McEwen, 2007). This biological viewpoint influences psychological effects, while transient stress reactions might boost vitality and concentration, long-term stimulation of this system may adversely impact psychological health, cognitive function, and immune system performance (McEwen, 2007). This is consistent with the Biopsychosocial Model of Stress developed by Cohen et al. (2007), which asserts that stress emerges from the complex interplay among biological, psychological, and social influences. Prolonged stressors, such as heavy workload, and immediate stressors, like forthcoming deadlines, interact with individual predispositions, such as personality traits, to heighten both physiological and psychological stress levels (LePine et al., 2004).

Expanding upon Selye's foundational research, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) presented the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping, which focused on the cognitive appraisal process—that is, how people assess possible stressors and their coping mechanisms. This concept posits that stress arises not just from external circumstances, but also from people's subjective perceptions of them. It entails both secondary evaluation (evaluating potential coping mechanisms) and primary appraisal (determining whether a situation is threatening). This approach underscores individual differences in stress reactions and accentuates the significance of psychological elements, including resilience, self-efficacy, and personality qualities.

Complementing these models, the Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory (Hobfoll, 1989) underscores the significance of personal resources in relation to stress. The Conservation of Resources (COR) theory asserts that individuals endeavor to preserve, safeguard, and cultivate important resources, with stress arising when these resources are endangered or depleted. From this viewpoint, technostress can be perceived as a process of resource exhaustion: frequent ICT demands diminish employees' cognitive and emotional resources, consequently heightening stress levels (Hobfoll, 1989).

Stressors can differ in their duration and form. According to Cohen et al. (2007), they can be divided into three categories: episodic stressors (like recurrent times of heavy workload), chronic stressors (like continuous job instability), and acute stressors (like abrupt deadlines or crises). It is essential to comprehend these differences in organizational settings, as interpersonal and task-related stressors can affect employee outcomes, including motivation, satisfaction, and decision-making (LePine et al., 2004). Furthermore, as technology has advanced, so too has the nature of stress. A new type of stress has arisen as a result of modern work environments' growing reliance on digital infrastructure: technostress. Thus, this shift emphasizes how stress theory needs to be reviewed in order to take technology factors into consideration (Tarafdar et al., 2019).

These foundational stress models demonstrate that stress is not only biological or environmental; rather, it emerges from the dynamic interaction between individual evaluations and external pressures. Comprehending these theoretical frameworks is crucial when we analyze the evolution of such processes influenced by contemporary technological surroundings, leading to the notion of technostress.

1.2. Evolution of Technostress Theory

The increasing dependence of contemporary work environments on digital infrastructure has given rise to a new form of stress known as technostress (Tarafdar et al., 2019). Technostress was first defined by Brod (1982) as a "modern disease of adaptation" brought on by an inability to manage new computer technology in a healthy way. When the idea first emerged, it was mostly used to describe the discomfort users felt both physically and mentally when using early computing systems. However, the extent and complexity of technostress increased in tandem with

the quick evolution of information and communication technologies (ICTs) (Ayyagari et al., 2011).

Technostress was characterized by Weil & Rosen (1997) as a state of mental strain and cognitive overload brought on by continuous technology use, which frequently results in symptoms including exhaustion, anxiety, frustration, and decreased productivity. Technostress, as defined by Caro & Sethi (1985), is a phenomenon that results from the interaction of technology with user attributes such as perceived control, self-efficacy, and adaptability. The groundwork for comprehending technostress as a complex phenomenon involving both personal and environmental factors was laid by these early frameworks. These fundamental criteria facilitated a sophisticated comprehension of technostress as both an individual and contextual phenomenon.

Based on these fundamental concepts, Tarafdar et al. (2015, 2019) created one of the most popular technostress models in organizational studies. The five main causes of technostress are identified by their framework as follows: techno-overload, which occurs when employees are forced to work longer and faster; techno-invasion, which occurs when technology blurs the lines between work and personal life; techno-complexity, which results from systems that are too complex or require new skills; techno-insecurity, which reflects fears of losing one's job due to a lack of technological capabilities; and techno-uncertainty, which arises from the constant evolution and unpredictability of digital tools. This multifaceted framework demonstrates how dynamic, omnipresent, and context-dependent technostress is in contemporary workplaces.

The Transactional Model of Stress and Coping by Folkman (2013) provides the greatest theoretical foundation for understanding technostress. According to this paradigm, stress is the outcome of interactions between a person and their surroundings, namely how they evaluate a stressor and their perceived capacity for handling it. When it comes to technology, this implies that two workers who are exposed to the same system may feel different amounts of stress depending on things like digital literacy, perceived utility, and assistance availability (Srivastava et al., 2015). Empirical research has validated this model by demonstrating that coping mechanisms moderate technostress and that individual assessments mediate it (Ayyagari et al., 2011).

Technostress may lead to many psychological, physiological, and organizational consequences. The psychological impacts encompass anxiety, irritation, cognitive overload, and burnout (Salanova et al., 2013b). Physiological manifestations, including cephalalgia, ocular strain, and persistent weariness, have also been recorded (Chiappetta, 2017). At the organizational level, technostress correlates with diminished job satisfaction, elevated absenteeism, decreased employee engagement, and heightened turnover intentions (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008).

Furthermore, the increasing culture of "always-on" connectedness has made technostress worse. Constant access to digital devices and communication tools blurs the lines between work and personal life, which disrupts recuperation time and increases stress levels, according to research by Chesley (2005). This phenomenon is known as techno-invasion, which is the term used to describe the tendency for employees to feel under pressure to reply to work-related communications outside of regular business hours (Tarafdar et al., 2011). In addition to increasing stress, this constant connectedness also compromises mental health and work-life balance (Derks et al., 2015).

Companies are progressively putting interventions like flexible work schedules, digital detox policies, and ICT training programs into place to address these issues and lower the risk of technostress (Yusriani et al., 2024). However, organizational culture and leadership backing are typically critical to these efforts' success. According to Sarker et al. (2019), leaders are essential in establishing standards for digital communication and providing an example of responsible technology use.

Table 1. below serves as a visual reference, highlighting both the consistencies and variations in how technostress has been defined across the different studies and periods.

Table 1. A List of Technostress Definitions

Source	Definition
(Brod,1982)	Technostress is a modern disease of adaptation caused by the inability to cope with the new computer technologies in a healthy manner.
(Weil & Rosen, 1995)	The negative psychological link between people and the introduction of new technologies.
(Tarafdar et al., 2007)	Technostress refers to stress experienced by end users in organizations due to their use of Information Systems (IS).
(Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008)	Technostress, that is, stress experienced by end users of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs).
(La Torre et al., 2019)	Technostress is an emergent phenomenon closely related to the pervasive use of information and communication technologies in modern society, leading to anxiety, tension, and reduced job and life satisfaction.

Definitions of technostress, table done by the author

As Table 1 illustrates, technostress now encompasses more extensive psychosocial and organizational issues in addition to basic discomfort with technology. Current knowledge highlights that people's perceptions and interactions with technology have an impact on technostress, which is not just a result of technology (Tarafdar et al., 2007).

1.2.1. Dimensions of Technostress

The present study solely concentrates on work-related technostress, which is defined as any negative physiological or psychological impacts that employees encounter when using Information Communication Technology (ICT) to do their tasks (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008; Tarafdar et al., 2010). Five dimensions are used to conceptualize technostress, each of which represents a unique aspect of technology or

the technological environment that may provide major stress for employees when dealing with ICT (Fuglseth & Sørebø, 2014). These dimensions serve as the foundational elements of the Technostress Model, outlining the pathways through which stress creators influence individual and organizational outcomes. Each of these dimensions is described below:

Techno-complexity refers to the incapacity to handle the rapidly evolving nature of technology, combined with its intrinsic complexity (Tarafdar et al., 2007). Employees may need to adjust by learning how to utilize the newest, potentially even more sophisticated ICT, as a result of any changes that render their abilities outdated (Bondanini et al., 2020; Tarafdar et al., 2007; Tu et al., 2005). For instance, frequent software updates that demand the acquisition of new skills can leave employees feeling overwhelmed, potentially resulting in frustration and a diminished sense of self-confidence in their abilities (La Torre et al., 2019).

Techno-insecurity is job insecurity brought on by technology. Workers may be afraid of losing their jobs due to automation initiatives or the potential of being replaced by technologically proficient people (Tarafdar et al., 2007). The first concern is reflected in research conducted by Parker (2025) on U.S. workers, stating that 52% fear future impact from Artificial Intelligence (AI) use in the workplace. The latter concern is made worse by the ever-increasing technological demands on workers, which have led to the institutionalization of hiring younger, more experienced workers who are more enthusiastic, knowledgeable, and at ease using new ICT (Bondanini et al., 2020; Tarafdar et al., 2007; Tu et al., 2005). The apprehension can contribute to prolonged stress and reduced job satisfaction, especially among more senior employees (Maier et al., 2015).

Techno-invasion is the term used to describe how ICT intrudes into employees' personal lives by enabling expectations or demands for continuous connectivity and prompt response (Tarafdar et al., 2007). Due to the sense of urgency created by these expectations, workers may complete their work on the weekends, during off-peak hours, or even while on vacation (Bondanini et al., 2020; Tarafdar et al., 2007, 2010; Tu et al., 2005). A typical example is the expectation to reply to work-related emails outside of regular working hours, which erodes the boundary between professional and personal life and can ultimately lead to burnout (Derks et al., 2015).

Techno-overload, which is typified by a greater burden, faster pace of work, and quick changes in work habits, is brought on by technology's ability to communicate vast volumes of information quickly and easily across many channels (Tarafdar et al., 2007). Employees may experience disruptions and have to handle more work, which will force them to multitask and put in more effort, faster, and longer hours (Bondanini et al., 2020; Tarafdar et al., 2007; Tu et al., 2005). The persistent pressure to stay constantly available and responsive can overwhelm cognitive capacity, leading to diminished focus, lower work efficiency, and a higher likelihood of mistakes (Mark et al., 2008).

Lastly, techno-uncertainty is the perceived ambiguity and unpredictability of ICT change brought on by frequent, unanticipated, quick changes in ICT or its implementation (Tarafdar et al., 2007). By quickly making their expertise outdated, frequent upgrades can prevent personnel from gaining a foundation of ICT experience (Bondanini et al., 2020; Tarafdar et al., 2007, 2010). Thus, this uncertainty can generate feelings of anxiety, as employees find it challenging to adapt to the constantly evolving demands of the digital work environment (Califf, 2020).

Together, these dimensions illustrate the adverse effects of technostress on employee well-being and organizational effectiveness. Thus, it is important to emphasize implementing measures and strategies to mitigate these challenges. These dimensions not only underscore the various stressors introduced by ICT but also establish a foundation for comprehending how these pressures may affect employee cognition and behavior, especially in decision-making scenarios.

1.2.2. Creators of Technostress

Technostress creators refer to specific aspects of information and communication technologies (ICT) that act as stress-related factors for technology users. According to Ragu-Nathan et al. (2008), these creators are features of technology use, such as techno-overload, techno-invasion, techno-complexity, techno-insecurity, and techno-uncertainty, that place extra pressure on individuals. They represent how ICT introduces new or intensified demands, like heavier workloads, constant interruptions, and blurred boundaries between work and personal life, all of which users must manage. After examining the dimensions of technostress, the

discussion now focuses on identifying the specific characteristics of ICT that act as direct contributors or catalysts to its development.

Researchers have grouped these stress elements into several key categories, each highlighting a distinct way that technology can lead to strain. The following section explores these categories in detail.

There are several ways that ICTs might lead to stress. First, they allow for continuous connectivity, which prolongs the typical workday (Ayyagari et al., 2011). Workers use wireless email devices and email programs when working irregular hours (Mandel, 2005). They are reachable at any time and from any location, and they frequently feel compelled to reply to the point where it is unsettling to disconnect. People who experience this kind of constant exposure seem to believe that their time and space have been invaded and that they are never truly free from their technologies. As a result, they feel less satisfied with their job (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008). This consistent connectivity illustrates how contemporary ICT dissolves the lines between professional and personal domains, thereby amplifying stress (Mazmanian et al., 2013).

Second, employees now routinely manage many streams of information from internal and external sources simultaneously, thanks to mobile communication equipment like laptops and smartphones, and programs like browsers and collaboration software (Cameron & Webster, 2013). As a result, people are exposed to more information than they can successfully process and utilize, leading to communication and information overload (Fisher and Wesolkowski, 1999). They feel overloaded, compelled to work more quickly to meet the demands of increased processing; also, they are unable to establish realistic cutoffs and prioritize incoming information (Kupersmith, 1992). Consequently, these lead to what is called "information fatigue" (Weil & Rosen, 1995) and "data smog" (Brilhart, 2004). Shi et al. (2023) conducted an international survey of executives in large firms. A quarter of them stated that their voicemails and emails were unmanageable, and almost half of them spent almost a full day every week on communications that were not useful to their core work. Thus, information overload can cause stress and frustration for employees.

Thirdly, having to keep up with the latest hardware, software, and applications has increased tremendously. Also, the technical capabilities and the terminology related to ICTs have become more complex. Learning new applications may take months to learn, and their manuals may be complex (Tarafdar et al., 2007) . There are studies on organizational behavior that show employees may experience some kind of phobia (Heinssen et al., 1987), aversion, distress, or irritation (Yaverbaum, 1988) while using complex technologies. Consequently, they may encounter increased task difficulty, ambiguity over performance standards, and an increase in the scope and necessary job skills (Dolan and Tziner, 1988; Love et al., 1989). According to practitioner studies Weil & Rosen (1995) found out that end users experience stress and job unhappiness as a result of the diversity of apps, functionality, and jargon they find intimidating and challenging to understand.

Fourthly, businesses use rapidly evolving ICT products and applications. Accordingly, users have no opportunity to discover significant patterns or build up a foundation of experience (Kupersmith, 1992). As proposed by earlier research on the usage of visual display units (Love et al., 1989; Sainfort, 1990), uncertainty over current and future job demands was caused by the evolving capabilities of these technologies. In the context of contemporary ICTs, managers may be excited to learn new applications and technology at first, but the ongoing need to update and refresh can eventually cause stress, irritation, and interpersonal conflict (Brod, 1982; Zorn, 2002). Leading to job discontent.

Fifthly, without significant alterations, the majority of commercially available ICT programs utilized in modern organizational settings cannot be utilized “as is.” (Tarafdar et al., 2015). For example, the deployment of Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) systems necessitates crucial configuration and customization decisions, which are frequently a very contentious and difficult process (Siew Kien Sia & Christina Soh, 2017). End users may encounter issues with inadequate documentation, programming errors, lost data, and programs (Weil & Rosen, 1995), application crashes (Hudiburg & Necessary, 1996; Sainfort, 1990), and a lack of sufficient technical resources and support (Kupersmith, 1992) even after changes have been made. According to Brod (1982) and Fisher & Wesolkowski (1999), all this leads to job unhappiness and a sense of helplessness.

