A microfoundations' approach to understanding the effects of external and internal crises on job insecurity and performance in HEI faculty.

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Introduction

Organizations are not isolated from their environments (Downes et al., 2017) and depend on their fit with and within their sectors to survive (Wilbon, 2015). This is part of the evolutionary perspective in strategy, especially from an Industrial Organizations' standpoint (Del Olmo-Martínez and López-Paredes, 2017). That is, whenever organizations face sudden changes in their environments, their reaction (Huy et al., 2015), and further adaptation (Saebi et al., 2017), may become impaired. This is due to several aspects, such as threat rigidity (i.e., freezing) when there is maladaptive reaction towards the fit with the environment (Staw et al., 1981; Authors et al., 2017). Higher education institutions (HEIs) are part of a never-ending cycle of adaptations with and within their environment, especially if private-funded HEIs are considered, and, consequently, are frequently prone to display rigidity in face of threats.

Such changes and their consequential quick adaptations (or misalignments) may induce certain levels of uncertainty in HEIs (Pucciarelli and Kaplan, 2016). Such uncertainties may be interpreted internally as anomalous situations as well as a continuous source of attrition and insecurity (Johnson and Hoba, 2015; Alvesson and Benner, 2016). Thus, one may understand that the changes in the environment have their repercussions inside HEIs. However, the effects of uncertainty and their outcomes on professors' job insecurity and performance self-assessment are still subject to discussion. This is due to the ambiguous results in the literature stemming from the result of negative pressures such as crises and threats on job insecurity and performance on HEI faculty members (Moshoeu and Geldenhuys, 2015; Ugboro and Obeng, 2015; Morrish and Sauntson, 2016; Mudrak et al., 2018).

On the other hand, the effects of crises and their maladaptive reactions in HEIs still merit research because they most commonly lead to organizational decline (Daly et al., 2011; Serra et al., 2013; Daly et al., 2015). Among these, the Threat Rigidity thesis prescribes that organizations facing acute threats will have impaired responses to the changes in their environments, which may have internal consequences for their management (Staw et al., 1981; Author et al., 2017; Authors, 2018). As such, sudden changes in environment will be treated internally as crises, leading to impaired responses, especially behaviorally. Whereas the relationship between external, environmentally-induced crises on internal organizational crises is somewhat studied in the literature, the effects of both on perceived job insecurity and performance, from a microfoundations of strategy standpoint (Lee and Zhang, 2013; Lin and Yu, 2014) still lacks consistent results.

Thus, our main objective is assessing the extent of both external and internal crisis' effects on perceived job insecurity and job performance. Our sample is comprised of 505 currently employed faculty in private HEIs in Brazil. The choice of country was due to recent shocks and instabilities amongst the local private HEI sector in that may enhance the salience of the crisis perception from the faculty standpoint. To test our hypotheses, we employed a partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM). We hypothesized that both external crisis and internal crises affect job insecurity and performance, and the hypotheses were confirmed.

The results contribute in reinforcing the notion that misalignments between organizational strategy and the environment lead organizations to perceive such developments as crises; that performance is not only linked to the internal environment of the organizations but also of the macro external environment, and finally that insecurity in private HEIs lead to less perceived job

performance. Our work has its limitations, the main one being the sample made of only one country. Also, we measured self-assessed job insecurity and job performance instead of gathering actual data, and as such these may be affected by the respondent's personal beliefs and personality traits as well as uncontrollable and circumstantial aspects.

Literature review and hypotheses development

Globalization has had several effects on the competitive landscape of organizations in the higher education industry. There has been a significant increase in access, and more people around the world are entering higher degrees of education. This led to an intensification of competition in HEIs, which needed to meet new levels of demand, not only in terms of access, but also in service quality (Van der Wende, 2003). The demand for higher quality standards in the service provided in the higher education sector has led organizations to reevaluate the basis of their competitive advantages, bringing to light new differentials and the improvement of existing ones. Positions in outdated concepts will not guarantee the continuity of the competitive differential that many educational institutions are based on, and that the growing demand for higher education is not only a demand for more of it (Van der Wende 2003, 203). It was necessary for the structure of the higher education sector to change to give way to new ways and positions of competition.

The new competition bases, such as distance education and e-learning (Salmon, 2005), internationalization (Altbach and Knight, 2007), curriculum innovations (Fallows and Steven, 2000) and so on have allowed educational institutions to offer new teaching standards, providing better education and learning. The advent of technology applied to teaching also allowed the creation of dynamic and interactive didactic materials bringing new ways of how the teacher can interact with the student, maximizing the interactive potential of this relationship (Sharpe, Benfield, and Francis, 2006). In addition, technology has brought new ways of generating information to support decision making, which makes it possible to identify patterns that demonstrate deficiencies in both the education process (primary activity) and other supporting activities of educational institutions (Fatimah, Gazi, and Saedah, 2010).

Private HEI and environmental fit

These new competition aspects cause changes in the HEI environment. However, sudden changes may be interpreted as threats to individual organizations in the environment (Staw et al., 1981). As such, changes in the environment will entail behavioral (and consequently strategic) alterations in the underlying actors, because these threats will be interpreted as critical. This effect is call Threat Rigidity, and, according to it, organizations will suffer from a range of impaired responses such as restriction in information and constriction in control (Staw et al., 1981) as well as sharp diminishing of external stimuli from the environment, reduction in discriminative abilities in problem definition and a return to overlearned behavior (Author et al., 2017; Author, 2018). However, these reactions are paradoxical, since to withstand crises, it is most commonly the opposite behavior necessary to attain resilience (Barnett and Pratt, 2000; Antonacopoulou and Sheaffer, 2014).

Crises have the power to disrupt normal operations in organizations (Barnett and Pratt, 2000). Therefore, it is of the utmost important for organizational strategy to understand crises, their effects in internal operations, as well as the possible outcomes once the crisis is reined in (Antonacopoulou and Sheaffer, 2014) – if it ever is. However, predicting crises and preparing for them is usually understood as a paradox, since crises are rare events that have a strong emphasis on time pressure for the decision-making process, which is blurred by ambiguity in the causes,

effects and means of resolution (Pearson and Mitroff,1993; Pearson and Clair, 1998). That is, crises are unpredictable, and past knowledge is most commonly insufficient to deal with it, as well as sometimes even being counterproductive to dealing with (Coombs, 2010).

As such, whenever there are sudden or radical changes in the environments, the organizations within it most commonly understand such developments as a threat to the status quo (Staw et al., 1981; Author et al., 2017; Authors, 2018). This may induce organizations to enter a phase of organizational inertia (Kelly and Amburgey, 1991; Geiger and Antonacopoulou, 2009) directly due to a stronger underlying form of organizational autism (Muurlink et al., 2012). This may be especially frequent in older organizations because of their intrinsic higher implementation costs, which may generate difficulties in implementing firm-wise changes in short notice. (Muurlink et al., 2012; de Figueiredo Jr. et al., 2015).

Crises within organizations

Crises, then, engender negative effects inside organizations. Among these effects, organizational strategy is mainly affected in four aspects (growth, change, leadership and organizational culture) (Probst and Raisch, 2005; McMillan and Overall, 2017). The first critical negative problem related with crises is that the expected growth path planned before the emergence of a crisis is interrupted. As such the long-term strategy is left aside temporarily and organizations tend, instead, to focus on inward sensemaking (Author et al., 2017; Ribeiro-Soriano and Kraus, 2018), as well as to finding safer strategies within their organizational memory (Daly et al., 2011; Plotnick and Turoff, 2014; Author et al., 2017).

As such crises tend to create an ill-mannered environment internally, so that the consequences for employee security as well as job performance are at least diminished. The curtailing in the internal channels of communication fosters rumors which augment the sense of insecurity (Smet et al., 2016). The increased insecurity has also been long discussed as one of the leading causes of sudden drops in job performance (Giorgi et al., 2015, Selenko et al., 2017). Thus, one perceives that there is a causal link of events – first, a sudden change in the environment, the perception of threat as a crisis by organizations, and within them, the sharp drop in job security and performance. These aspects are found in different levels of the organization, and, as such, affect strategic aspects such as organizational decline.