Lastly, ICTs facilitate multitasking, which helps employees accomplish more in less time. Nevertheless, effective multitasking does have its limitations, encouraging individuals to go beyond them. Excessive multitasking has been proven to raise stress, reduce perceived control, and lower job satisfaction in those who participated in controlled tests (Weil & Rosen, 1995; Brillhart, P.E., 2004). In conclusion, ICTs induce stress due to their complexity and frequent changes, steep learning curves, increased workload, the tendency toward excessive multitasking, and accompanying technical issues and mistakes (Ayyagari et al., 2011).

These technostress creators are closely linked to the five dimensions of technostress Tarafdar et al.'s framework. for instance, information overload, a key creator, intensifies techno-overload, where users feel overwhelmed by the speed and volume of work. Similarly, rapid changes in ICT contribute to techno-uncertainty, as users struggle to keep up with evolving tools (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008; Tarafdar et al., 2007). This shows that technostress doesn't simply result from using technology, but from how specific features of ICT interact with user expectations and capabilities (Ayyagari et al., 2011). By connecting these stress creators to the previously outlined dimensions, we build a more comprehensive understanding of how digital demands influence and shape individual stress reactions.

In conclusion, the various elements mentioned above highlight the various ways that ICTs cause technostress through a variety of interrelated mechanisms. Each component poses cognitive, emotional, and operational difficulties that impair users' performance and well-being, from information overload and continual connectedness to technological complexity and quick change. The five dimensions of technostress put forth by Ragu-Nathan et al., (2008) are closely aligned with these stressors, supporting the notion that technostress results from the interaction of technology's changing features with user expectations, organizational demands, and skills (Tarafdar et al., 2019). According to research, companies looking to promote healthier digital workplaces and lessen technology-induced stress must acknowledge these producers (Califf, 2020).

In the subsequent part, we will further examine the ramifications of technostress, anchoring our discourse in recognized theoretical frameworks. The advancement of technostress research integrates supplementary frameworks that elucidate the cognitive, behavioral, and social aspects of stress. Cognitive Load Theory and the Job

Demands-Resources Model offer complementary insights into how technology-induced demands deplete mental resources and organizational support mechanisms. Also, the Theory of Planned Behavior elucidates the influence of attitudes and social norms on responses to technostress.

1.2.3. Theoretical Frameworks for Understanding Technostress

1.2.3.1. Cognitive Load Theory

Cognitive Load Theory (CLT), Sweller (1988) sheds light on how technostress is exacerbated by the working memory's limited capacity. According to CLT, cognitive load is the total amount of mental effort required to maintain working memory, which has a restricted capacity (often only a few units of information at a time) (Sweller, 2020). This idea was introduced by Sweller (1988), who distinguished between extraneous load (unnecessary demands resulting from inadequate information presentation), germane load (resources allocated to processing the work), and intrinsic load (the underlying complexity of the activity). Technostress can rapidly overwhelm a person's capacity due to excessive information flows and multitasking, which raise intrinsic and extrinsic strain. Frequent context switching between work, emails, and messages, for example, causes attention fragmentation and cognitive stress (Gloria J Mark et al., 2008). According to CLT, people are more likely to become overwhelmed and be less able to recall or process information efficiently when it is presented in an unprofessional or excessive manner. Applying CLT allows one to view aspects such as techno-complexity and information overload as cognitive burdens: stress increases when the amount or complexity of ICT demands surpasses cognitive capacity (Sweller, 1988). According to this viewpoint, managing cognitive load and lowering technostress can be achieved by streamlining user interfaces, cutting down on pointless notifications, and improving task design (e.g., chunking information).

1.2.3.2. Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model

The JD-R framework provides an additional valuable perspective for comprehending technostress. This paradigm asserts that all job features can be classified as either demands (elements necessitating sustained effort) or resources (elements that facilitate the attainment of work objectives or mitigate demands) (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job demands, such as substantial workload or elevated

cognitive load, predominantly result in tiredness, whereas job resources, such as autonomy, social support, and training, foster motivation and engagement (Demerouti et al., 2001). In the realm of technostress, extensive ICT utilization frequently constitutes a job demand (e.g., perpetual connectivity necessitating extended hours). These demands might lead to stress if resources are insufficient. On the other hand, job resources that mitigate the effects of technostress include managerial support, explicit usage policies, and ICT training. For instance, personnel are better equipped to manage ICT demands and experience less stress when they have access to chances for skill development and supportive leadership around technology use (Tarafdar et al., 2015). This is consistent with research showing that greater employment resources (such as autonomy and perceived organizational support) lessen the detrimental impacts of technostress on well-being (Demerouti et al., 2001). Therefore, the JD-R model places a strong emphasis on striking a balance between the demands of technology and adequate resources to preserve worker performance and health (Demerouti et al., 2001).

1.2.3.3. Theory of Planned Behavior

By focusing on cognitive and social aspects, the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991) enhances our comprehension of technostress. According to TPB, three factors influence behavior: attitudes (favorable or unfavorable opinions about using technology), subjective norms (perceived social pressure to use or refrain from using technology), and perceived behavioral control (belief in one's capacity to control technology). Employees having little perceived control over ICTs (such as feeling unprepared to handle software updates) or negative attitudes towards them (such as considering them obtrusive) are more likely to suffer from technostress. On the other hand, by lowering the perceived pressure to stay connected all the time, supporting subjective norms, like company policies that restrict sending emails after hours, can reduce technostress. This is consistent with the JD-R Model's emphasis on resources and the Transactional Model's emphasis on appraisal procedures. By improving perceived behavioral control, for instance, training programs (a job resource) mitigate the effects of techno-stressors such as techno-complexity (Tarafdar et al., 2019)

In conclusion, the complex and ever-changing nature of workplace demands, organizational cultures, individual assessments, and developing technologies all

interact to produce the phenomenon of technostress. By emphasizing how excessive ICT demands (such as multitasking and information overload) overwhelm working memory and impair focus and efficiency, Cognitive Load Theory (CLT) clarifies the cognitive mechanics underlying technostress (Sweller, 1988). The Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model (Demerouti et al., 2001) places organizational problems into perspective and frames technostress as a result of imbalanced ICT demands (like constant connectivity) and insufficient resources (such as leadership support and training). According to the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)(Ajzen, 1991), stress reactions are made worse by personal perceptions, such as a lack of confidence in one's ability to use digital tools or a negative attitude towards automation.

These frameworks operate together to offer a comprehensive perspective for creating interventions: TPB informs strategies to improve digital literacy and change attitudes towards technology; the JD-R Model promotes organizational policies that balance ICT demands with resources like flexible work hours; and CLT directs reductions in cognitive strain through task prioritization and simplified interfaces. These multifaceted strategies must be given top priority by organizations as digital transformation picks up speed in order to reduce technostress and create work environments that support employee creativity, productivity, and well-being.

A synthesized framework of work-related technostress is shown in Figure 1, which incorporates the theoretical underpinnings, dimensions, producers, and results of the literature review.

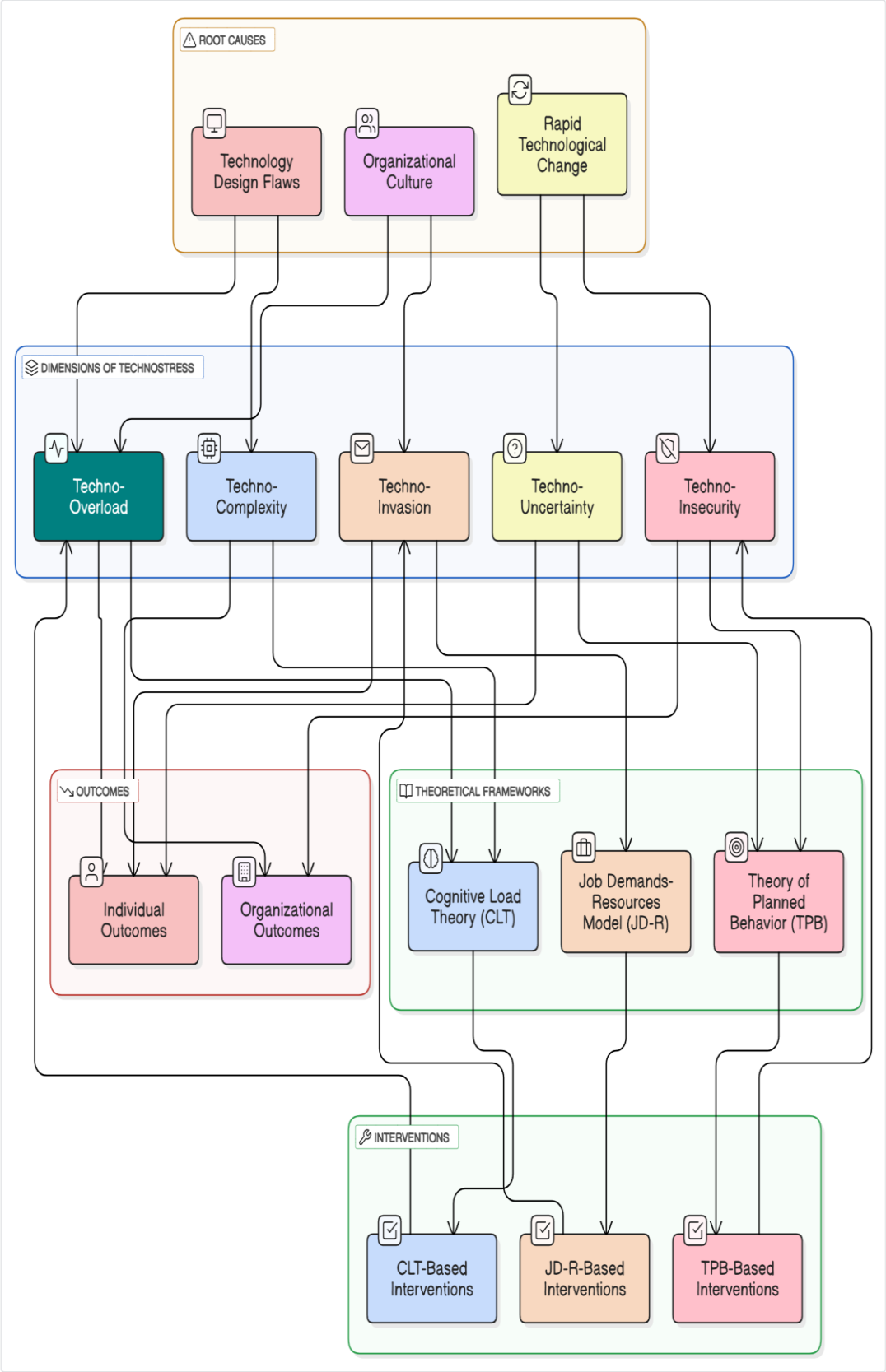


Figure 1. Technostress Flow Chart

Technostress flow chart, done by the author

1.3. Decision-Making Styles: Definition and Types

Decision-making is a fundamental cognitive process that plays a crucial role in shaping outcomes at both the individual and organizational levels. Researchers have explored this concept from various angles, reflecting its complexity and significance in different contexts. Decision-making styles are defined by Driver et al. (1998) as "a habitual pattern individuals use in decision making". Similarly, Harren (1979) described decision-making styles as "individuals' distinctive ways of seeing and reacting to activities involving decision-making". Others defined decision-making styles by how much information is collected and how many options are considered when making a choice. Moreover, Other researchers define it as individual differences in how people interpret collected information (Hunt et al., 1989).

These initial definitions show that decision-making styles are not set in stone; they can shift depending on how people think and how they experience different situations. This helps to understand the different ways decisions are made and carried out in personal and professional settings. An individual's decision-making style can also be shaped by factors like personality, the pressures of the situation, or even stress caused by technology (Appelbaum et al., 2015). Building on these fundamental concepts, we can explore how decision-making operates in practice: Making decisions is a crucial part of both personal and professional life, and their impacts result in a variety of situations (Simon, 2013). According to Sadler-Smith (2004), there are four main kinds of decision-making, which serve as frameworks: directive, analytical, conceptual, and behavioral. Every style has unique traits, benefits, and drawbacks that affect how choices are made.

These decision-making styles provide valuable insight into the thinking and behavior patterns that influence how individuals approach choices in different workplace settings. Each decision-making style reflects not only an individual's preferred way of processing information but also serves as a strategic approach for navigating uncertainty and handling complex tasks (Scott & Bruce, 1995). While each style has its distinct features, they often blend or influence one another depending on the situation (Scott & Bruce, 1995; Vroom & Jago, 2007).

The directive style demonstrates efficiency-focused decision-making. According to Vroom & Jago (2007), the directive decision-making style is

distinguished by its emphasis on efficiency, speed, and a preference for simple, low-risk judgments. According to Nutt (2002), those who employ this approach typically want a clear chain of command and depend on accepted norms and practices. Frequently, they make snap decisions based on scant information (Elbanna, 2006). The directive style's capacity for prompt decision-making is one of its main benefits; this is especially advantageous in circumstances where time is of the essence (Vroom & Jago, 2007). Thus, this approach guarantees that decisions are made with clarity and authority, which lessens uncertainty in teams (Vroom & Jago, 2007). Nevertheless, the directive style may sometimes result in the simplifying of intricate issues, possibly omitting crucial information or counterarguments, leading to limited innovative solutions (Nutt, 2002).

On the other hand, the analytical style revolves around comprehensive evaluation. Davenport (2006) states that "analytical decision-makers frequently rely on comprehensive data, thorough analysis, and systematic methods". This approach is characterised by a tendency to obtain thorough information and evaluate different options before making a choice (Kahneman, 2011). Studies suggest that analytical decision-makers frequently perform best in settings that require careful consideration and risk assessment (Zhang & Chen, 2014). For example, Zhang and Chen (2014), in a longitudinal study, suggest that analytical approaches work very well in business environments where making judgments based on facts is crucial. The main benefit of the analytical approach is its thoroughness, which enables well-informed decisions that frequently result in favorable outcomes (Kahneman, 2011). Furthermore, by basing choices on factual data, this approach helps reduce ambiguity (Kahneman, 2011). Nonetheless, this level of thoroughness can sometimes slow down decision-making, making it less suited for fast-moving environments where quick responses are essential (J. M. George, 2000).