Microfoundational aspects of crises inside HEIs

Organizational decline in HEIs needs deeper understanding, which can be achieved by a microfoudantional approach. The idea behind microfoundations of strategy is bridging the gap between causal relations in the macro strategic processes plane and its internal micro mechanisms (Felin, Foss and Ployhart, 2015). One of its advantages is potentially counterbalancing the negative effects of oversimplification in multilevel theories – i.e., whenever different levels of analysis (such as individual compared to the organization) are studied, there is a general tendency to overlook the influence and weight of individuals and, consequently, their collective routines and capabilities (Foss and Pedersen, 2016). As such, both Threat Rigidity, the possible reaction within HEIs and further outcomes fill this space, since the analysis provides microfoundational arguments for eventual poor organizational performance.

On the other hand, it is not practical, at least in terms of theory building, to propose a clear cut between strategy (as seen from the sector), organizational behavior as well as member/team level. This may find some relevance and theoretical foundation in the field of microfoundations of strategy, which aims at decomposing macro-level constructs in terms of the actions and

interactions of lower level organizational members, understand how firm-level performance emerge from the interaction of these members, and how relations between macro variables are mediated by micro actions and interactions (Felin, Foss and Ployhart, 2015, E22).

In this sense, the microfoundations approach to strategy fills this void. It aims at bridging the gap between the macro level to the individual, going through routines and group coalitions. From a theoretical point of view, Threat Rigidity offers microfoundational support for many of the problems found in the reaction stage in times of crisis. The following figure represents the actions and reactions of crises in the environment within private HEIs.



Figure 1 – Microfoundations of crises, insecurity and performance in HEIs (L_n: Level; T_n: Time)

Sudden changes are potential threats to environments, but at an organization-level, these are mostly interpreted as crises. Sensemaking in times of crises is at least impaired (McMillan and Overall, 2017). This may lead organizations to instill a fear-related climate that results in insecurity (Smet et al., 2016), and, consequently, decreased job performance (Giorgi et al., 2015, Selenko et al., 2017). As we define Hypothesis 1 (H1) as:

Environmental crisis affects positively internal crisis (H1a), positively job insecurity (H1b) and negatively job performance (H1c).

Environmental changes may lead organizations to rethink their positioning towards competitors as well as according to the sector rules (Huhtala et al., 2014). As such there is a profound sense of isomorphism, especially when considering the role of top notch private HEIs and their performance within the sector (Curtois, 2018). Such HEIs struggle to deal with two different as well as diverging institutional logics, and those which maintain leadership in the sector are easily and quickly copied, so that the changes in the environment is felt in a very fast way. These innovations may be felt by some HEIs as potential causes for lack of fit between them and their environments, and, consequently, lead to internal crises. In this sense, the Threat Rigidity thesis predicts that whenever there is an acute change in the environment, the change is mostly interpreted as a threat and there will be an impaired response to it. The original Threat Rigidity

paper establishes two main internal mechanisms in organizations facing such threats - an increased restriction in information and constriction in control (Staw et al., 1981). These in, turn, will lead to a sense of increased insecurity, which, impacts job performance. Thus, we hypothesize that (H2):

Internal crisis influences positively job insecurity (H2a) and negatively job performance (H2b).

There is a long discussion in the literature, comprising decades of research, that points to the effect of insecurity on job performance. More specifically, these effects also happen in HEI environments, and most definitely in private-funded institutions (Dolan, 2011; Bozeman and Gaughan, 2011; Khalid et al., 2012). We, thus, hypothesize that (H3):

Job insecurity negatively affects job performance (H3).

The following figure represents our theoretical model.



Figure 2 – Theoretical model: constructs and hypotheses proposed

Method and sampling

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) first appeared in the 1980s as a form of soft modelling, aiming at dealing with complex models, containing non-adherent and multivariate normal distributions of data (Mackenzie et al., 2011). Because they were applied to structural models based on covariance or maximum likelihood estimation, which implied the use of vast amounts of data to fit such models, their use was restricted mostly to the hard sciences. With the introduction of the first partial least square (PLS) methods, which are usually applied to situations of testing striving models in an exploratory way (Hair et al., 2016), new possibilities opened up. Thus, SEM comprises a set of methods intended to test conceptual and theoretical models, especially when multiple interactions between factors are in play. Among them, the partial least square (SEM-PLS) branch of methods has been successfully employed for its capabilities in eliciting predictions, along with testing and building theory (Hair et al., 2016). SEM-PLS has also been used for decades in organizational and management research (Sosik et al., 2012).