While data plays an important role in the analytical style, the conceptual style focuses on creativity. The third style is conceptual decision-makers. They are known for having a broad perspective and creativity (Sadler-Smith, 2004). Instead of concentrating on short-term outcomes, they emphasize innovation and long-term impacts (Mumford et al., 2002). They strive for creative solutions and are at ease with uncertainty (Sadler-Smith, 2004). According to research by Herrmann (1996), conceptual decision-making leads to innovative results. This approach proves

particularly valuable in settings requiring strategic planning and product innovation, where navigating ambiguity and envisioning future possibilities are essential (Runco & Acar, 2012).

Finally, the behavioral style focuses on interpersonal dynamics. The fourth style is behavioral, which prioritizes emotional considerations and interpersonal ties (Gonzalez, 2017). When making decisions, people with this style seek consensus and collaboration, giving others' feelings and viewpoints top priority (C. George, 2024). One of the most significant advantages of the behavioral style is its focus on team dynamics and member satisfaction. Nevertheless, this emphasis on reaching agreement can slow down the decision-making process and encourage the avoidance of conflict (Scott & Bruce, 1995).

It is important to recognize that these decision-making styles are not entirely separate; they can blend and influence one another depending on the situation. For example, a leader might combine a directive approach with an awareness of team dynamics, bringing elements of both directive and behavioral styles. Thus, this can be linked to broader theories of how people make decisions. Kahneman (2011) introduced the idea of two systems of thinking: System 1, which is fast, intuitive, and automatic. System 2, which is slow, logical, and deliberate. Within this framework, directive and behavioral decision-making styles tend to align with fast, intuitive processes of System 1 thinking, whereas analytical and conceptual styles are more characteristic of the slower, deliberate, and reflective nature of System 2 reasoning (Kahneman, 2011).

In conclusion, gaining knowledge of the four categories of decision-making styles – Directive, Conceptual, Analytical, and Behavioral provides a better understanding of how both individuals and groups approach decision-making styles. There are different advantages and limitations to each style, and the context and type of choice can affect how effective a certain style is (Bavolar, 2023). Furthermore, external stressors like technostress can shape decision-making styles by affecting an individual's cognitive resources and capacity to make effective decisions (Tarafdar et al., 2019). Understanding how these decision-making processes interact in various situations can help organizations adjust their approaches better to fit specific goals, challenges, and workplace environments.

Alongside these four overarching patterns, scholars have suggested particular characteristics of decision-making that explore individual tendencies and cognitive methods in greater depth (Scott & Bruce, 1995; Simon, 2013). The next section provides a comprehensive overview on the dimensions of decision-making styles.

1.3.1. Dimensions of Decision-Making Styles

Making decisions is an essential process that influences many facets of both personal and professional life. Decision-making is a fundamental cognitive process that plays a central role in shaping behavioral, interpersonal dynamics, and the strategic direction of organizations (Kahneman, 2011). Comprehending many aspects of decision-making styles can offer valuable perspectives on how people make decisions and the elements that impact these decisions. Examining the different dimensions of decision-making styles helps shed light on how people think, what they prioritize, and how they tend to act when faced with choices (Scott & Bruce, 1995). The traits of decision-making styles and the underlying mental processes allow for a comprehensive classification. These decision-making types include rational, intuitive, dependent, avoidant, and spontaneous decision-making- each influences how choices are made and carried out (Simon, 2013; Vroom & Jago, 2007).

Rational decision-making is the process by which individuals obtain pertinent data, assess the circumstances, and weigh their options according to impartial standards (Simon, 1977). For instance, when choosing supplies, a manager in a business context might employ this approach, methodically weighing possibilities according to metrics for cost, quality, and services (Simon, 1977). This approach reflects a structured and logical way of evaluating different options, grounded in factual analysis and objective evidence.

Another example of rational decision-making is when managers hire applicants for new vacancies. They evaluate several aspects and skills, such as education, experience, background, and skills, to have a comprehensive overview and evaluate accordingly. This process helps ensure that hiring decisions are both fair and aligned with the organization's objectives, ultimately improving the accuracy of candidate selection and how well individuals fit their roles (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979).

The intuitive decision-making style is especially useful in circumstances requiring prompt decisions or involving complicated uncertainties since it depends

more on intuition and gut sensations than on an in-depth study (Dane & Pratt, 2007a). For example, an experienced sales manager may give a long-term customer priority based on earlier encounters and an innate sense of their need (Kahneman & Klein, 2009). This style of decision-making often relies on the individual's accumulated experience, drawing on intuitive judgments and recognized patterns formed over time.

People with a dependent decision-making style typically ask for advice and consent from others before making decisions (Scott & Bruce, 1995). For example, an employee may exhibit this by hesitating to complete their project proposal without first consulting team members or supervisors, demonstrating their dependence on outside approval to support their choices (Cook & Gonzales, 2016). This decision-making style places importance on seeking reassurance, working with others, and distributing responsibility among team members when making choices.

On the other hand, procrastination and decision-evasion are characteristics of the avoidant decision-making style, which is frequently fueled by anxiety about possible outcomes or fear of selecting a career direction because they are concerned about their future job satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Individuals with an avoidant decision-making style often delay or hesitate to make decisions, typically due to emotional discomfort, uncertainty about outcomes, or concerns about making wrong choices.

The spontaneous decision-making style emphasizes immediacy and rapidity, frequently leading to impulsive choices aimed at expediting resolution (Scott & Bruce, 1995). Individuals employing this style excel in dynamic settings when swift response is prioritized over careful consideration. An emergency room nurse may make an instantaneous decision to prioritize a critical patient based only on observable symptoms while triaging many arrivals during a crisis (Scott & Bruce, 1995). This method, while useful in urgent situations, may neglect long-term effects if excessively employed (Driver et al., 1998)

Gaining insight into these dimensions is crucial for effectively functioning in today's rapidly evolving work environments, where constant technological advancements and digital pressures demand agile and adaptable decision-making approaches (Appelbaum et al., 2015). By identifying and understanding the different aspects of decision-making, such as rational analysis, intuitive judgment, dependency on others, avoidance tendencies, and spontaneity, both individuals and organizations

can adapt their approaches to better fit specific situations, tasks, and team environments. This insight also allows organizations to reduce the risks linked to impaired decision-making in stressful situations and to foster intrapreneurial behaviour by aligning individual decision-making approaches with broader strategic objectives (Appelbaum et al., 2015; Tarafdar et al., 2019).

Comprehending decision-making styles clarifies how individuals react to and maneuver through stress-inducing situations. As we progress toward intrapreneurship, it is critical to investigate how these decision-making inclinations influence innovation-driven behavior in organizations.

Although comprehending the aspects of decision-making styles helps one better understand personal preferences, making decisions in the actual world frequently calls for adaptability. By describing how people dynamically modify their tactics in response to changing settings, limitations, and goals, the Adaptive Decision-Maker Framework fills this knowledge gap (Payne et al., 1993).

1.3.1.1. The Adaptive Decision-Maker Framework

The Adaptive Decision-Maker Framework, introduced by Payne et al. (1993) provides valuable insight into how individuals modify their decision-making behaviors in response to environmental pressures, particularly high-stress contexts such as those induced by technostress. According to this perspective, people do not stick to one method when making decisions. Instead, they flexibly switch between different strategies depending on situational demands, cognitive load, and time constraints. This is consistent with the concept of the "cognitive economy," in which decision-makers weigh the necessity of accuracy against the work required to obtain information (Gigerenzer & Todd, 1999). When under pressure, individuals tend to adopt decision-making approaches that require less mental effort, even if these may lead to suboptimal outcomes. Under technostress, for example, a manager may adopt a directive style (speed is prioritized) instead of an analytical one, compromising accuracy for expediency (Tarafdar et al., 2019).

The framework underscores three fundamental concepts that direct good decision-making. Firstly, contingency emphasizes that the appropriateness of a decision-making style is contingent upon its congruence with contextual elements, including task difficulty, urgency, and resource availability (Payne et al., 1993).

Secondly, adaptive trade-offs denote the dynamic interaction between intuitive (System 1) and rational (System 2) cognition, allowing humans to reconcile conflicting needs such as speed and accuracy, as described by Kahneman (2011). Thirdly, metacognitive awareness (Hammond et al., 1998) is the ability to consciously identify when one's default decision-making style is inappropriate for a given circumstance and make a deliberate change to better meet the needs of the situation. Together, these guidelines highlight how adaptive decision-making is adaptable and context-sensitive.

To illustrate how styles can coexist under pressure, leaders may, for instance, combine behavioral empathy and directive decisiveness in crises, promptly resolving the issue while reassuring their team (Vroom & Jago, 2007). On the other hand, they may switch to a conceptual-analytical hybrid in strategic planning, striking a balance between innovation and data-driven rigor (Runco & Acar, 2012).

This flexibility is essential in today's workplace, where efficiency and thoroughness must frequently be traded off due to technological stress and information overload. Organizations can reduce the risks of stress-induced decision fatigue by using this approach to create training programs that improve workers' capacity to handle changing demands (Appelbaum et al., 2015).

It is crucial to comprehend these decision-making characteristics and styles in order to promote intrapreneurial behavior in organizations. Flexibility in decision-making becomes a critical skill because intrapreneurship frequently entails taking risks, being innovative, and exhibiting self-initiative in unpredictable circumstances. According to Tarafdar et al. (2019) and Antoncic & Hisrich (2003a), employees who are able to modify their decision-making style in response to task demands and environmental stressors, including technostress, are more likely to participate in venture-oriented and strategy renewal activities. The next section explores the concept of Intrapreneurship.

1.4. History of Intrapreneurship

Entrepreneurship has consistently been acknowledged as a crucial catalyst for economic growth and innovation. The conceptual origins date to the 18th century, when Richard Cantillon and subsequently Jean-Baptiste Say presented initial conceptions of entrepreneurial activity (Farrukh & Ghazzawi, 2024). Entrepreneurship has developed into a multidisciplinary area of study, concentrating on individuals who

recognize possibilities, allocate resources, and generate value through new enterprises (Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001; Sharma & Chrisman, 1999). Entrepreneurs are often characterized by their autonomy, risk-taking behavior, and personal engagement in their firms, making them key figures in both economic and organizational theory (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000).

Conversely, intrapreneurship—the enactment of entrepreneurial activities within established enterprises—received academic focus significantly later. The concept, which began to emerge in the late 20th century, was publicly proposed by Pinchot (1985) as a means to expedite innovation by enabling employees to engage in entrepreneurial activities inside corporate confines. In contrast to typical entrepreneurs, intrapreneurs function within a business, leveraging its resources and infrastructure to drive internal innovation and strategic expansion (Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001).

An increasing amount of research highlights the transition from perceiving employees merely as task executors to acknowledging them as strategic assets that can foster innovation (A. Baron & Armstrong, 2007; Chan et al., 2017). This evolution parallels broader economic trends that support knowledge, innovation, and adaptability. This point of view is supported by intrapreneurship, which emphasizes how employee-driven projects can result in long-term organizational sustainability and competitive advantage (Guerrero & Peña-Legazkue, 2013).

Stam et al. (2012) characterize intrapreneurship as the proactive efforts of employees to recognize and cultivate new business prospects within established firms. Kuratko et al. (1990a) characterize it as a strategic, autonomous, and employee-driven process designed to capitalize on market opportunities while being integrated within organizational frameworks and policies.

Additionally, intrapreneurs are not restricted to any particular level of the hierarchy. If given enough autonomy, access to resources, and institutional support to pursue creative ideas, they can arise from any area of the company (Kuratko et al., 2005; Rigtering & Weitzel, 2024). Belousova et al. (2010) highlight that the organizational environment has a greater influence on the success of intrapreneurial activities than individual positions, highlighting the significance of fostering a culture that promotes initiative and experimentation at all levels.

According to Heinonen and Korvela (2003), entrepreneurship is frequently cited as the conceptual antecedent of intrapreneurship. However, the concept of intrapreneurship has expanded beyond the notion of individual initiative to include a more comprehensive understanding of how businesses internally encourage and facilitate entrepreneurial behavior (Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001). According to Shabana (2010) "Intrapreneurs are inside entrepreneurs who follow the organization's goals," highlighting the connection between individual creativity and corporate goals.

Due to this development, researchers currently look at the characteristics of intrapreneurs as well as the structural and cultural elements that support or impede entrepreneurial activity in businesses (Covin & Slevin, 1989). Intrapreneurial success has been found to be significantly facilitated by internal innovation systems, reward systems, and leadership support (Ireland et al., 2006).

There are key distinctions between these conceptual concepts of intrapreneurship and entrepreneurship, which are as follows:

Setting or context: Working inside an organization, intrapreneurs often have a significant impact on internal decision-making. On the other hand, entrepreneurs start their own business on their own (Camelo-Ordaz et al., 2012).

Risk and resources: intrapreneurs make creative and daring choices while utilizing the resources of the employing company. Also, they are subject to some dangers, including those related to their reputation and career if they fail (Antoncic & Hisrich, 2003a). Conversely, entrepreneurs launch a new business using their capital (Molina & Callahan, 2009).

Incentives: intrapreneurs are not always rewarded, and their rewards are dependent on the organization's terms and conditions (Kuratko et al., 2007). On the other hand, business owners are closely associated with the success of their endeavors (Morris et al., 2011).

Structures: entrepreneurs build their knowledge, systems, and infrastructures to manage their businesses, whereas intrapreneurs use the organization's existing knowledge, systems, procedures, and other infrastructures (Molina & Callahan, 2009).

This comparison highlights how innovation is put into action differently depending on the setting. While both entrepreneurship and intrapreneurship involve creative and forward-thinking approaches, they diverge when it comes to the level of

independence, degree of personal responsibility, and how they ultimately benefit from the outcomes (Antoncic & Hisrich, 2003; Morris et al., 2011).

Expanding on this developing comprehension, certain scholars have suggested more comprehensive frameworks to categorize entrepreneurial actions in various contexts. Though it hasn't been extensively accepted in scholarly writing yet, Extrapreneurship represents continuous attempts to explain and broaden the intellectual underpinnings of entrepreneurial conduct beyond conventional bounds (Brenet, 2020). This new viewpoint emphasizes how dynamic entrepreneurial theory is and how inclusive models that represent the variety of entrepreneurial activities in contemporary firms are needed.

In conclusion, while innovation and opportunity-seeking behavior are the cornerstone of both entrepreneurship and intrapreneurship, their approaches to autonomy, risk, resource utilization, and organizational environment are very different. To comprehend the special function of intrapreneurship in contemporary firms, one must be aware of these differences. Long-term success depends on creating an atmosphere that encourages intrapreneurial activity, since businesses depend progressively more on internal innovation to be competitive (Kuratko et al., 1990; Morris et al., 2011).

1.4.1. Organizational Support Theory (OST)

According to the OST developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986), workers form a broad impression of how much the company appreciates their contributions and is concerned about their welfare. Perceived organizational support (POS), which is the key concept in OST, is important because when workers believe their company is supporting them (via leadership support, fair policies, and recognition), they are more driven, content, and inclined to go above and beyond. This theory offers a useful window to view how organizational settings affect worker behaviors, particularly with regard to innovation and proactive involvement.

OST (Eisenberger et al., 1986) emphasizes that encouraging work conditions motivate staff members to innovate internally in the context of intrapreneurship. Employees experience high POS and are more inclined to participate in intrapreneurial activities when firms offer them autonomy, resources, and acknowledgment for their innovative efforts. According to OST, for instance, resource availability and

management support enable staff members to recognize that their innovative ideas are appreciated, which lowers perceived risks. According to studies (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2020), companies with high POS typically have more innovative and proactive staff members.

1.4.2. Dimensions of Intrapreneurship

According to Antoncic & Hisrich (2001) and Kuratko & Audretsch (2009) intrapreneurship, which is frequently defined as entrepreneurship within already-existing organizations, is a multifaceted concept that represents how businesses encourage innovation, strategic renewal, and entrepreneurial behavior among their workforce. Researchers generally agree that intrapreneurship is not a single concept but rather encompasses a number of interconnected elements, including innovativeness, proactiveness, risk-taking, autonomy, competitive aggressiveness, venture creation, and strategic renewal (Belousova et al., 2010; Zahra, 1991).

Innovation is essential to intrapreneurship, as it entails the exploration and implementation of original ideas, processes, products, or business models within an organization (Goldsby et al., 2004). An organizational culture that promotes experimentation and continuous enhancement is frequently the result of innovation, which can be technological, product-based, or organizational (Dess & Picken, 2000; Hornsby et al., 2002). According to Crossan and Apaydin (2010), companies that effectively foster internal innovation typically have a competitive edge and greater flexibility in challenging situations.

Proactiveness denotes an organization's inclination to foresee and respond to future market demands and emerging trends, rather than just responding to external developments (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; Miller, 1983). According to Rauch et al. (2009), this component places a strong emphasis on taking initiative, strategic planning that projects forward, and responses to environmental dynamics. For example, in rapidly changing industries, companies that invest in future-focused research and development, continuously scanning the environment, frequently outperform rivals (Hughes & Morgan, 2007).

Risk-taking is a vital component, characterized by the readiness to invest resources in endeavors with unpredictable results (Baird & Thomas, 1985; Covin & Wales, 2012). In contrast to conventional corporate risk aversion, intrapreneurial risk-

taking promotes strategic initiatives, such as exploring uncharted markets or implementing innovative technologies. Although excessive risk may jeopardize a firm's survival, measured and controlled risk-taking is crucial for attaining inventive breakthroughs (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005; Zahra, 1991).

Autonomy refers to the degree to which employees or teams are granted the authority to make independent decisions and take action in support of entrepreneurial efforts within an organization (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). When individuals feel empowered, they are more inclined to take initiative, explore new ideas, and engage in innovative problem-solving (Hornsby et al., 2002). Research also indicates that organizational environments characterized by decentralized decision-making and limited hierarchical oversight tend to foster greater intrapreneurial behavior (Rigtering & Weitzel, 2024).

Competitive aggressiveness reflects the extent to which a company actively and intensely competes with its rivals in order to capture market share or challenge established industry practices (Covin & Slevin, 1989). This can be seen in strategies such as engaging in price wars, launching bold marketing efforts, or frequently introducing new products. As noted by Hughes and Morgan (2007), such aggressive behavior can serve as a way for firms to demonstrate their strength, draw customer interest, and strive for a leading position in the market. Nevertheless, to be effective and sustainable, this approach must be supported by the firm’s underlying resources and capabilities.

Venture creation, sometimes called internal corporate venturing, entails the process of initiating and nurturing new business ventures within the framework of the parent company (Garrett & Covin, 2015). This process includes recognizing emerging market opportunities, designing business models, securing necessary resources, and overseeing the launch of new initiatives (Tunstall, 2015). To support these efforts, many organizations set up dedicated units such as innovation labs or corporate incubators, which provide structure and resources to foster successful venture development (Hill & Georgoulas, 2016).

Strategic renewal involves the transformation or redefinition of an organization’s strategic direction in response to external shifts, ensuring sustained relevance and competitiveness (Floyd & Lane, 2000; Hamel & Välikangas, 2003).

This process may encompass the reconfiguration of core capabilities, the restructuring of business units, or the realignment of organizational objectives. Companies that actively pursue strategic renewal are more capable of navigating environmental uncertainties and adapting to technological disruptions (Zahra & George, 2002).

Collectively, the above dimensions highlight how intricate and multifaceted intrapreneurship is. They provide a thorough framework for comprehending the internal promotion of entrepreneurial behavior by businesses. It is noteworthy that these dimensions offer a useful perspective for analyzing how contextual factors, like technostress, and individual-level factors, like decision-making styles, influence employees' propensity and capacity for entrepreneurial activity (Hornsby et al., 2002).

CHAPTER TWO

DEVELOPMENT OF MODEL AND HYPOTHESIS

2.1. Technostress and Decision-Making Styles (DMS)

Decision-making is a core cognitive activity that involves assessing multiple options and choosing the most suitable course of action in response to a particular situation (Chatoupis, 2007). However, decision-making is not purely rational; it is frequently shaped by stress, emotional influences, and various psychological factors. As Leykin & DeRubeis (2010) pointed out, emotions play a crucial role in how decisions are made and should not be ignored. Similarly, J. Baron (2023) describes decision-making as a process that involves identifying goals, exploring possible actions, and choosing the most suitable option to achieve desired outcomes. However, in technologically advanced settings, where psychological stress, also known as technostress, interacts with and may affect cognitive processes essential to decision-making, this process becomes more complex (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008).

Ragu-Nathan et al. (2008) characterize technostress as a "state of chronic stress experienced by individuals due to their inability to cope with the demands of ICT use." This stressor interferes with cognitive functions that are necessary for making decisions, including executive functioning, working memory capacity, and attention allocation. For example, Tarafdar et al. (2015) show that techno-invasion, a subdimension of technostress marked by a blurring of work-life boundaries because of constant connectedness, forces people to make quick, intuitive decisions since it limits the mental bandwidth needed for systematic analysis.

To better understand how individuals approach decision-making, researchers often use decision theory as a framework to examine the different behavioral tendencies that emerge during this process (Edwards, 1954). Within this framework, decision-making styles (DMS) are seen as key factors that shape how people interpret and respond to decision-related tasks (Scott & Bruce, 1995). As Yaşar (2016) pointed out, DMS rank high among the influences that affect how decision-makers assess risk. Likewise, Ercengiz (2019) describes decision-making styles as consistent ways in which individuals tend to react when faced with decisions. In this sense, a decision-making style reflects a person's habitual and identifiable pattern in dealing with decision challenges. Even when presented with similar situations, people may engage

in different decision-making processes – differences that can largely be attributed to their individual DMS (Baiocco et al., 2009). Scott & Bruce (1995) developed one of the most commonly referenced models of decision-making styles, which outlines five distinct approaches. The present study focuses on two of these: the rational style, defined by a logical, methodical, and analytical way of making decisions; and the intuitive style, characterized by a quick, heuristic-based, often subconscious processing. According to Bavoľár & Orosová (2015), these decision-making styles are not fixed personality traits but rather "learned habitual responses" that individuals develop through repeated exposure and experience. For instance, (Fischer & Riedl, 2017) discovered that cognitive depletion brought on by technostress makes people use heuristics, or mental shortcuts, to conserve mental energy, which increases their dependence on intuitive decision-making. Restoring cognitive resources through the reduction of technostress, on the other hand, promotes logical decision-making and deeper analytical processing. This is consistent with Sweller's (1988) Cognitive Load Theory, which holds that excessive demands on working memory from ICT hinder the capacity to solve problems methodically. It is further confirmed by studies by Fuglseth & Sørebø (2014) and La Torre et al. (2019) that techno-complexity, a crucial aspect of technostress, exacerbates mental exhaustion and reduces the ability to reason logically.

It's interesting to note that some technostress subdimensions may paradoxically encourage cautious, logical decision-making. Techno-insecurity, or the dread of technological obsolescence, might increase vigilance and lead people to adopt more deliberate techniques to avoid mistakes (Kotek & Vranjes, 2022). According to Yildirim & Elber Börü (2023) chronic technostress, on the other hand, significantly influences decision-making towards intuitive heuristics; this effect is restricted to low-intensity stressors. For example, Wang et al. (2020) showed that students experiencing severe technostress favored instinctive replies to save cognitive energy and prioritized speed above accuracy. Comparably, Ayyagari et al. (2011) discovered that technological invasion shortens decision-making periods and promotes rash decisions by weakening the psychological barrier between work and personal life.

Beyond decision accuracy, this change has wider organizational behavior repercussions. Simplifying things can backfire in settings that need creativity and initiative, which are characteristics of intrapreneurial behavior. Although

intrapreneurial action requires strategic forethought and deliberate risk assessment (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996), technostress exhausts the very cognitive resources required to perform such intricate activities. Workers who are experiencing digital fatigue are more prone to "satisfice," a term that Simon (2013) defined as choosing to settle for solutions that are only marginally acceptable rather than pursuing the best ones. Long-term creativity and initiative are undermined by such heuristics, even though they could serve as temporary coping mechanisms. According to Kuratko et al. (2007), sustained initiative and creativity require a supportive cognitive environment that is compromised by technostress, which lowers self-efficacy and job satisfaction (Ajzen, 1991). In line with the Adaptive Decision-Maker Framework (Payne et al., 1993), stress leads to the adoption of simplifying techniques in an attempt to save mental energy, which ultimately stifles creativity.

On the other hand, reducing technological stress can help people regain their cognitive abilities, which will help them make more rational decisions and encourage entrepreneurial behavior (La Torre et al., 2019). Organizations that support workload management and digital detox policies report better levels of staff innovation and strategic risk-taking, according to research by Califf (2020). Gaudioso et al. (2017) conducted a longitudinal study and discovered that personnel in low-tech-stress situations were 34% more likely to participate in intrapreneurial activities. They attributed this to increased analytical clarity and attention. In order to maintain logical decision-making and organizational agility, it is crucial to strike a balance between technological integration and cognitive recovery.

Therefore, this leads to the following hypothesis:

H1 Technostress has a relationship with decision-making styles

H1a Technostress is negatively associated with Rational Decision-Making Styles

H1b Technostress is positively associated with Intuitive Decision-Making Styles

2.2. Decision-Making Styles and Intrapreneurship

The way intrapreneurs function within organizations is greatly influenced by their decision-making methods. Logical thinking and data-driven methods are characteristics of rational decision-making, which provides intrapreneurs with a systematic framework for addressing organizational limitations and advancing

strategic innovations (Simon, 1977). When intrapreneurs need to justify their choices to stakeholders and match their activities with company goals, this approach works very well (Dean & Sharfman, 2017). Furthermore, in dynamic organizational settings, where analytical rigor and alignment with organizational goals are critical, rational decision-making has been empirically connected to good strategic decision outcomes (Elbanna & Child, 2007).

Conversely, intrapreneurs can move swiftly in uncertain or rapidly changing contexts due to intuitive decision-making, which is based on experience and instinct (Dane & Pratt, 2007b). As demonstrated by Riedl et al. (2012), individuals under stress tend to rely more on mental shortcuts, which can heighten cognitive fatigue and ultimately impair the ability to take risks in intrapreneurial contexts.

Empirical evidence indicates the significance of decision-making styles in intrapreneurial conduct. There may be a connection between specific decision-making styles and intrapreneurial tendency, as evidenced by a study by Krasniqi et al. (2019) that indicated managers with a spontaneous decision-making style had higher entrepreneurial ambitions.

Although this approach fosters innovation and adaptability, its independence on heuristic-based thinking may lead to cognitive biases, such as overconfidence, that can undermine the objective, evidence-based decision-making essential for effective strategic renewal (Kahneman, 2011; Sadler-Smith, 2004). According to Acharya and Berry (2023), the efficiency of a particular decision-making style is largely contingent upon the organizational context and the unique challenges encountered by intrapreneurs. For example, intuitive decision-making styles may support venture initiatives, such as startups, during early stages marked by uncertainty, whereas efforts focused on strategic renewal, like digital transformation, typically require a more analytical and systematic approach (Eisenhardt & Zbaracki, 1992).

To be competitive, strategic renewal necessitates that organizations modify their operations and plans. In this process, rational decision-making is essential because it guarantees that choices are methodical, data-driven, and in line with corporate objectives. This method allows intrapreneurs to methodically evaluate risks, identify potential opportunities, and distribute resources efficiently, crucial processes that support effective organizational renewal (Eisenhardt & Zbaracki, 1992).

Furthermore, a rational decision-making process supports the alignment of stakeholders by allowing intrapreneurs to articulate well-supported, data-driven justifications for their proposals. This structured approach proves especially valuable in complex organizational settings, where coordinated strategic planning and broad stakeholder agreement are critical to success (Dean & Sharfman, 2017). Therefore, logical decision-making by intrapreneurs puts them in a better position to promote significant, long-lasting change (*Rational Decision Making*, 2010).

Although intuition is useful for quick decisions in unpredictable situations, its dependence on personal judgment and prior experience may impede the systematic approaches necessary for effective strategic renewal (Kahneman, 2011). Since intuitive decisions frequently lack the analytical depth required for long-term planning, intrapreneurs using an intuitive style may find it difficult to match their efforts with organizational objectives (Sadler-Smith, 2004). For instance, cognitive biases such as anchoring or overconfidence, often associated with intuitive decision-making styles, may disrupt the coherence and consistency required in strategic decision-making (Kahneman, 2011).

The necessity for a hybrid approach in decision-making is further supported by a study by Kruse (2023), which demonstrated that although heuristic decision-making might speed up the development of new products, it can also result in inaccuracies if it is not balanced with analytical rigor.

Achieving successful strategic renewal requires effectively aligning stakeholder interests, carefully evaluating multifaceted factors, and ensuring consistency across different levels of the organization. Decisions that are not in line with more general strategic objectives might result from biases introduced by intuitive decision-making, such as overconfidence or anchoring (Kahneman, 2011). This approach is less effective in formal organizational settings where evidence-based reasoning and collective approval are necessary (Dean & Sharfman, 2017).