Running a SEM-PLUS model is done by dividing the procedures into two parts. The first part is the measurement model, in which proxy variables are taken from the literature to measure effects. These effects are united in constructs, which can be arranged in relationships in the second part—the structural regression model (Hair et al., 2016). As described in the conceptual model

section, this work builds upon the four constructs commonly found in the literature (structural model) and measures their effects by associating them with variables (measurement model). The following sections describe the scales associated with each construct.

Crisis-related scales

External crisis, or sector crisis, is not a common construct in the HEI literature. For the most part, universities are either public-funded, which bestows them with an increased level of protection and stability if compared to market entities, or, at least, in the case of private-funded ones, provide them some shelter because of legislation and rules (da Rosa Borges et al., 2016). However, in developing countries such as Brazil, the private sector HEIs have quickly become the majority in HEIs, and, coupled with a more liberal economic and juridical environment, made it easier for shifts in the sector locally. To measure the amount of perceived external crises, we used the sector-related items in the Response to crisis scale (Mishra, 1996) as well as the environmental crisis items in the Crisis Response framework (Pearson and Mitroff, 1993).

Internal crisis, on the other hand has a potential to make strategic decisions muddy, as well as impairing responses and decision-making outcomes. As for the eventual perception in the internal crisis, we measured from the internal items in the Response to crisis scale (Mishra, 1996) as well as the organization-related items in the Threat Rigidity scale (Daly, 2009; Daly et al., 2011).

Job-related scales

To adequately measure job insecurity three scales were used in conjunction. First, we used the organizational climate-related items in the Job Satisfaction scale (Noordin and Jusoff, 2009), since according to the Threat Rigidity thesis, the overall behavior of other actors reflects the general insecurity and rigidity of the organization. Following this, we also used organizational climate-related items from the Teaching Satisfaction scale (Ho and Au, 2006), because of the same reasons. Finally, we used all items contained in the Job Insecurity scale (De Witte, 2000; Van der Elst, De Witte, De Cuyper, 2014) to complete the picture. To gather data about perceived job performance we chose to use performance-related items from the New General Self-Efficacy Scale (Chen, Gully and Eden, 2001) and well as from the Job engagement scale (Rich, Lepine and Crawford, 2010).

Results and discussion

Originally, 897 questionnaires were sent to faculty members in privately-funded universities in 7 out of 27 states of Brazil. Eventual public universities' responses were eliminated from the sample. This was due to the faculty in Brazilian public universities automatically receiving tenure upon starting work. Public universities are government-funded and as such, display a much higher level in guaranteeing a more secure environment for their faculty. The results may be obtained from the authors upon request. In all, 505 completed questionnaires (approximately 56.3%) were obtained. The sample provides insight on the profile of private HEIs' faculty members in Brazil. The age was consistent with other countries (avg. = 53, sd. = 10.63), and males still predominate (67.13%). Respondents work an average of 12.48 weekly hours (sd. = 9.34), mostly teach undergraduate students (61.78%) and only 7.54% teach graduate school-level courses. Since there is not usually tenure for private HEIs in Brazil, faculty may teach in more than one HEI, but 81.89% teach in only one HEI. The sizes of the HEIs in terms of student bodies also vary (\leq 5,000 students = 5.9%; 5,001 - 10,000 = 9.3%; 10,001 - 30,000 = 15.5; 30,001 - 80,000 = 9.5%; students > 80,0001 = 62,8%) and the sample was concentrated in the Southern (27%) and Southeastern (67%) states of Brazil.

Whereas there is no consensus on set size pre-requisites and statistical power in SEM-PLS models (Westland, 2010), Marcoulides and Saunders (2006) suggest at least 52 cases for a maximum 3-arrow receiving model and Hair et al. (2016) recommend at least 191 results for a 1% significance, 0.10 minimum R² response. The response level, then, was much satisfactory as data from 505 faculty members were obtained, which satisfies both suggestions. Using the statistical software G*Power with the given parameters (sample = 505; maximum number of arrows towards a single construct = 3) for the proposed model, the sample size used for the analysis was verified to be adequate, with a statistical power of 98.9% (1- β error probability).

The first step in evaluating the proposed SEM-PLS model is verifying whether the Average Variance Extracted is higher than 0.5; else, a few variables need be eliminated from the model. After doing so one by one and verifying again the AVE levels, a few variables were removed. After the removal, the required minimum AVE levels were obtained. The internal consistency of the model was verified by measuring the Cronbach's alpha and Composite Reliability. Regarding Cronbach's alpha, the minimum required level for exploratory research is 0.6 and all four constructs obtained levels higher than those required. As for Composite Reliability, a value over 0.7 is required. The results for the constructs confirm the model's internal consistency (see Table 1). The next step is to analyze the discriminant validity according to the cross loadings.

	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	AVE
External Crisis	0.903	0.928	0.720
Internal Crisis	0.920	0.936	0.679
Job Performance	0.936	0.948	0.724
Job Insecurity	0.967	0.970	0.684

Table 1 – general model assessment

To achieve the level of reliability in the model several items were dropped, according to the procedures (Hair et al., 2016). The resulting model consisted then in 5 items for the External Crisis construct, 7 items in the Internal Crisis construct, 15 items in the Job Insecurity construct, and finally 7 items in the Job Performance construct. The following model summarizes the inner and outer models:



Figure 3 – Constructs, items and paths proposed.

The model as presented also displays a high level of fitness, with highly significant values for social science models. I the evaluation of Pearson's Coefficient of Determination (R^2), only arrow-receiving constructs, which work as dependent variables, are affected. The R^2 evaluates the portion of the variance of the endogenous variables, that is, it indicates the structural model's quality. According to Cohen (1988), R2 levels close to 0.13 indicate medium effects and levels close to 0.26 are considered high effects. The R^2 levels obtained demonstrate that the relationships in the model have a considerable effect – see Table 2.

	R ²	R ² adj.
Internal Crisis	0.443	0.442
Job Performance	0.667	0.665
Job Insecurity	0.417	0.415

Table 2 – Fitness (R^2) of the constructs

The next step is to analyze the discriminant validity according to the cross loadings. As can be seen in Table 3, all variables are perfectly aligned to their corresponding constructs.

	External Crisis	Internal Crisis	Job Performance	Job Insecurity
EC10	0,845	0,608	-0,487	-0,492
EC06	0,821	0,578	-0,459	-0,452
EC07	0,840	0,529	-0,403	-0,404
EC08	0,880	0,572	-0,510	-0,530
EC09	0,857	0,529	-0,436	-0,416
IC07	0,603	0,877	-0,553	-0,592
IC08	0,599	0,875	-0,545	-0,596
IC02	0,536	0,805	-0,450	-0,459
IC03	0,439	0,694	-0,365	-0,359

IC04	0,481	0,751	-0,427	-0,392
IC05	0,609	0,888	-0,552	-0,563
IC06	0,545	0,858	-0,528	-0,566
JP01	-0,473	-0,522	0,803	0,618
JP02	-0,471	-0,526	0,834	0,686
JP03	-0,494	-0,541	0,876	0,718
JP04	-0,445	-0,489	0,857	0,646
JP05	-0,454	-0,520	0,882	0,717
JP06	-0,450	-0,477	0,859	0,707
JP07	-0,451	-0,497	0,841	0,686
JIC1	-0,441	-0,497	0,636	0,838
JIC2	-0,446	-0,501	0,685	0,876
JIC3	-0,460	-0,526	0,694	0,894
JIC4	-0,293	-0,320	0,471	0,695
JIC5	-0,412	-0,499	0,666	0,873
JIC6	-0,419	-0,495	0,671	0,877
JIE1	-0,484	-0,544	0,652	0,784
JIE2	-0,474	-0,490	0,646	0,810
JIE3	-0,507	-0,569	0,736	0,886
JIE4	-0,523	-0,579	0,730	0,828
JIE5	-0,546	-0,598	0,691	0,814
JIE6	-0,533	-0,597	0,697	0,822
JIP1	-0,356	-0,485	0,628	0,808
JIP4	-0,418	-0,502	0,701	0,840
JIP5	-0,352	-0,430	0,594	0,735
JIP4 JIP5	-0,418 -0,352	-0,502 -0,430	0,701 0,594	0,840 0,735

Table 3 – Cross-loadings of items and their constructs

One also needs to conduct t-tests to verify the relationship between each variable and their corresponding construct. As can be seen from Table 4, as the relationship is > 1.96, all the variables are found to be adequately linked to their constructs and the hypotheses deemed accepted.

		t-tests	p-values	Result
H1 ;	a	24,728	0,000	Accepted
1	b	2,798	0,005	Accepted
	c	7,015	0,000	Accepted
H2 :	a	2,761	0,006	Accepted
1	b	12,835	0,000	Accepted
H3		19,494	0,000	Accepted

Table 4 – Hypothesized paths and their results

Once all the adequacy tests have been completed, the final model is ready. The main differences between the research model and the final model is that a few variables had to be removed (had no relation to the model). The final model is presented in Figure 4 (the * indicates the significant paths, i.e., accepted hypotheses).