Therefore, the next hypotheses are:

H2 Decision-making style has a relationship with intrapreneurship

H2a Rational decision-making style is positively associated with strategic renewal

H2b Intuitive decision-making style is negatively associated with strategic renewal

H2c Rational decision-making style is positively associated with venture behavior

H2d Intuitive decision-making style is negatively associated with venture behavior

2.3. Technostress and Intrapreneurship

Numerous studies conducted worldwide have demonstrated the detrimental impact of technostress, a condition resulting from the negative elements of human-technology interaction, on people's well-being and productivity at work. The workplace has changed significantly as a result of businesses' growing adoption of digital technologies, which has increasingly impacted shaping how entrepreneurial behaviors, passions, and ambitions develop (Elia et al., 2020). Consequently, employees are expected to work effectively, adjust quickly, and sustain high performance levels in this digital environment, often under a great deal of technical strain.

According to a study by Jena (2015), technostress considerably lowers scholars' job satisfaction. Using the structural equation model (SEM), the study demonstrated that technostress has a significant negative effect on job satisfaction (Jena, 2015). This is consistent with the later findings by Tarafdar et al. (2019), who classified the effects of technostress into three main areas: impacts on job performance, consequences related to IT usage, and effects on overall well-being.

A significant symptom of technostress is techno-invasion, a condition wherein employees perceive themselves as constantly connected and accessible due to digital obligations (Tarafdar et al., 2015). Information Systems (IS) experts have long acknowledged the importance of analyzing the effects of techno-invasion to comprehend end-user attitudes on the use of IT in the workplace. There are important ramifications for both instrumental goals (e.g., productivity) and wellness goals in IS when people examine how they utilize IT in a healthy way (Sarker et al., 2019).

Research indicates that technological invasion has a detrimental impact on work-related parameters, leading to information overload and prolonged multitasking, which frequently leads to demotivation and burnout (Ayyagari et al., 2011). For example, Lee et al. (2014) and Ragu-Nathan et al. (2008) applied a transactional model of stress to demonstrate that techno-invasion negatively affects job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and employees' intentions to stay with the company. Based on these

results, additional research has further expanded, discussing a decline in the general performance and thus, a decline in strategic renewal and venture behavior (Tarafdar et al., 2015).

Moreover, it has been demonstrated that technological invasion causes individuals to think negatively about privacy invasion and information disruption. Thus, it results in lowering their contentment with the IT they use and hinders their ability to complete tasks mediated by IT (Rosen et al., 2013). Consequently, the end-user may suffer from dissatisfaction (Pirkkalainen et al., 2019), resigned or unwilling compliance with IT use standards, such as responding to workplace emails in real-time (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015) discontinuous usage intention and behaviors (Maier et al., 2015), and a lack of technology-enabled innovation may be observed. This setting suppresses strategic renewal and venture behavior, which depend on innovative and proactive use of technology.

Beyond techno-invasion, having continuous IT access at work can keep individuals from mentally distancing themselves from their jobs, thus lowering their general well-being (Jimmy et al., 2023). Consequences for well-being include work-related stress, burnout, and tiredness (Gaudioso et al., 2017; Srivastava et al., 2015), decreased happiness (Brooks, 2015), and work-life conflicts (Leung & Zhang, 2017).

Thus, techno-invasion seriously hampers intrapreneurial behavior by fostering a demanding and invasive work environment that hinders an individual's capacity for proactive engagement and innovation. Specifically, the constant feeling of being digitally connected could make workers less inclined to take part in strategic renewal tasks like reviewing current procedures or suggesting organizational changes (Morand et al., 2023). By deterring measured risk-taking and experimentation, it also weakens venture behavior (Morand et al., 2023).

Burnout and diminished creativity are the results of constant connectedness and the need to be present at all times, which are crucial for intrapreneurial activities. Employee happiness with IT is further damaged by unfavorable views of privacy invasion and information disturbance, which discourages them from using it creatively. The preliminary study by Koç & Gasimov (2023) evaluated the impact of techno-invasion on work-life balance among digital platform professionals. The results demonstrated a substantial positive linear association between techno-invasion

and work interference with personal life, showing that greater perceived intrusion of technology leads to lower work-life balance. Furthermore, a systematic review by Alam et al. (2020) states that techno-invasion has a detrimental impact on intrapreneurship, as it lowers job satisfaction and performance, which in turn inhibits intrapreneurial behavior (strategic renewal and venture behavior).

The need to work more quickly, respond more rapidly, and complete multiple projects at once are all characteristics of workload, a typical job requirement (Ingusci et al., 2021). In addition to workload, a phenomenon known as "techno-overload" has emerged in several organizational contexts in recent years. According to Sandoval-Reyes et al. (2019), technology in the workplace may be a great deal for improving work-life balance and managing procedures, as well as a problem because it can have a detrimental effect on employees' health when it is overly demanding and stressful. Technology can help firms save time and money while also enhancing the effectiveness, timeliness, and quality of human resources (Bell et al., 2006). Because of technology, people can communicate with friends, family, and coworkers at any time and have easy access to information at work. However, it takes time and effort for employees to accept change; although some embrace new challenges with joy, others are impacted by them. Accordingly, people now face new challenges in their lifestyle and place of employment as a result of the quick changes in technology (Ghislieri et al., 2018). Managing all the abilities and knowledge associated with the latest information technology advancements can make people feel anxious, incompetent, and insecure (Jie & Jiang, 2008). The risk of techno-overload, which refers to the increased and significant work excess brought on by the use of technology, should be taken into account (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008). Therefore, it is evident that techno-overload significantly affects intrapreneurial behavior, hindering employees' ability to be creative, risk-taking, and proactive, which are key drivers for strategic renewal and venture behavior.

Organizational intrapreneurial behavior can suffer greatly from technological uncertainty. Employees may be reluctant to participate in creative activities if they are uncertain about the technologies they use. This hesitancy results from uncertainty and fear of failing, which can inhibit risk-taking and creativity, two crucial aspects of strategic renewal and venture behavior (Matsunaga, 2024; Ye et al., 2024). Digital technology can both encourage and hinder intrapreneurial behavior, according to

Petzsche (2021), with important roles played by elements like work overload and IT support. in some cases, innovation leads to avoidance behavior. Thus, this aligns with the uncertainty avoidance theory, as Arslanagic-Kalajdzic et al. (2019) observed that higher levels of uncertainty tend to weaken intrapreneurial intentions.

Employees may find it challenging to successfully plan and carry out creative projects due to technological uncertainty, which can foster a sense of instability and unpredictability. Stress and anxiety brought on by this unpredictability may make intrapreneurial efforts even more difficult. According to a study by Arslanagic-Kalajdzic et al. (2019), employees' willingness to participate in intrapreneurial activities may be adversely affected by high levels of uncertainty, underscoring the significance of uncertainty avoidance in promoting intrapreneurial intentions.

Furthermore, a form of techno-stressor known as techno-insecurity characterizes situations in which workers fear losing their jobs to those who have embraced ICT or to those who possess better ICT abilities (Pflügner et al., 2021). Organizations usually ignore the mental health repercussions of work, even if their primary focus is on lowering the physical dangers connected with work-related duties (World Health Organization, 2005), namely, emotional exhaustion.

Techno-uncertainty refers to situations where ongoing ICT changes and upgrades unnerve users and create uncertainty, necessitating constant learning and education about new ICTs. Whereas techno-complexity

describes situations where the complexity associated with ICT makes users feel inadequate with regard to their computer skills and forces them to spend time and effort learning and understanding ICT (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008). These two techno-stressors are categorized as technology-related techno-stressors since they have a connection to ICT traits. Users may grow irritated with the sheer volume of features and the difficulty of utilizing them as ICTs get increasingly complicated. Employees will view any work demands imposed by the usage of technology as obstacles since they believe it to be difficult to utilize (Ayyagari et al., 2011). Workers who are unable to adjust to these difficulties may feel helpless in maintaining the desired level of employment continuity. Employees' knowledge and expertise may become outdated due to ongoing innovation, rapid changes in technology, and the abundance of possibilities. Furthermore, people frequently feel excluded from recent advancements

due to their restricted cognitive resources (Ayyagari et al., 2011). Employees may become more concerned about losing their employment or being replaced by others with more advanced technological abilities as a result of the higher expectations brought on by the rapid advancements of ICT (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008) . According to Ayyagari et al. (2011), job insecurity is positively correlated with rapid ICT transformation, thus negatively impacting intrapreneurship.

Ayyagari et al. (2011) define employee-perceived digital technology complexity as the extent to which using digital technology requires significant effort. Complex digital technologies can be seen as job demands since their utilization necessitates time and effort investment from employees, as well as the acquisition of new skills (Ayyagari et al., 2011; Tarafdar et al., 2015).

The Job Demand-Resources model (J-DR) by Bakker & Demerouti (2007, 2017) states that employee-perceived digital technology complexity should therefore have a detrimental impact on employee energy and health, resulting in tension and tiredness. Beyond mere physical fatigue, technostress can lead to exhaustion, as the relentless demands of digital tools and communication channels wear down employees mentally (Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

Cognitive overload is another consequence emerging when employees are forced to constantly adjust to new or changing technologies, which in turn diminishes their mental focus and ability to make sound decisions (Sweller et al., 2019). This strain can stifle creativity and hinder learning. Additionally, technostress can erode psychological safety, causing workers to hold back ideas or avoid taking initiative due to a persistent sense of being overwhelmed or unprepared (Edmondson, 1999).

Moreover, the expectation to stay connected outside work hours often disrupts sleep patterns, negatively affecting mood, focus, and general well-being (Derks et al., 2014). Collectively, these challenges weaken an employee's ability to think proactively and innovatively, key traits needed for fostering intrapreneurial behavior (strategic renewal and venture behavior) within an organization (Derks et al., 2014).

In conclusion, technostress exhausts the mental and emotional reserves necessary for intrapreneurial engagement. Strategic renewal-organizational adaptation through innovation-and venture behavior-characterized by proactive and risk-taking actions-are central outcomes of intrapreneurship. However, as previously discussed,

technostress can drain employees' psychological resources, limiting their capacity to engage in these behaviors (Tarafdar et al., 2010). Hence, this leads to the following hypothesis:

H3 Technostress has a relationship with Intrapreneurship

H3a Technostress is negatively associated with Strategic Renewal

H3b Technostress is negatively associated with Venture Behavior

2.4. Decision-Making Styles, Technostress, and Intrapreneurship

Technostress, or stress brought by technology use, can greatly influence how decisions are made. According to (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008) it has been linked to decreased levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction, which may impact decision-making styles.

Within the Job Demands- Resources (JDR) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), technostress is a job demand that drains employees' cognitive and emotional energy. This resource depletion can, in turn, limit their capacity to engage in proactive behaviors, including intrapreneurial activities (strategic renewal and venture behavior) (Buono et al., 2023). Intrapreneurial activities heavily rely on decision-making techniques, especially rational and intuitive methods. In contrast to intuitive decision-making, which depends on experience and gut instinct, rational decision-making entails the methodical examination and logical evaluation of options. Within organizations, both approaches can affect the results of innovation (Sadler-Smith, 2004).

According to research, the association between stressors like technostress and intrapreneurial behavior may be mediated by decision-making styles. Both rational and intuitive styles have a considerable impact on choice outcomes, particularly when there are varying levels of environmental uncertainties, according to a study on the influence of cognitive styles on entrepreneurial decision-making (Kickul et al., 2009). Moreover, organizational innovation can also be impacted by the interaction of decision-making styles and technostress. As Kahneman & Klein (2009) note, individuals often turn to mental shortcuts or heuristics when faced with time pressure or high cognitive demands. In line with this, moderate technostress may encourage a shift toward intuitive decision-making, where quick judgments are favored. However, when

technostress reaches high levels, it can overwhelm cognitive resources, impairing the ability to think systematically and undermining the rational decision-making process (Tarafdar et al., 2011; Kahneman & Klein, 2009). This interaction may mediate technostress's impact on organizational outcomes in both strategic renewal and venture behavior.

Research supports the fact that technostress negatively impacts several elements of workplace functioning. According to Tarafdar et al. (2007), role stress and decreased productivity brought on by technostress might impair organizational effectiveness. Ayyagari et al. (2011) further showed that technostress erodes organizational commitment by increasing turnover intentions and decreasing job satisfaction. Similar findings were reported by Ragu-Nathan et al. (2008), who discovered that technostress impairs staff innovation in a crucial aspect of intrapreneurial activity, as well as employee satisfaction.

Also, decision-making styles and other cognitive processes are having a growing impact on innovation, especially in the form of ventures and strategy renewal. According to Scott and Bruce (1995), decision-making styles might be intuitive, avoidant, or rational. In this study, the focus is placed on rational and intuitive decision-making styles as the key cognitive mechanisms that mediate the relationship between technostress and intrapreneurial behavior. While the avoidant style is recognized in the literature, it is not included in the empirical analysis of this research.

A study by Maier, C. et. al. (2012) and Srivastava et al. (2015) shows that technostress has been associated with cognitive overload and emotional tiredness, which may, in turn, hinder people's capacity to make logical decisions and instead encourage more reactive or irrational reactions. Accordingly, the association between intrapreneurial outcomes and technostress is probably mediated by decision-making styles. High levels of technological stress might cause employees to make impulsive, avoidant, or non-strategic decisions, which limit their ability to take creative risks or engage in a strategy renewal (Westover, 2024; Yildirim & Elber Börü, 2023). On the other hand, those who continue to make logical decisions under pressure can be better able to focus their energies on futuristic projects. This systematic cognitive method facilitates more deliberate risk-taking and creativity within the organization. According to Marques et al. (2021), professionals with a rational approach, for instance, are more likely to take part in intrapreneurial activities like seeking out new

market prospects and starting internal projects to propel organizational growth. This aligns with Elbanna's (2006) findings, which highlight that the quality of decision-making plays a crucial role in shaping innovation and strategic initiatives within organizations.

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) suggests that technostress, viewed as a type of job demand, drains employees' mental and emotional resources. This depletion hampers their ability to make thoughtful, effective decisions. When technostress interferes with working memory capacity (Sweller, 1988), individuals struggle with the kind of systematic thinking needed for rational decision-making. As a result, they tend to rely more on gut feelings and mental shortcuts (Kahneman, 2011).

This shift from analytical to intuitive decision-making plays a key role in how technostress affects intrapreneurship. While careful, reasoned decisions support meaningful innovation and strategic change through deliberate planning (Eisenhardt & Zbaracki, 1992), decisions made impulsively under stress may lead to rushed initiatives that lack depth or originality (Riedl et al., 2012).

Therefore, the following hypotheses are:

H4: Decision-making styles mediate the relationship between technostress and intrapreneurship.

H4a Rational decision-making style mediates the relationship between technostress and strategic Renewal

H4b Intuitive decision-making style mediates the relationship between technostress and strategic renewal

H4c Rational decision-making style mediates the relationship between technostress and venture behavior

H4d Intuitive decision-making style mediates the relationship between technostress and venture behavior

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Questions

This research explores these research questions:

1- Does technostress impact strategic renewal and venture behavior?

2- Do decision-making styles mediate the relationship between technostress and intrapreneurship?

3.2 Purpose of the Research

The purpose of this research is to explore how technostress affects decision-making styles (DMS), impacting intrapreneurship within high-tech organizations. More specifically, this research examines how technostress affects an individual's decision-making styles, whether intuitive or rational, and in turn how these DMS impact intrapreneurship in terms of strategic renewal and venture behavior.

3.3 Importance of the Research

This study is important because it tackles a topic that is both current and urgent in contemporary organizations: the growing influence of technostress on employee behavior and organizational performance, with the mediating effect of decision-making styles. According to Tarafdar et al. (2019) employees are experiencing more psychological and cognitive strain as digital technologies become more incorporated into their regular work activities. This pressure depletes cognitive resources, affecting the effectiveness of information processing and decision-making (Chandra et al., 2015). It is caused by technostress producers such as techno-overload and techno-complexity (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008). By incorporating the Job Demand-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), this study offers a new perspective on how technology stress might exhaust cognitive resources, impeding intrapreneurial activities. Understanding that intrapreneurship mostly depends on proactive decision-making and creative thinking, it is imperative to comprehend these dynamics.

Moreover, this research contributes to the comprehension of two different dimensions of DMS: rational versus intuitive, both acting as mediators between technostress and intrapreneurship. In contrast to intuitive DMS (impulsive) (Bruine de

Bruin et al., 2007) that depletes resources under pressure, rational DMS (systemic analysis) (Scott & Bruce, 1995) may reduce the impacts of technostress by mitigating the effects of technostress, therefore, lowering uncertainty and conserving cognitive resources for creative tasks.

Thus, this mediation demonstrates how stress alters the decision-making process, which in turn influences innovative behaviors, consequently extending the cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and the job demand recourse model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017).

There has been plenty of previous research on intrapreneurship as a driving force for innovation (Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001); however, there is less exposure to the psychological barriers that employees encounter when engaging in such behaviors. Hence, by linking these two variables, technostress and intrapreneurship, this research highlights how external stressors may influence/weaken innovative behavior. In the process, it also investigates the mediating function of decision-making styles (DMS), which may represent a cognitive mechanism by which intrapreneurial behavior is impacted by technostress. Thereby extending the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991).

3.4 Model of the Research

As per the literature review on technostress, decision-making style, and intrapreneurship, Figure 1 represents the conceptual research model.

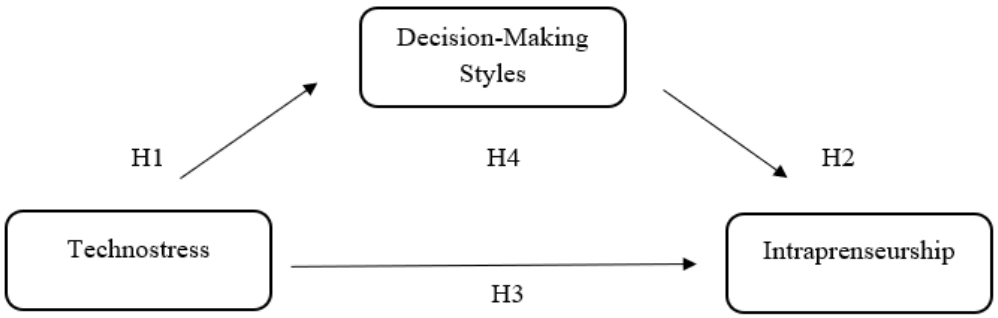


Figure 2. Conceptual Framework

3.5 Research Hypotheses

H1 Technostress has a relationship with decision-making styles

H1a Technostress is negatively associated with Rational Decision-Making Styles

H1b Technostress is positively associated with Intuitive Decision-Making Styles

H2 Decision-making style has a relationship with intrapreneurship

H2a Rational decision-making style is positively associated with strategic renewal

H2b Intuitive decision-making style is negatively associated with strategic renewal

H2c Rational decision-making style is positively associated with venture behavior

H2d Intuitive decision-making style is negatively associated with venture behavior

H3 Technostress has a relationship with Intrapreneurship

H3a Technostress is negatively associated with Strategic Renewal

H3b Technostress is negatively associated with Venture Behavior

H4 Decision-Making Styles mediate the relationship between technostress and intraprenurship

H4a Rational decision-making style mediates the relationship between technostress and strategic Renewal

H4b Intuitive decision-making style mediates the relationship between technostress and strategic renewal

H4c Rational decision-making style mediates the relationship between technostress and venture behavior

H4d Intuitive decision-making style mediates the relationship between technostress and venture behavior

3.6 Sampling and Data Collection

This study adopted a quantitative approach and a questionnaire for data collection and analysis. The questionnaire was distributed online and completed by 330 employees from all levels within a high-tech company in the Netherlands within a period of almost 45 days. The employees responded to 54 questions with a scale from (1= Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree), indicating their level of agreement with each statement. A convenience sampling method was employed to recruit participants, as it provided accessible contact with employees within the organization and facilitated efficient data collection within the study's timeframe.

3.7 Scales Used in the Research

There are three types of scales employed in this research. The first scale is the Technostress Creators Scale (Tarafdar et al., 2007) measuring technostress. This included five dimensions: techno-overload, techno-complexity, Techno-invasion, techno-insecurity, and techno-uncertainty. The second scale is the General Decision-Making Style (GDMS) (Scott & Bruce, 1995) measuring decision-making styles. This variable entails two dimensions: rational and intuitive. The third scale is the Employee Intrapreneurship Scale (EIS) (Gawke et al., 2019) measuring intrapreneurship. This variable has two dimensions: venture behavior and strategic renewal behavior.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND FINDINGS

4.1. Data Analysis

The data was analyzed using the smart PLS 4 Program. First, reliability, factor loadings, and convergent-discriminant validity studies were used to evaluate the measurement model. The second step of the evaluation process was carrying out a structural model assessment.

4.2. Descriptive Statistical Information

Descriptive statistical analysis was performed to summarize the demographics of the sample. A total of 330 participant responses were analyzed with no omissions, including demographic variables like age, gender, marital status, job position, tenure, and education level. The sample is uniformly allocated by gender, with 50.6% of participants as males and 49.4% as females. This close representation of gender distribution mitigates any general gender sampling bias. The age distribution is spread among five categories, of which 30% are the largest age group between 26-35 years. The second age group made up 26.4% of the population, 36-45 years, which is directly followed by 23% aged between 18-25 years. The last age groups represent the minority, 16.4% being 46-55 years, along with 3.9% for 56 and above years. The majority of the population is relatively young adults, as per the mean age of 2.48 (SD = 1.13). Therefore, the above percentages suggest that the majority of the participants in this study are largely composed of employees in the early to mid-stages of their careers. As for marital status, 45,5% reported being single, 42.1% were married, and 12.4% were divorced. The high proportion of single participants is due to the higher distribution of young adults in the responses.

Job positions are distributed into four categories, of which technical roles are identified to be the highest at 40%, followed by operational roles at 25.2%, managerial roles at 17.6%, and other roles at 17.3%. As for the tenure, participants reported varying lengths, with the majority working 1-3 years (27.9%), 4-6 years (24.5%), and 7-10 years (21.5%). The educational attainment for over half of the participants, 57.9 %, held a bachelor's degree, with a mean for the whole education category of 2.05 (SD = 0.73), signifying that most of the population is relatively well-educated.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistical Information

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender			
Male	167	50,6	50,6
Female	163	49,4	100,0
Total	330	100,0	
Age			
18-25	77	23,3	23,3
26-35	99	30,0	53,3
36-45	87	26,4	79,7
46-55	54	16,4	96,1
56 and above	13	3,9	100,0
Total	330	100,0	
Marital Status			
Single	150	45,5	45,5
Married	139	42,1	87,6
Divorced	41	12,4	100,0
Total	330	100,0	

Table 3. Descriptive Statistical Information Continued

Job Position			
Managerial	58	17,6	17,6
Technical	132	40,0	57,6
Operational	83	25,2	82,7
Others	57	17,3	100,0
Total	330	100,0	
Tenure			
1-3 years	92	27,9	27,9
4-6 years	81	24,5	52,4
7-10 years	71	21,5	73,9
11-15 years	36	10,9	84,8
16 and above	13	3,9	88,8
Less than 1 year	37	11,2	100,0
Total	330	100,0	
Education			
High School	68	20,6	20,6
Bachelor's	191	57,9	78,5
Masters	58	17,9	96,1
Doctoral	13	3,9	100,0
Total	330	100,0	

4.3. Measurement Model Assessment

4.3.1. Factor Loadings

The outer loadings of each indicator on its corresponding construct were investigated to evaluate the validity and reliability of the measurement model. According to Hair et al. (2019), all items exhibited standardized loadings over 0.70 criterion, demonstrating an adequate reliability indicator. One of the subdimensions of Technostress, "Techno-complexity- question three", was removed as it impacted the overall internal scale. Thus, improving the overall reliability and consistency of the whole construct. This is consistent with Hair et al. (2019), who suggest that items with low factor loadings—typically below 0.70—should be considered for deletion to improve scale reliability and construct validity.

Table 4. Factor Analysis

	IDMS	RDMS	SRINTR	TCTS	TITS	TINVTS	TOTS	TUTS	VBINTR
I1	0.802								
I2	0.814								
I3	0.801								
I4	0.85								
I5	0.83								
R1		0.793							
R2		0.87							
R3		0.851							
R4		0.858							
R5		0.77							
SR1			0.765						
SR2			0.838						
SR3			0.855						
SR4			0.843						
SR5			0.826						
SR6			0.84						
SR7			0.834						

Table 4. Factor Analysis Continued

SR8	0.754					
TC1		0.835				
TC2		0.875				
TC4		0.806				
TC5		0.866				
TI1			0.83			
TI2			0.756			
TI3			0.868			
TI4			0.772			
TI5			0.787			
TINV1				0.822		
TINV2				0.75		
TINV3				0.824		
TINV4				0.814		
TO1					0.807	
TO2					0.909	
TO3					0.88	
TO4					0.855	
TO5					0.897	
TU1						0.803
TU2						0.866
TU3						0.888
TU4						0.776
VB1						0.842
VB2						0.827
VB3						0.84

VB 4	0.877

Table 4. Factor Analysis Continued

VB 5	0.852
VB 6	0.864
VB 7	0.875

Note: I = Intuitive, R = Rational, DMS = Decision-Making Styles, TS = Technostress, TC = Techo-Complexity, TU = Techno-Uncertainty, TINV = Techno-Invasion, TI = Techno-Insecurity, TO = Techno-Overload, INTR = Intrapreneurship, VB = Venture Behavior, SR = Strategic Renewal.

4.3.2. Construct and Convergent Reliability Analyses

As stated by (Mark R., 1996, p. 28) "The degree of stability and consistency of a measuring device is its reliability. Reliability is fundamentally about repeatability. When an instrument is used frequently, will the results remain the same?" Composite reliability (CR) and Cronbach's Alpha are two of the most used techniques for determining reliability; a threshold of greater than 0.70 is advised (Hair et al., 2019). All constructions in the current investigation had Cronbach's Alpha values that were higher than the lowest allowable limit, ranging from 0.86 to 0.938. Likewise, composite reliability sources further supported internal consistency, as evidenced by these findings that construct reliability has been proven. Convergent validity is the degree of agreement between various indicators of the same construct. According. Bagozzi et al. (1991), suggests that measurements meant to represent the same notion should have a significant correlation. To exhibit satisfactory convergent validity, Hair et al. (2019) state that the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) score should be higher than 0.50. In this study, it exceeded this standard, with values ranging from 0.645 to 0.758. Convergent validity and dependability of constructs are thus verified. The findings are shown in Table 4.

Table 5. Construct and Convergent Reliability Analysis Results

	Cronbach's alpha	Composite reliability (a)	Composite reliability (c)	Average variance extracted (AVE)
I DMS	0.878	0.879	0.911	0.672
R DMS	0.887	0.899	0.917	0.688
SR INTR	0.93	0.933	0.943	0.673
TC TS	0.867	0.868	0.909	0.715
TI TS	0.863	0.874	0.901	0.646
TINV TS	0.826	0.875	0.879	0.645
TO TS	0.921	0.968	0.94	0.758
TU TS	0.855	0.877	0.901	0.696
VB INTRA	0.938	0.942	0.95	0.729

Note: I = Intuitive, R= Rational, DMS = Decision-Making Styles, TS = Technostress, TC = Techo-Complexity, TU = Techno-Uncertainty, TINV = Techno-Invasion, TI = Techno-Insecurity, TO = Techno-Overload, INTR = Intrapreneurship, VB = Venture Behavior, SR = Strategic Renewal

4.3.3. Discriminant Validity

Fornell & Larcker's (1981) criterion states that a concept is considered to have discriminant validity if its square root of AVE is higher than the correlation with any other construct. In this study, a construct's square root of AVE was found to be higher

than its association with different constructs. Thus, compelling evidence is offered in support of the establishment of discriminant validity. It is possible to verify that this condition is met by looking at Table 5 and comparing each construct to the other constructs in the same row and column.

Discriminant validity was evaluated according to Fornell & Larcker (1981) and the HTMT criterion. All values for HTMT are below 0.90, and the square root of AVE for the construct exceeds its correlation with all other constructs, indicating that the results satisfy the requisite threshold as outlined in Table 6.