Figure 4 – Final model (= significant paths / hypotheses).*

The results allow one to draw a few insights. First, the relationship between the macro level (sector, environment) and the micro level (organization) is of the utmost importance. The effects of the shifts in the environment are perceived as critical in the environment, per the Threat Rigidity theory (Staw et al., 1981). This relationship is by far the most significant in the model and should not be taken lightly. While the extant theory hypothesizes that this relationship is predicted the full extent of the negative outcomes is now clear - i.e., not only the sudden, radical changes in the environment are seen as negative, their impact on the organization is felt as an internal crisis.

Not predominant in the literature, the hypotheses that external crises impact the perception of job insecurity and performance are here confirmed. This means, for instance, that HEI faculty members do not only keep track of the changes within their organizations but also the keep tabs on the motions, developments and dynamics of the sector. While the effect of the external crisis is directly felt in the insecurity, it mainly affects the performance. This may be linked to psychological (behavioral) outcomes such as actively looking for employment in other HEIs while attempting to maintaining high productivity in the current HEI, as well as the (cognitive) result in the dropping of attention and the negative effects in the faculty's mindset at play.

Secondly, the role of insecurity on the performance is also very prominent. Items such as *I* think *I* might lose my job in the near future and *I* feel insecure about the future of my job as well as items that directly measure organizational climate security such as *The institution I work for is* reliable or *I can depend on the institution I work for* have exhibited high levels of negativity. Insecurity depends on a more personal level, and some people will feel while a subset of the people will not. However, the sources of insecurity may be more related to personal variables not comprised in this study (see limitations and future research).

On a microfoundational standpoint, the study demonstrates the link and directly relationship between the levels and underlying reactions towards organizational decline. Threat Rigidity is built on top of cognitive and behavioral-based handicaps such as sudden restriction in information access, increased control of information, reduction in the ability to assess problems, sharp decline in openness to external environments and answers and, worst of all, retrenching to overlearned behavior (i.e., going back to the organization's old long-tested response cookbook) (Staw et al., 1981; Muurlink et al., 2012; Author et al., 2017). When this stress-induced mindset is in place, decision-making quality drops quickly, defining priorities and problems to tackle becomes muddy and fuzzy, and overconservativeness reigns with a heavy hand. These will lead to dire consequences for the organizational reaction and further strategy development and implementation.

The analyses provide cognitive microfoundational arguments for eventual poor organizational performance. Yet, more studies could expand the microfoundations approach to encompass other strategic aspects related to organizational decline. This is especially true with the emergence and practical materialization of the field of microfoundations (Felin et al., 2012; Felin, Foss and Ployhart, 2015), whose utility for this study is bridging these gaps.

Limitation, future research, for practitioners

This study has its limitations. First and foremost, the sample was limited to one country (Brazil). While for the purposes of the study it is deemed adequate, care must be taken in generalizing the conclusions here towards other countries and areas. Institutional environments may differ significantly, leading to both regulatory and social outcomes that may nullify these results if taken from granted and applied without adaptation in other places.

The second aspect is that the sample is concentrated in the South and Southeastern areas of Brazil, which display a much larger level of development and HDI – directly impacting investments in the HEI sector and increasing competition. These aspects merit further research, since regional variations play an under-researched role in academia (Falaster et al., 2018).

A third aspect worth mentioning is that personal variables may also play a much larger role in the interpretation of changes in both environmental- and internal-related aspects. These also merit newer studies, including the application of and data gathering of personal variables such as regulatory focus and. adaptations of the high echelon theory.

Finally, practitioners must take care in understanding the data and the conclusions drawn here. First, several aspects were not purposely mentioned in the research such as the financial and judicial statuses of the HEIs. These aspects alone can induce much larger crises than just the developments in the sector. Also, public-funded universities display a much larger level of sheltering from environmental and crises that influence more private HEIs.

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