Table 6. Discriminant Validity (Fornell and Larcker Criterion)

	I DMS	**R DMS**	**SR INTR**	**TC TS**	**TI TS**	**TINV TS**	**TO TS**	**TU TS**	**VB INTR**
I DMS	0.82								
R DMS	-0.224	0.829							
SR INTR	-0.145	0.45	0.82						
TC TS	0.455	-0.108	-0.061	0.846					
TI TS	0.626	-0.16	-0.261	0.629	0.804				
TINV TS	0.489	-0.076	-0.063	0.571	0.718	0.803			
TO TS	0.51	-0.11	-0.241	0.515	0.703	0.638	0.871		
TU TS	0.421	0.025	-0.196	0.408	0.562	0.412	0.604	0.834	
VB ITNR	-0.098	0.351	0.804	0.041	-0.193	-0.022	-0.191	-0.139	0.854

Note: I = Intuitive, R= Rational, DMS = Decision-Making Styles, TS = Technostress, TC = Techo-Complexity, TU = Techno-Uncertainty, TINV = Techno-Invasion, TI = Techno-Insecurity, TO = Techno-Overload, INTR = Intrapreneurship, VB = Venture Behavior, SR = Strategic Renewal

Table 6. HTMT

	I DMS	R DMS	SR	TC TS	TI TS	TIV TS	TO TS	TU TS	VB INTRA
I DMS									
R DMS	0.257								
SR INTRA	0.159	0.483							
TC TS	0.518	0.13	0.116						
TI TS	0.712	0.191	0.284	0.723					
TINV TS	0.532	0.112	0.116	0.681	0.814				
TO TS	0.559	0.115	0.273	0.558	0.777	0.671			
TU TS	0.477	0.152	0.215	0.466	0.648	0.439	0.676		
VB INTRA	0.111	0.373	0.865	0.079	0.211	0.148	0.218	0.153	

Note: I = Intuitive, R= Rational, DMS = Decision-Making Styles, TS = Technostress, TC = Techo-Complexity, TU = Techno-Uncertainty, TINV = Techno-Invasion, TI = Techno-Insecurity, TO = Techno-Overload, INTR = Intrapreneurship, VB = Venture Behavior, SR = Strategic Renewal

4.3.4. Valıdatıng High Order Construct for the Model

In this study, there are three dimensions: technostress, decision-making styles and intrapreneurship. Technostress consists of 5 subdimensions that are Techno-complexity, Techno-insecurity, Techno-invasion, Techno-overload, and Techno-uncertainty. Decision-making style consists of intuitive decision-making and rational decision-making. Finally, intrapreneurship consists of venture behavior and strategic renewal. In these dimensions, technostress was a higher-order construct. To evaluate construct validity, a comprehensive assessment was conducted focusing on factor loadings, composite reliability, and average variance extracted (AVE), were evaluated.

The factor loadings of all the indicators of the variables have a value greater than the minimum acceptable value of 0.50 (Hair et al., 2010). None of the items were removed due to factor loadings. Reliability was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha and composite reliability; statistics for both were greater than the recommended value of 0.70 for the higher-order construct, hence indicating good reliability. Convergent validity was acceptable because the AVE was higher than 0.50 for the high-order construct.

Discriminant validity was evaluated according to Fornell & Larcker (1981) and the HTMT criterion. All values for HTMT are below 0.90, and the square root of AVE for the construct exceeds its correlation with all other constructs, indicating that the results satisfy the requisite threshold as outlined in Tables 7 and 8. Consequently, it can be concluded that validity and reliability for higher-order constructs for all dimensions have been established.

Table 7. Factor Loadings, Cronbach's Alpha, CR, and AVE for HOC

	Outer loadings	**Cronbach's Alpha**	**Composite reliability (rho_a)**	**Composite reliability (rho_c)**	**Average variance extracted (AVE)**
TC	0,748	0,872	0,903	0,907	0,663
TI	0,908				
TINV	0,818				
TO	0,861				
TU	0,723				

Note: TC = Techo-Complexity, TU = Techno-Uncertainty, TINV = Techno-Invasion, TI = Techno-Insecurity, TO = Techno-Overload

Table 8. HTMT for HOC

	I DMS	R DMS	SR INTR	TS	VB INTR
I DMS					
R DMS	0.257				
SR INTR	0.159	0.483			
TS	0.702	0.152	0.232		
VB INTR	0.111	0.373	0.865	0.171	

Note: I = Intuitive, R = Rational, DMS = Decision-Making Styles, TS = Technostress, INTR = Intrapreneurship, VB = Venture Behavior, SR = Strategic Renewal.

Table 9. Forner and Locker for HOC

	I DMS	R DMS	SR INTRA	TS	VB INTRA
I DMS	0.82				
R DMS	-0.223	0.829			
SR ITNRA	-0.146	0.455	0.82		
TS	0.622	-0.116	-0.217	0.815	
VB INTRA	-0.1	0.357	0.794	-0.142	0.853

Note: I = Intuitive, R = Rational, DMS = Decision-Making Styles, TS = Technostress, INTR = Intrapreneurship, VB = Venture Behavior, SR = Strategic Renewal.

4.4. Structural Model Assessment

4.4.1. Indicator Multicollinearity

The accuracy of the results may be impacted by common method bias, which is a risk when gathering data from a single participant. A comprehensive collinearity test that closely examines the inner VIF values can be performed to ascertain whether a reflective model is impacted by this bias. The model is not impacted by the common method bias as all inner VIF values are 3.3 or less (Ned Kock, 2015). Collinearity was assessed in this study using the VIF test, and none of the VIF values were higher than this cutoff.

Table 10. Inner Indicator VIF Results

Inner Model	VIF
I-DMS -> SR	1.738
I-DMS -> VB	1.738
R-DMS -> SR	1.087
R-DMS -> VB	1.087
TC -> I-DMS	1.752
TC -> R-DMS	1.756
TC -> SR	1.763
TC -> VB	1.763
TI -> I-DMS	2.799
TI -> R-MS	3.054
TI -> SR	3.219
TI -> VB	3.219
TINV -> I-DMS	2.167
TINV -> R-DMS	2.335
TINV -> SR	2.185
TINV -> VB	2.185
TO-> R-DMS	2.466
TU -> I-DMS	1.472
TU -> R-DMS	1.693
TU -> SR	1.528
TU-> VB	1.528

Note: I = Intuitive, R= Rational, DMS = Decision-Making Styles, TS = Technostress, TC = Techo-Complexity, TU = Techno-Uncertainty, TINV = Techno-Invasion, TI = Techno-Insecurity, TO = Techno-Overload, INTR = Intrapreneurship, VB = Venture Behavior, SR = Strategic Renewal

4.4.2. Path Coefficients

The evaluation of direct correlations between latent variables was the main emphasis of the structural model assessment, and the results were summarised using t-values, p-values, and path coefficients (β) (Table 11). To determine statistical significance, these estimates were obtained by the use of bootstrapping with 5,000 subsamples, a robust resampling technique (Hair et al., 2019). While significance levels are determined by t-values (which are computed as |original sample/standard deviation|) and accompanying p-values, the path coefficients show the direction and strength of associations.

The results showed no significant relationship between technostress and rational decision-making style (β = -0.116, t = 1.604, p = 0.054), which led to the rejection of hypothesis H1a, which investigates the relationship between technostress and decision-making styles. Technostress, however, showed a significant positive impact on intuitive decision-making style (β = 0.622, t = 12.518, p = 0.000), confirming the validity of H1b. In terms of Hypothesis H2, which investigates how decision-making styles affect intrapreneurship, it was found that rational decision-making style had a significant impact on both strategic renewal (β = 0.45, t = 9.051, p = 0.000) and venture behavior (β = 0.355, t = 6.664, p = 0.000), supporting the validity of H2a and H2c. Conversely, there were no significant correlations between intuitive decision-making style and venture behavior (β = 0.068, t = 0.975, p = 0.165; H2d rejected) and Strategic Renewal (β = 0.094, t = 1.473, p = 0.07; H2b rejected). For Hypothesis H3, which evaluates the direct influence of technostress on intrapreneurship, technostress showed negative associations with venture behavior (β = -0.143, t = 1.967, p = 0.025; H3b accepted) and strategic renewal (β = -0.223, t = 3.461, p = 0.000; H3a accepted). Table 10 shows the direct relationship results.

Table 11. Direct Relationship Results

	Original sample (O)	Sample mean (M)	Standard deviation (STDEV)	T statistics (|O/STDEV)	P values
I-DMS -> SR	0.094	0.091	0.064	1.473	0.07
I-DMS -> VB	0.068	0.065	0.07	0.975	0.165
R-DMS -> SR	0.45	0.455	0.05	9.051	0
R-DMS -> VB	0.355	0.361	0.053	6.664	0
TS -> I-DMS	0.622	0.626	0.05	12.518	0
TS -> R-DMS	-0.116	-0.119	0.073	1.604	0.054
TS-> SR	-0.223	-0.221	0.065	3.461	0
TS -> VB	-0.143	-0.14	0.073	1.967	0.025

Note: I = Intuitive, R= Rational, DMS = Decision-Making Styles, TS = Technostress, INTR = Intrapreneurship, VB = Venture Behavior, SR = Strategic Renewal

4.4.3. Mediation Analysis

Following the recommendations of Hair et al. (2019), mediation analysis was carried out following the evaluation of the direct connections (Table 11). To ascertain if the association between technostress and intrapreneurship (strategic renewal and venture behavior) was mediated by decision-making styles (rational and intuitive), the particular indirect impacts were investigated. Technostress did not have a statistically significant indirect effect on strategic renewal through rational decision-making styles

(β = -0.052, t = 1.578, p = 0.057). Although technostress's direct impact on strategic renewal was still significant (β = -0.223, t = 3.461, p = 0.000), H4a was rejected since there was no significant indirect effect. Moreover, the indirect route via intuitive decision-making styles from technostress to strategic renewal did not achieve significance (β = 0.058, t = 1.461, p = 0.072). H4b was rejected because there was no evidence of mediation, even though technostress had a significant direct negative impact on strategic renewal (β = -0.223, t = 3.461, p = 0.000). Technostress had a marginally insignificant indirect effect on venture behavior through rational decision-making styles (β = -0.041, t = 1.527, p = 0.063). H4c was rejected because the direct effect of technostress on venture behavior (β = -0.143, t = 1.967, p = 0.025) remained significant. Finally, intuitive decision-making styles did not significantly mediate the indirect relationship between technostress and venture behavior (β = 0.042, t = 0.97, p = 0.166). Table 12 shows the mediating results.

Table 12. Mediating specific indirect effect

	Original sample (O)	**Sample mean (M)**	**Standard deviation (STDEV)**	**T statistics (|O/STDEV|)**	**P values**
TS -> R-DMS -> SR	-0.052	-0.054	0.033	1.578	0.057
TS -> I-DMS -> SR	0.058	0.057	0.04	1.461	0.072
TS-> R-DMS -> VB	-0.041	-0.043	0.027	1.527	0.063
TS -> I-DMS -> VB	0.042	0.04	0.044	0.97	0.166

Note: I = Intuitive, R= Rational, DMS = Decision-Making Styles, TS = Technostress, INTR = Intrapreneurship, VB = Ventur Behavior, SR = Strategic Renewal

After conducting the path coefficients and analyzing them, the study proceeded to examine R^2 values, which measure the proportion of variance in endogenous constructs explained by their predictors and were used to assess the explanatory power of the model (Hair et al., 2019). R^2 (coefficient of determination) quantifies the amount

of variation in a dependent variable elucidated by a regression model (J. Cohen, 1988). According to Cohen's effect size criteria, where $R^2 > 0.14$ signifies a "large" influence, the data indicate: The I-DMS model ($R^2 = 0.387$) accounts for 38.7% of the variation, signifying a considerable impact. The R-DMS model ($R^2 = 0.014$) accounts for merely 1.4% of the variance, which is below Cohen's "small" effect threshold (0.01), indicating minimal explanatory capacity. Although the VB model is at the lowest threshold for this categorization, both the SR model (R2 = 0.24) and the VB model (R2 = 0.14), which account for 24% and 14% of their respective variances, satisfy Cohen's "large" effect criteria.

Table 13. R^2

	I-DMS	**R-DMS**	**SR**	**VB**
R2	0.387	0.014	0.24	0.14

Note: I = Intuitive, R= Rational, DMS = Decision-Making Styles, TS = Technostress, INTR = Intrapreneurship, VB = Venture Behavior, SR = Strategic Renewal

Table 14. Summary of the Hypothesis Results

H1 Technostress has a relationship with decision-making styles		**Partially Accepted**
H1a Technostress is negatively associated with Rational Decision-Making Styles	Rejected	
H1b Technostress is positively associated with Intuitive Decision-Making Styles	Accepted	
H2 Decision-making style has a relationship with intrapreneurship		**Partially Accepted**
H2a Rational decision-making style is positively associated with strategic renewal	Accepted	
H2b Intuitive decision-making style is negatively associated with strategic renewal	Rejected	
H2c Rational decision-making style is positively associated with venture behavior	Accepted	
H2d Intuitive decision-making style is negatively associated with venture behavior	Rejected	

Table 14. Summary of the Hypothesis Results Continued

H3 Technostress has a relationship with Intrapreneurship		
H3a Technostress is negatively associated with Strategic Renewal	Accepted	**Accepted**
H3b Technostress is negatively associated with Venture Behavior	Accepted	
H4 Decision-Making Styles mediate the relationship between technostress and intraprenurship		
H4a Rational decision-making style mediates the relationship between technostress and strategic Renewal	Rejected	
H4b Intuitive decision-making style mediates the relationship between technostress and strategic renewal	Rejected	**Rejected**
H4c Rational decision-making style mediates the relationship between technostress and venture behavior	Rejected	
H4d Intuitive decision-making style mediates the relationship between technostress and venture behavior	Rejected	

DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study explored the relationship between technostress and intrapreneurship, with a focus on the mediating function of both intuitive and rational decision-making styles. The results show novel information about how employees' capacity for strategic renewal and venture behavior in high-tech companies is impacted by technostress. The following discussion examines important empirical trends, theoretical congruence, and practical implications. Here, we discuss the main conclusions, their ramifications, and how they compare or contrast with previous research.

According to the study, technostress has a negative impact on venture behavior ($\beta = -0.143$, $p = 0.025$) and strategic renewal ($\beta = -0.223$, $p = 0.000$). This is in line with the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017), which suggests that technostress functions as a job demand that drains the mental resources necessary for creative and innovative thinking. These results are consistent with earlier studies (Ayyagari et al., 2011; Tarafdar et al., 2007) that employees' ability to be innovative and proactive is reduced by excessive ICT-related stress. Employees' capacity for risk-taking and innovation, which are essential for intrapreneurial activities, is diminished by the aspects of technostress, techno-overload (work intensification), techno-invasion (work-life blurring), and techno-insecurity (fear of obsolescence) (Tarafdar et al., 2010).

Technostress had a marginally significant detrimental impact on rational decision-making ($\beta = -0.116$, $p = 0.054$), indicating that stressed workers might have trouble thinking systematically and analytically. Emerging evidence from Yildirim & Elber Börü (2023) provides a compelling theoretical lens for this negative association. Their findings validate that techno-overload—defined as perceived technology-induced overwhelm—directly compromises rational decision-making ($\beta = -0.113$, $p < 0.05$). This suggests that within our high-tech context, techno-overload likely functioned as the primary stressor, potentially inhibiting any positive impacts from other characteristics of technostress, such as complexity or uncertainty. The nearly marginal significance may reflect a "threshold effect" (Riedl et al., 2012), or aggregation bias resulting from the utilization of a higher-order construct (HOC), wherein conflicting effects of subdimensions (e.g., techno-insecurity against techno-overload) diminished statistical signals. Both strategic renewal ($\beta = 0.45$, $p = 0.000$)

and venture behavior (β = 0.355, p = 0.000) were strongly positively impacted by rational decision-making, highlighting its significance in promoting intrapreneurial activities. These results align with Kahneman's (2011) dual-process theory, which highlights how System 2 (rational) thinking plays a key role in enabling thoughtful and intentional innovation.

Rational decision-making's mediation effect between technostress and intrapreneurship, however, was not statistically significant (p = 0.057 for SR; p = 0.063 for VB), suggesting that although technostress somewhat hinders the pathway of innovation, rational decision-making fosters it. According to (Riedl et al., 2012), stress causes people to make heuristic-based decisions, as seen by the considerable rise in reliance on intuitive decision-making (β = 0.062, p = 0.000). However, its mediating role was likewise negligible (p = 0.072 for SR; p = 0.166 for VB), and intuitive decision-making had no discernible impact on venture behavior (p = 0.165) or strategic renewal (p = 0.07). This suggests that although stress tends to activate intuitive responses (as described in Kahneman's (2011) System 1 thinking), these rapid assessments signify "cognitive noise" rather than drivers of innovation, supporting findings that indicate stress-induced intuition lacks strategic significance for complex problems (Song et al., 2023; Sadler-Smith, 2004). This divergence draws attention to a theoretical nuance: despite its potential to facilitate quick problem-solving, intuition doesn't seem to be enough to drive innovative behavior. (Calabretta et al., 2017).

Despite the lack of confirmation of the mediating effects, the substantial direct correlation between intrapreneurship and rational decision-making suggests that individuals who keep analytical, structured thinking are better able to innovate in the face of technological stress. According to Bakker & Demerouti (2007) Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model, where cognitive resources, such as the ability to make logical decisions, act as a buffer against performance reductions brought on by stress. This corresponds with neuropsychological research indicating that executive function under stress is a crucial factor in workplace innovation (Arnsten, 2009). This highlights the significance of rational thinking as a personal asset within the JD-R framework, mitigating demands generated by technostress (Harunavamwe & Ward, 2022).

This study adds to the expanding literature of research on technostress by directly connecting it to intrapreneurship, a field that has received little attention up to this point. This builds on Sweller's (1988) Cognitive Load Theory by demonstrating

how technostress can overload working memory, limiting the mental capacity needed for creative and innovative thinking. According to (Sweller, 1988), it supports views that stress reduces cognitive flexibility and verifies the detrimental effects of technostress on innovation. The results enhance the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991) by demonstrating how cognitive assessment under stress impacts innovation and emphasize the crucial role that rational decision-making plays in maintaining intrapreneurial behavior. Collectively, these theoretical frameworks: JD-R, Dual-Process Theory, Cognitive Load Theory, and Theory of Planned Behavior all converge on the notion that innovation is dependent on environmental manageability and cognitive preparedness in addition to motivation and attitude.

Nonetheless, it is necessary to recognize certain limitations. Common method bias could be introduced by depending entirely on self-reported measures. Moreover, the results are unique to high-tech industries and might not apply to less technologically advanced fields. By measuring technostress as a single overall score (high-order construct), the research might have overlooked important differences between its specific elements (like techno-overload vs. techno-complexity). As Yildirim & Elber Börü (2023) demonstrate, these elements can affect decision-making in opposing ways. This aggregation may explain why there were no mediation effects – distinct pathways might have canceled each other out. For instance, techno-insecurity (HOC loading=0.908) exhibited the largest impact on innovation ($r = -0.261$ with strategic renewal), while techno-overload primarily impeded rational DMS. Also, the lack of significant mediation implies that other psychological elements (e.g., work autonomy, organizational support, psychological safety) may play a better role in enhancing intrapreneurship. In healthcare settings, perceived organizational support (POS) substantially mitigates technostress by addressing socio-emotional demands and facilitating workplace flourishing (Stadin et al., 2020).

Organizations ought to use a multifaceted approach in order to reduce the negative impacts of technostress and promote intrapreneurship. The first step to reduce technostress is by implementing policies like digital detox programs (e.g., no emails after working hours), establishing "focus hours" free from notifications, and consolidating redundant apps to minimize techno-overload and ambiguity. This is crucial considering Yildirim & Elber Börü's (2023) findings that overload specifically hinders rational thinking, which is the primary catalyst for intrapreneurship reported

in our research (H2a,c). Second, it's critical to support logical decision-making. To do this, organizations should offer structured seminars that promote data-driven problem-solving and explicit frameworks for assessing novel concepts, and access to digital adoption platforms (DAPs) for in-app guidance. Last but not least, it's crucial to cultivate an innovative culture. Programs such as innovation workshops, psychological support services, and outdoor spaces for relaxation can enable staff members to take part in strategic and innovative endeavors. Businesses may unlock the intrapreneurial potential of their staff and drive substantial innovation and competitive advantage by tackling technostress, improving decision-making procedures, and creating a supportive atmosphere.

This study examined the mediating function of decision-making styles in the link between intrapreneurship and technostress. According to the results, employees' capacity to practice strategic renewal and venture behavior, two essential elements of intrapreneurship, is significantly negatively impacted by technostress. In contrast, intuitive decision-making did not significantly contribute to intrapreneurial results, despite being exacerbated by technostress. The presence of techno-overload in our high-tech sample, as indicated by Yildirim & Elber Börü (2023) Subdimensional analysis elucidates the suppression of rational decision-making and the absence of mediation effects, as conflicting influences canceled each other out in the overall assessment. Thus, this research suggests that although technostress can directly hinder innovation, mitigating techno-overload (via workload audits) and techno-insecurity (via reskilling programs) can also develop strong rational decision-making abilities to sustain intrapreneurial actions, even when working in demanding digital environments.

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APPENDIXES

ETHICS REPORT

T.C.
İSTANBUL GELİŞİM ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Etik Kurul Başkanlığı

ETİK KURUL KARAR ÖRNEĞİ

Toplantı No	Toplantı Tarihi	Toplantı Saati	Toplantı Yeri
2024 – 20	19.12.2024	14.00	Rektör Yardımcısı Odası

KARAR NO: 2024-20-32: Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü, İşletme (İngilizce) Tezli Yüksek Lisans Programı 231432502 numaralı Maha BAYADO' nun, Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Birol BAYSAK' ın danışmanlığında yürütülen "The Impact of Techno-Stress on Intrapreneurship: The Mediating Role of Decision-Making Styles" konulu çalışması hakkında yapacağı anket sorularının, etik kurallara uygun olup olmadığını tespit etmek üzere, İGÜ Etik Kurulumuzun 29.11.2024 tarih ve 2024-19 sayılı toplantısında, İGÜ Etik Kurul Yönergesinin 12(1) maddesine göre değerlendirme yapmak üzere görevlendirilen öğretim elemanlarının raporları incelenmiş olup, ilgili çalışmada yer alan bilimsel araştırmanın etik kurallara uygun olduğuna oy birliği ile karar verildi.

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CREATORS OF TECHNOSTRESS SCALE

Use the provided scale (1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree) to indicate your level of agreement with each statement.

1. I am forced by this technology to work much faster.
2. I am forced by this technology to do more work than I can handle.
3. I am forced by this technology to work with very tight time schedules.
4. I am forced to change my work habits to adapt to new technologies.
5. I have a higher workload because of increased technology complexity.
6. I spend less time with my family due to this technology.
7. I have to be in touch with my work even during my vacation due to this technology.
8. I have to sacrifice my vacation and weekend time to keep current on new technologies.
9. I feel my personal life is being invaded by this technology.
10. I do not know enough about this technology to handle my job satisfactorily.
11. I need a long time to understand and use new technologies.
12. I do not find enough time to study and upgrade my technology skills.
13. I find new recruits to this organization know more about computer technology than I do.
14. I often find it too complex for me to understand and use new technologies.
15. I feel constant threat to my job security due to new technologies.
16. I have to constantly update my skills to avoid being replaced.
17. I am threatened by coworkers with newer technology skills.
18. I do not share my knowledge with my coworkers for fear of being replaced.
19. I feel there is less sharing of knowledge among coworkers for fear of being replaced.
20. There are always new developments in the technologies we use in our organization.
21. There are constant changes in computer software in our organization.
22. There are constant changes in computer hardware in our organization.
23. There are frequent upgrades in computer networks in our organization.

GENERAL DECISION-MAKING STYLE (GDMS)

Use the provided scale (1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree) to indicate your level of agreement with each statement.

1. I prefer to gather all the necessary information before committing to a decision.
2. I thoroughly evaluate decision alternatives before making a final choice.
3. In decision making, I take time to contemplate the pros/cons or risks/benefits of a situation.
4. Investigating the facts is an important part of my decision-making process.
5. I weigh a number of different factors when making decisions
6. When making decisions, I rely mainly on my gut feelings.
7. My initial hunch about decisions is generally what I follow.
8. I make decisions based on intuition.
9. I rely on my first impressions when making decisions.
10. I weigh feelings more than analysis in making decisions.

EMPLOYEE INTRAPRENEURSHIP SCALE

Use the provided scale (1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree) to indicate your level of agreement with each statement.

1. I undertake activities to realize change in my organization.
2. I undertake activities to change the current products/services of my
3. I contribute ideas for strategic renewal for my organization.
4. I utilize insights of other experts to innovate in my organization.
5. I undertake activities that change the structure of my organization.
6. I undertake activities that change the work practices of my organization.
7. I exploit opportunities in the labor market or society to renew my organization.
8. I undertake activities to set up new business units.
9. I undertake activities to reach new markets or communities for my organization.
10. I undertake activities that result in new departments outside of my organization.
11. I conceptualize new ways of service for my organization.
12. I undertake activities that result in new projects within my organization.
13. I actively establish new collaborations with experts outside of my own profession.
14. I conceptualize new products for my organization.

CURRICULUM VITAE

MAHA BAYADO

Istanbul – Turkey

Academic Background

Istanbul Gelişim University, Istanbul / Turkey October 2023- July 2025

• Masters in Business Administration

American University of Science and Technology, Beirut/ Lebanon 2011-2012

• Bachelor of Science in Business Finance

Qatar University – Doha /Qatar 2007-2009

• School of Business and Economics

American Academy of Beirut- Beirut /Lebanon 2004-2006

• High school diploma

Baghdad International School – Iraq 1999-2003

Professional Experience

PARC *International* School Istanbul -Turkey December 2023 - present

Preschool Homeroom Teacher

-Plan and implement lesson plans, using a variety of instructional and assessment methods that align with the School's mission, Diversity Statement, educational philosophy, and departmental curriculum and competencies.
-Tailor instruction to help each child reach their full potential.
-Assess and monitor each student's progress in both academic and social-emotional development.
-Ensure that appropriate accommodations and modifications are made to support the growth and development of students.
-Foster in each student an appreciation for diverse perspectives, learning approaches, and content.
-Set standards for student behavior to create a productive learning environment.
-Create a safe, nurturing, and caring classroom environment where every student feels that the teacher is a friendly and approachable guide, helping them to learn and grow with confidence.
-Effectively and promptly communicate with parents and caregivers, addressing their questions and concerns through various channels.
-Maintain subject-area expertise including knowledge of national and local standards.
-Collaborate consistently with colleagues to ensure that the curriculum content and

assessments are aligned and delivered uniformly.
-Incorporate appropriate technology and other effective resources to enhance the learning experience, where applicable.

CareBears Preschool Riyadh – Saudi Arabia September 2019 till June 2023

Preschool Homeroom Teacher

- Designing lesson plans that align with the curriculum and educational standards for preschool education.
- Incorporating a variety of developmentally appropriate activities, materials, and resources into lessons to foster learning and engagement.
- Adapting lessons to meet the individual needs and abilities of diverse learners in the classroom.
- Introducing and reinforcing key concepts through hands-on, play-based, and experiential learning experiences.
- Incorporating creativity and variety into lessons to cater to different learning styles and interests.
- Establish and enforce rules of behavior for children in their classrooms - Provide basic needs for children.
- Provide tools and resources for children to use and explore during learning and play activities.
- Develop and maintain positive relationships with children and parents.
- Assessing student progress and providing feedback to parents and guardians.

Group BANKMED Sal Verdun Head Office Beirut – Lebanon April 2012 to March 2015

Central Operations Division – Trade Finance Department

Trade Finance Officer

DOCUMENTARY CREDIT:

Key Responsibilities:

- Import / Export LC processing, including issuance/negotiation, acceptances, and payments.

- Coordinate with other departments (Corporate, Compliance and Financial Institutions) in order to complete the opening process of the L/C or to clarify any inconsistencies that may occur.

- Follow up with the branch and the customer for issues arising from the L/C - Amend and follow up with correspondents.

DOCUMENTARY COLLECTION

Key Responsibilities

- Processing import and export Documentary Collection.

- Payment settlements.

LETTERS OF GUARANTEE

Key Responsibilities

- Issuance and amendments of Guarantees and Standby Letter of Credit, including the creation, assessment, and negotiation of transaction texts and other related tasks (such as fee collection, cancellation, claims, etc.)

- Settle payments related to Letter of Guarantees.

- Dealing with customer queries.

- Following up with the branches and tracking pending issues.

BANKMED SAL IN-HOUSE ROTATION:

Central Operations Division November 2011 to April 2012

TRANSFER DEPARTMENT Transfers – Incoming Payment Orders and Outgoing Payment Orders

CLEARING DEPARTMENT Checks Clearing – Incoming Checks and Outgoing Checks

TREASURY BACK OFFICE – MONEY MARKET Placements, Interbank Transfers, FX (spot and forward deals)**, S**ecurities

INTERNSHIP AT ARAB BANK PLC - Beirut/Lebanon October 2011 to November 2011- Teller and Customer Service Transactions.

TRAINING AND CERTIFICATIONS

BankMed SAL In-House Training

- Attended: Time management, Teamwork.
- Presented Trade Finance (LCs, LGs**,** and DC) in ***the*** Lab Branch Course for the branches

OTHER TRAININGS AND SEMINARS

JACQUES SABOUNJI: The rules and regulations of International Standards in Banking Practices

CERTIFICATIONS

- Positive Discipline Association - Certified Positive Discipline Parent Educator
- Arizona State University, Arizona / USA 2020 - TESOL – Second Language Reading, Writing**,** and Grammar (Online non-credit course)

COMPETENCIES

• BANK MASTER. IBS NET, SWIFT ALLIANCE, AND MICROSOFT OFFICE

INTERESTS

• Reading and traveling

Recommendations upon Request